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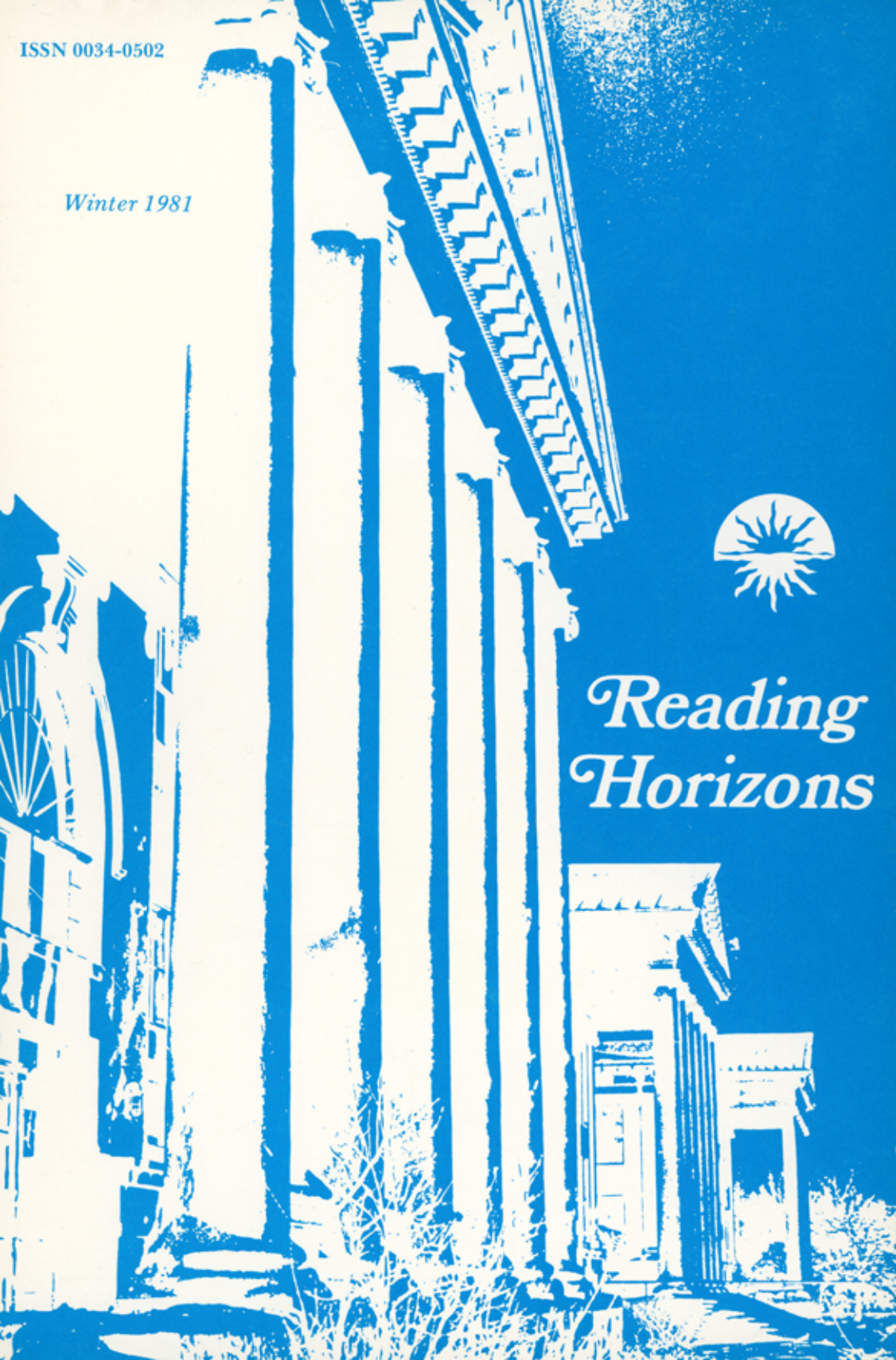


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EDITOR

Kenneth VanderMeulen

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EDITORIAL COMMENT

A new administration in Washington will doubtless bring many changes into our lives, changes which may be good or ill depending on our point of view. HORIZONS wishes to add to the potential for good by offering some advice to the leadership of the land. This journal has been in the position of gathering and winnowing educational strategies through the administrations of six presidents, and feels it is qualified to give advice.

First, our national leaders should follow the methods of reading specialists in accurate assessment of needs, of measuring strengths and weaknesses. In reading, we start working with students at all levels from their strengths, for the purpose of restoring some self-confidence. On the national level, we often see the assessment results becoming politicized, and the weaknesses being emphasized out of all proper proportions. Our advice in this regard is simple: stress the strengths before attempting to eliminate the weaknesses.

The aspect of self-confidence is as important in the national body as it is in a remedial reading student. We cannot base realistic and attainable goals on anything less than initial success when we work with disabled readers—our newly elected officials should see how teachers accomplish the building of success into the earliest efforts. Students or citizens, people must *believe they can* before they will put forth the energy. Americans should be told right now, and every day, that they are energetic, cooperative, cheerful, and generous. Specialists in reading know the sadness of seeing students who have been convinced by adults they are “no good.”

In working with reading students, teachers have to maintain a positive attitude, showing each student every step of progress, however small, in a graphic way, to enhance incentive. National spokespersons should recognize the necessity of this approach. They should show plainly they believe in the public, in the willingness of the people to work toward goals. A reading teacher cannot afford to let the word “failure” creep into the vocabulary—not reaching a goal is only a matter of delay. If this approach can be applied on a national basis, productivity will rise.

Teachers who devote themselves to the field of reading improvement have another ingredient we wish our national leaders could be given—the willingness to persevere, without adulation or gratitude from those they teach. If educators in reading did not have monumental patience, they would fail. The new administration needs to recognize the importance of patience, and avoid the temptation to project blame.

Last, and most important, cabinet members should observe that reading teachers cannot make false promises to students, or misinform their charges about their situation. It is well known that such actions damage students’ chances for the future. Political leaders too, should

realize that using ambiguous and equivocal language to hide the truth is damaging to the whole future of America. Honesty is vital.

The people of the nation are concerned about the future, like students coming to class on the first day of a new school year. Just as students look for encouragement, instruction, and guidance; adult citizens look to the new administration for confident leadership and straightforward accounts of the actions taken. Just as teachers of reading have to be unabashed peddlers of enthusiasm, our elected leaders have to be examples of competence without guile.

The new administration has a much longer period of time than reading teachers are given to make improvements evident; we can only hope helmsmen will set their course by the constellations of good teachers in our American schools.

Ken VanderMeulen

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OBSTACLES TO READING ACQUISITION: PREVENTATIVE AND CORRECTIVE CONCERNS

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In spite of the vast expenditure and research on the process of learning to read, there is little if any evidence that the incidence of reading disability is declining. Some, in fact, would argue that the contrary is true.

Two things are clear. We need to discover more efficient ways of treating disabled readers. Second, we need to discover means of teaching the young child in ways that will reduce failure hazards. The focus, then, in my view should be on both corrective and preventative measures.

In this paper I am developing the point of view that the obstacles confronting the disabled reader have parallels in many of the problems the young child faces in learning to read in the first place. I am discussing some of these obstacles in the hope that awareness of these obstacles may aid in programming to reduce the failure hazard in beginning reading, and increase the incidence of success in treatment of disabled readers.

Individual Expectations: Purpose of Reading

Many hold the view that the process of learning to read is an unnatural act whereas the process of speech acquisition occurs naturally. While it would be foolish to argue against the existence of differences between the two processes we should recognize that a child typically learns to speak in an environment where it is natural and, indeed, profitable to learn to speak as a means of satisfying his basic needs one of which is to establish some control over his environment. The incentive to learn to speak is, so to speak, "built-in."

Contrarily, the environment in which a young child typically gets initial exposure to reading provides little, if any, incentive to learn. The material often is divorced from the central purpose of reading, the communication of ideas and feelings. The child has to accept in good faith (totally unaware as to the reasons why) that if he learns the "bits and pieces" presented to him he will learn to read.

While the older disabled reader may be cognizant in a very general way of the purposes of print, for many the purposes are as global as "to find out what is in books" or "what books say." It is interesting to see the number of adolescent and adult *self-referrals* to our reading clinic

motivated by concerns such as “I can’t read the driver’s manual,” or “I don’t know how to read a menu” or “I can’t read well enough to get into vocational training.” An even more dramatic case—a lady in her mid-thirties recently came for reading assistance because “I can’t read books to my five year old like my friends are doing.” The point is that these people have failed to learn to read in school. They sought assistance motivated only by a need and a purpose to learn. While there is no suggestion that there may not have been debilitating circumstances in the early reading environment of these clients, our experience has been that they learn to read given a purpose to do so and appropriate guidance to complement the purpose.

In summary, learning to read is certainly an act less natural than the act of learning to speak. The argument can be made, however, that demonstrating explicitly the purpose of print is one means of creating a more natural reading environment.

Individual Expectations: Process of Reading

The abstract nature of written language presents obstacles for the young learner. He is unaware of the relationship between the global oral utterance and a corresponding display of written symbols. He is unaware of the segmentation of oral utterance into words, phrases and sentences and even more so of the conventions of segmenting written expression into corresponding units. Reid (1966) and Downing (1978), among others have documented the fact that the young reader typically lacks the concept of letter, word, sentence, etc.

Certainly, if the child is unaware of or confused regarding these basic literacy concepts he is unaware of how to proceed in his attempt to match ideas he has heard in speech with corresponding ideas in print. Indeed, this limits any attempts at anticipating or predicting units of meaning as part of the child’s initial notion of the process of reading. As a result, the child invents his own, often bizarre, notions of what he is supposed to be doing when he is “trying to read.” Just to document with one example, much has been written about difficulties children face in left to right orientation. Often treatment has involved little more than mechanical “tracking” or other “perceptual” tasks. While I have no reason to degrade training of a perceptual nature, much of this training is designed to treat a symptom rather than a problem. The problem frequently is that the child does not understand the basic relationship between the temporal flow of spoken language and the corresponding spatial flow of written language. He develops his own “hit and miss” approaches which might as well be right to left and left to right, or perhaps, random.

It comes as a surprise to many that disabled readers range in intelligence as widely as the normal population. While part of the explanation for failure of bright individuals learning to read may lie in the physiological-psychological domain, it is my observation that many have not learned because of confusion over the expectation of the pro-

cess of reading. It matters little whether the I.Q. is 70 or 170 if efforts are focussed on the “wrong thing.” We have had clinic referrals who have attended school for ten years and, after much probing, discovered that they had no concept of the process of reading. For example, we have had a number of adult disabled readers (average and superior I.Q. ranges) who had the expectation that if they learned to spell silently the letters before them quickly enough, the magic of reading would one day happen. The only difference that intelligence may make here is that the more highly intelligent person may learn to “spell” more quickly (not generally transferable to written spelling) but also that he may develop more subtle masks and emotional overlays resulting from the futility of his attempts.

Reading As Passive Behavior

Learning tasks for which goals lack clarity are likely to promote considerable passivity on the part of the learner. Ignorance of the purpose and process of reading tends to create, at least initially, a passive attitude toward reading. What typically follows from such attitude is the development of a variety of behaviors antithetical to learning to read. Perhaps the most pervasive of these “non-reading” behaviors are inattention and a general lack of persistence, both prime prerequisites for learning to read. Putting this another way, the child is unaware of why he is to be pursuing a task and at the same time unaware of *how he* is to proceed with the task. On the contrary, the active reader hypothesizes and questions and uses the grapho-phonemic information to confirm or refute these hypotheses. This does not mean that he won't flounder in the process. The point is that he has at least some awareness of what he is searching for and some awareness of what to do in order to achieve the goal.

Mager (1968) proposes that we develop either “approach” or “avoidance” tendencies toward life experiences depending on the degree of satisfaction we have received from an experience. It becomes clear from observation of floundering beginning readers and older disabled readers that the range of avoidance behaviors exhibited defy listing. Clearly, many disabled readers, young and old, invest more energy inventing avoidance tactics than in actual reading pursuits. This should not surprise us when we recognize the futility of a pursuit for which purpose and understanding is lacking.

Teaching Strategies Which Isolate Rather Than Integrate

I have alluded earlier in this paper to the fact that the act of learning to read is less natural than the act of learning oral language. Unfortunately, we often compound the unnaturalness through the teaching strategies we employ. There are still programs which promote a piecemeal approach to teaching reading as a series of isolated skills in the belief that when the child has mastered each skill he will read. Some children do learn in spite of the program. Others fail to make the

necessary generalizations and transfer. Many of these programs pose reading as totally divorced from the world of ideas and language. These programs view reading as the acquisition of a certain base of sight words complemented by the learning of sound/symbol correspondences. The assumption, generally implicit, is that the accumulation of these isolated skills will lead to the discovery of meaning from print. The use of the knowledge of syntax and semantics acquired in oral language is capitalized on only incidentally if at all.

There is no intention to down-grade the teaching of skills. However, many beginning readers who are capable of completing exercises in visual discrimination, auditory discrimination, phonetic skills, etc. to mastery level are unable to “put these skills together” in the act of reading. In fact, for many the attention seems to be so heavily focussed on specific grapho-phonemic aspects of reading that these stand in the way of reading in the true sense. Two points need to be made here. First, most beginning readers if exposed to meaningful print will, with appropriate direction and prompting, induce many of the grapho-phonemic generalizations necessary for fluent reading. Second, when direct instruction in grapho-phonemic skills occurs (and I recommend such instruction) these skills should be taught as facilitators of reading rather than as reading *per se*. This means that whatever specific grapho-phonemic skills are taught are taken from a language context—a context clear to the learner. When the practice of the skill is completed, the skill is applied to a total reading context to ensure transfer of the “facilitator” to the act of reading.

What about the parallel for the disabled reader? Assessment of the disabled reader has typically been based on a medical model. The client is given a battery of skill checks. After a profile has been established remediation ensues in an attempt to “bring him up to level” in the deficient skill areas. Two cautionary notes are in order. First, the assumption is often made (fallaciously) that the skills check samples adequately all the “facilitators” of the reading act. What is, in fact, often the case is that a limited sampling of grapho-phonemic skills is assessed without cognizance of the semantic and syntactic components of reading. Second, even if instruction in the areas of deficit result in mastery of specific “facilitators,” transfer to reading (and especially long-term improvement) frequently does not occur. The incidence of disabled readers scoring high on specific subtests, yet unable to read is well documented. In fact Seraficia (1970) found poor readers to score higher in visual discrimination than good readers. To illustrate with a specific example, an eight-year-old referred to our clinic scored between a grade five and six level on a “visual synthesis” subtest yet he was virtually a non-reader. Perhaps the comment made earlier in the paper is applicable here. Lack of knowledge of the process of reading, including the inability to distinguish between “facilitators” of reading and the act of reading, may cause a totally misguided focus in the learner’s attempt to acquire reading skills. I propose that programs emphasizing isolated

“facilitators” as opposed to integrated instruction, promote such misguided focus.

Programs Designed Around the Learner's Deficits

If one holds the view that the process of reading involves use of graphophonic, semantic and syntactic cues, one is faced with the challenge of designing instruction aimed at the most efficient use of these cues. This has important implications particularly for the beginning reader for at least three reasons. Instruction which focusses attention on use of the three cues (in concert) is likely to induce in the young learner the concept of reading as a communication process. (Note my comments earlier regarding the hazards involved in failing to understand the process of reading.) Further, such instruction provides a basis for “bridge-building” between what the child brings to school in the way of syntactic and semantic knowledge and process of reading. Indeed, most children by the time they reach school age are competent users of language and are able to anticipate and predict on the basis of their linguistic knowledge. Ironically, some programs of instruction ignore almost totally this resource both in terms of instructional methodology and choice of reading materials. The instruction frequently focusses heavily on the grapho-phonetic domain (the child's greatest deficit). Finally, a combination of trying to cope with an area of little knowledge and inability to transfer whatever grapho-phonetic knowledge is acquired often results in the development of failure complexes before the learner has really been given a fair chance.

For the disabled reader the problem may be at least as critical. It is important that the resource person designing instruction for him is aware of the nature of his reading failure. He may well have “broken down” in a program attempting to build heavily on grapho-phonetic skills. If such is the case, it is absolutely critical that his “second chance” is built on a broader language base. This should help in minimizing some of failure cues associated with the kind of instruction that has failed him once. Further, as far as the younger child, it will provide him with an opportunity to build on what he already knows about language.

Viewing Reading As “All or Nothing”

All of us recognize both the melody and lyrics of a piece of music long before we may be able to produce, in total, the composition. When do we “know” the composition? Only after we are able to perform the number? Or do we “know” the number even at the stage when we recognize it and are able to anticipate what follows what? For many young learners the task of reading demands that they are able to “produce” in total what is on the page. My strong view is that much opportunity should be provided for children to recognize in print ideas they already have in their heads in order to gradually become familiar with the conventions of print in relation to the ideas and corresponding words which they already understand. For many young children to follow with their eyes, word for word, a simple nursery rhyme which

they have committed for memory is a major feat. Yet many are forced into print in which ideas are totally foreign to them (if ideas, indeed, exist on the page) before they have developed some of the very basic recognition skills through nursery rhymes, songs, slogans, signs and labels. For the child, especially from a non literate environment, such an expectation is unreasonable. We need to learn to think of the acquisition of reading as gradually-emergent behavior. Instruction based on such a view is likely to develop confidence in the learner's ability and encourage more risk-taking behavior than is frequently the case.

Many disabled readers (not all) have acquired a kind of recognition-level reading behavior. If such is the case, some of the material learned at such a level should be used to aid him in gradually acquiring production-level reading behavior.

Teaching "Reading" in the Absence of Reading

Earlier I have endorsed direct instruction of reading skills, particularly skills taught in context with a direct view to transfer. For some children this is enough. They will be motivated to find material to "practice" their newly-acquired skills. Others (and there are many) need constant encouragement and exposure to interesting materials which they can use to refine and extend what they have learned. Smith (1975) has said that the child learns to read only while he is reading. The child who is motivated and has the confidence to take risks is likely to spend a good part of his waking hours on reading-related tasks trying a simple story book, perusing the toy section of a catalogue, deciphering what is on the cereal box and making sense of the television guide. In fact, it is my view that, given appropriate instruction and encouragement, the child will learn more outside of the "reading instruction period" than he will during the "period."

What I have said about the young reader is at least as true of the older disabled reader. Practically every one of our clinic adolescent and adult referrals admit to resisting any attempt at reading-related activity. Most have never read a single book and few attempt even the headlines in the newspapers. It is no wonder they remain disabled. The implications are clear. What these clients need at least as much as specific skill instruction is encouragement and guidance in spending time at reading activities at the risk of making many mistakes. Elsewhere I am suggesting ways of promoting the shift from a non-reading attitude to one of reading pursuits.

Limited Listening Activities to Extend Syntactic and Semantic Competence

While it is true that many children come to school having acquired the basic language patterns of adult speech, it must be recognized that flexibility in the use of language and the ability to elaborate these patterns is still limited. They have the requisite linguistic competence to anticipate and predict much of what appears in print. It is the responsibility of the school to provide constant opportunity for children to

listen to literature so that they can extend and refine at a listening level the language they have learned in their pre-school years. Such exposure should lead them beyond the simple extension of syntactic and semantic competence. It should give them increasing knowledge of how language works in oral communication—awareness of the subtleties of pitch, stress and juncture in communicating feeling, humor, sarcasm, tongue-in-cheek expression, irony, etc. Such a basis in the awareness of metalanguage is absolutely essential for the development of interpretive reading skills.

The older disabled reader may have acquired much of the knowledge of how language works. However, we need to recognize that he may not have acquired sufficient awareness of the process in order to apply the knowledge to reading. Further, the older disabled reader often has another deficiency. Since he has not read widely (if at all) he may have a deficit of ideas to bring to the reading task. If we subscribe to Pearson's (1978) notion that learning to read is building bridges between what the reader knows and what the author writes, we have to recognize that for the older disabled reader the gap is often vast. In order to program adequately for him there may need to be considerable input of ideas as well as instruction in the mechanics of reading.

Summary

I have outlined somewhat cursorily some of the obstacles that appear to impede reading progress. In discussing the problem, I have attempted to draw parallels between obstacles and barriers to reading for the young child and the older disabled reader. I believe that recognition of some of these parallels may be useful in correcting problems of disabled readers, but more importantly, in preventing some reading failures from developing in the first place. In another paper I am expanding on some practical approaches to circumventing some of the obstacles outlined here.

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THE NATURE AND MEASUREMENT OF SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARD READING

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In recent years attitudinal goals have increasingly become a planned facet of school curricula. As a result teachers have become more involved in assessing students' attitudes toward what is being taught. Reading is certainly one area that receives considerable attention in this respect. Secondary teachers and administrators have come to realize that improving students' attitudes toward reading is every bit as important as improving their reading comprehension, word recognition and word analysis skills. And so should it be. Fader (1968, 1976) has demonstrated how a focus on attitudinal factors is an essential part of helping many students to read better. There are also indications that attitude toward reading is linked to achievement in reading (Groff, 1962; Healey, 1965). Huck (1973) nicely summarizes yet another important reason for placing attitudinal objectives on a par with cognitive goals when she says:

If we teach a child to read, yet develop not the taste for reading, all of our teaching is for naught. We shall have produced a nation of "illiterate literates" — those who know how to read, but do not read (p. 305).

Certainly this increased attention to attitudinal concerns in reading is merited: the creation and maintenance of a positive attitude toward reading is an integral part of education in a literate culture. In this respect it can be seen that all secondary teachers should understand the nature of their students' attitudes toward reading and should know how to assess these attitudes.

Assumptions About Students' Attitudes Toward Reading

Teachers are concerned with various questions which relate to the topic of attitudes toward reading: How does Peg feel about reading? Are Barry's problems with reading linked to poor attitude toward reading? Just what is the relationship between attitude and achievement in reading?

To make any headway in attempting to answer questions such as

these, attitudes toward reading must at some point be measured. An important issue stems from this need for measurement. It is generally agreed (see, for example, Thorndike & Hagen, 1977) that the first step in attempting to measure anything is to identify and define the quality of the attribute that is to be measured. Yet, with respect to the construct attitude toward reading, this crucial step is often glossed over and frequently ignored altogether. This failure to articulate what is meant by attitude toward reading could be considered as quite a curious phenomenon (How could anyone be so careless as not to define satisfactorily what is to be measured?), but upon consideration it is perhaps not so unusual. It seems likely that this lack of definition has occurred because it is generally felt that the nature of the construct is quite obvious and straightforward. As a result it has more or less been taken for granted that an individual has an attitude toward reading and that this attitude can be located at some point on a positive-negative continuum. Thus, a student could be said to have a moderately positive attitude toward reading or a very negative attitude toward reading and so forth. In such a notion attitude toward reading is assumed to be a unidimensional construct measured on a bipolar continuum.

However, conceiving of attitude toward reading as a simple unidimensional construct is, as we hope to show, too facile a notion; and, in many respects, a misleading idea as well. Instead, it is best to conceptualize attitude toward reading as multifaceted, and teachers need to be aware of this notion in their attempts to measure students' reading attitudes. Only by thinking of reading attitude in multidimensional terms will we be able to obtain adequate answers for the questions being posed.

The Nature of Attitude Toward Reading

The reason why attitude toward reading should not be regarded as unidimensional is best illustrated by considering persons like the following two grade twelve students. Katrina plans to go to Stanvard next year to begin a major in microbiology and intends eventually to become an independent, biomedical researcher. She realizes that she must spend considerable time reading in order to gain admission to the program and that, during her university years and years on the job, it will be essential that she read a great deal in order to keep up with new developments in the field. On a self-report measure of attitude toward reading Katrina would indicate that reading was of great value to her. Yet Katrina does not enjoy reading. She seldom reads non-fiction irrelevant to her school work and rarely, if at all, reads fiction. Reading also ranks very low on her list of preferred leisure activities. Katrina's reason for seeing reading in a positive light is that reading is necessary for securing her chosen occupation and for promoting job satisfaction.

Contrast Katrina with Joan. Next year Joan will begin a full-time job which requires virtually no reading (and this job is one with which she is very satisfied). Because reading is unimportant in her chosen career,

Joan does not value reading as a means for succeeding vocationally as does Katrina. However, Joan does enjoy reading and ranks reading as one of her favorite leisure activities.

Katrina and Joan are individuals who fittingly illustrate the existence of different facets of the construct of attitude toward reading, facets which need to be taken into account by those seeking to understand and to measure the construct.

One way of approaching the problem of adequately characterizing attitude toward reading is by drawing upon the insights provided by social psychologists working in the field of attitude formation. Researchers in this area have for some time distinguished among the cognitive, affective, and conative components of attitude (Rosenberg & Hovland, 1960; Insko & Schopler, 1967; Triandis, 1971; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975).

When applied to reading, this tripartite model would describe attitude toward reading as having the following components:

- (i) a *cognitive component*, that is, one's beliefs or opinions about reading (e.g., "Reading is essential for getting along efficiently in this society"),
- (ii) an *affective component*, that is, one's feelings about or evaluations of reading (e.g., "I enjoy reading"),
- (iii) a *conative component*, (often treated as two separate components) that is, (a) one's intention(s) to read and (b) one's actual reading behavior(s).

The potential for representing the nature of attitudes toward reading which these constructs from social psychology afford deserves much more attention than it has received. Mikulecky (1976) has taken account of all three components in his instrument in an indirect way. We would like to adopt an even stronger position and make these components central to our explanation of the different "facets" noted above in the examples of Katrina and Joan.

Diagrammatically the relationships among the components of attitude toward reading can be expressed as in Figure 1.

From the model it can be seen that there may be different beliefs about reading (, , . . .) and different feelings about reading (A, B, C . . .). Remember that Katrina believed that reading was important for securing her chosen occupation and promoting job satisfaction, and Joan did not. Thus, Katrina's belief(s) give rise to the feeling (affect) that reading is valuable whereas Joan does not feel it is valuable in this sense. Furthermore, the model shows that another feeling about reading (such as Enjoyable-Not Enjoyable) could also be held. This explanation demonstrates how each girl could feel positively about reading in one sense and negatively about it in another. In these and other ways the model accounts for various important facets of attitude toward reading.

We shall not enter any further into a discussion of the particulars of

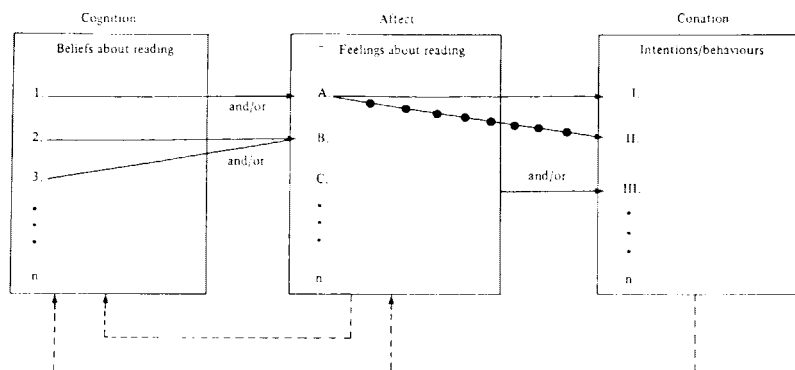


Figure 1. Schematic representation of the components of attitude toward reading.

this theoretical framework. That topic has been treated in detail elsewhere (Teale & Lewis, 1979). Instead, the focus here will be placed upon the implications of this model for teachers who are attempting to conceptualize students' attitudes toward reading. The initial task in this endeavor is to translate the theoretical notions of beliefs and feelings about reading into terms applicable to the reality of the school/home/society situation. To accomplish this end a survey of reading educators, teachers, elementary and secondary students, and instruments designed to measure attitude toward reading was conducted. The survey showed that, within the larger idea of beliefs and feelings about reading, three constructs which had application to the everyday world could be identified.

The first construct is exemplified by statements like "The more I read, the more I learn about myself" and "Reading helps me understand other people better." This construct is related to the cognitive component of reading attitude; it concerns the belief that reading is a means of gaining insight into self, others, and/or life in general. This first construct is termed *Individual Development* because it seems to relate one's intrinsic development through insight into self/others/life.

The second construct is similar to the first that it too relates to the cognitive component of reading attitude. However, the belief in this case is that reading is related to success in school or vocational development. This construct, called *Utilitarian*, is reflected in statements such as "Reading helps people to get along much more efficiently in this society" and "Being able to read well can help a person get a permanent job."

The third construct is affective in nature. It is represented by statements like "I enjoy reading" or "Reading is a fun way to spend spare time." This construct is labelled Enjoyment, a name which seems self-explanatory.

For the past two years studies have been conducted (Teale & Lewis, 1978; Lewis & Teale, 1979) in which these three "practical instantiations" of the cognitive and affective components were subjected to empirical analyses with grade 8 and grade 12 students. The purpose of the studies was to determine (1) if each of the three constructs had conceptual reality for students and (2) if the three constructs were sufficiently distinct to warrant measuring each one separately.

A self-report scale was designed to measure each of the factors, and the resulting Individual Development, Utilitarian, and Enjoyment scales were administered to samples of 118 Grade 8 and 97 Grade 12 students in 1978 and 238 Grade 8 and 153 Grade 12 students in 1979. Findings from the studies indicated that each of the three constructs had conceptual reality for students, thereby supporting the distinction drawn between the cognitive and affective components of attitude toward reading outlined in the model presented in Figure 1.

Furthermore, it was found that, although the relationships between the three factors were, as would be expected, statistically significant, the correlations were sufficiently low to indicate that the Individual Development, Utilitarian, and Enjoyment constructs were different enough to warrant being measured separately. The low correlations were due not only to differences in students' scores on the respective scales but also to significant numbers of students who responded positively on one of the constructs and negatively on another (where the scores were separated by at least one standard deviation). For example, between 10% and 32% of students in the samples valued reading because they felt it related highly to success in school/job while they simultaneously maintained negative feelings about the value of reading for gained insight into self/others/life. Many individuals also responded positively on the Utilitarian factor and negatively on Enjoyment. These findings indicate that secondary students' attitudes toward reading are multidimensional in nature and lend support to the theoretical model outlined above. (For a detailed report of all findings see Lewis & Teale, 1979.)

The studies briefly described here have led to the following conclusions:

- (1) People do have different beliefs about reading (e.g., "Reading is important for getting high grades in school," "Reading helps me sort out the meaning of life," and "Reading won't get you far in our society"), and these beliefs are important bases for affective feelings about reading.
- (2) There also appear to be different aspects to the affective component of attitude toward reading. Clearly Enjoyment is one dimension of this component. However, it seems that an affect which

might be termed Valuing also exists. One's valuing of reading would be based upon beliefs about the perceived relationships between reading and success in school, reading and vocational success, and reading and insight into self/others/life. Figure 2 expresses this notion diagrammatically.

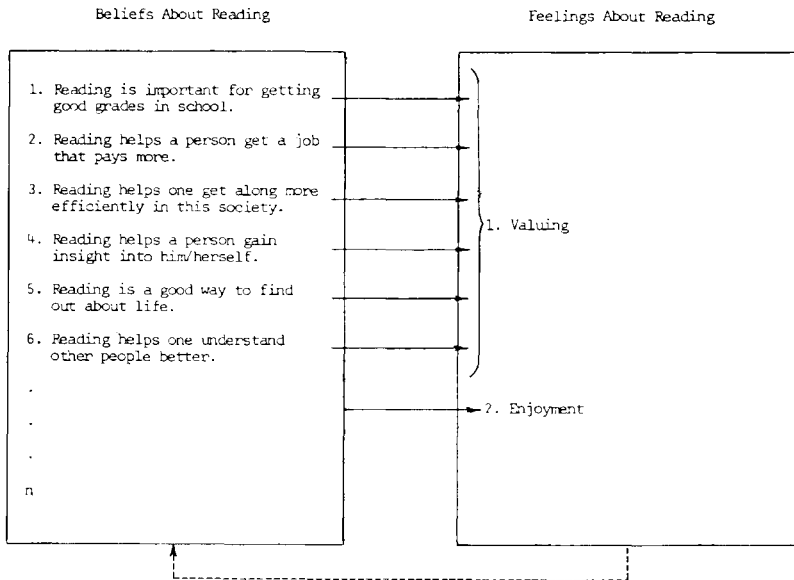


Figure 2. Relationships between the cognitive and affective components of reading attitude.

- (3) Thus, an individual may value reading because of one or more beliefs he/she holds about reading, yet not enjoy reading. Conversely, it is possible for the reasons given above, to enjoy reading but not value it.
- (4) The conative component of attitude toward reading (intentions to read/actual reading behavior) can be better understood in terms of the underlying cognitive and affective structures. That is to say, Jane may read *Great Expectations* out of enjoyment but Nancy may read it because she wants to do well on next week's exam. Also, a person likely reads different selections based upon different beliefs/feelings about reading. For instance, it may be that Tom reads textbooks mainly because he believes that such behavior will result in academic success whereas he reads newspapers and novels because he enjoys them.

Implications for Measuring Secondary School Students' Attitudes Toward Reading

Curriculum evaluation and diagnosis appear to be the two main

reasons why teachers assess students' attitudes toward reading. In either case the different dimensions of reading attitude should be taken into account.

That is, information as to students' feelings about the value of reading for Utilitarian ends and for Individual Development as well as information about their Enjoyment of reading should be gathered. In this way both the cognitive and affective components of attitude toward reading will be measured.

Students' reading behavior should also be examined in order to gain insight into attitudes. Such observations may then be interpreted in terms of the three cognitive/affective components. This interpretive step is an important one because it provides information valuable for curriculum evaluation and diagnosis, information which would likely be obscured should a unidimensional relationship between reading behavior and reading attitude be assumed.

In general, then, we support Summers' (1977) recommendation that a "multi-measure approach emphasizing complementary, not duplicative, sources of data" be used (p. 151). Summers proposes that, among other things, observer report instruments, book counts, and self-report reading attitude scales be employed. Certainly the multi-measure approach can help bring to light the different aspects of reading attitude. However, we would add to Summers' recommendation the caveat that the means of assessment selected be employed and interpreted in terms of a multi-dimensional model of reading attitude. Otherwise, an incomplete and/or misleading picture of an individual's attitude toward reading may result.

Typically one of the goals of any school curriculum has been fostering in each student a positive attitude toward reading. Now it is time for teachers to think about the degree of emphasis that the curriculum should place on beliefs like those listed in Figure 2. In addition teachers might consider the degree to which students should value reading (affect) and the degree to which students should enjoy reading (affect). It may also prove useful to think about the in-school and out-of-school reading behaviors which would flow from these attitudes and about the possible effects of these attitudes on post-school reading behavior.

This same issue can be viewed from another angle as well: the types of attitudes which the curriculum is currently promoting could also be examined. The question of which attitudes a school/faculty wants to emphasize must ultimately be decided upon at the community or individual school level. However, when considering the attitudinal areas of the curriculum, attention to the different aspects of reading attitude rather than a focus on the idea of *an* attitude toward reading would enable teachers to evaluate more precisely the effect the curriculum has in this area.

So, too, with diagnosis might additional insight into a student's reading be gained by interpreting the findings according to the model proposed here. Two students may both have negative feelings about

reading; however, one student may neither value nor enjoy reading while the other may value it but not enjoy it. Such diagnostic information could help a teacher plan the appropriate "way in" for helping improve these students' attitudes and achievement in reading.

Thus, teachers, curriculum evaluators, and reading specialists should find it helpful to keep in mind certain notions about attitude toward reading when employing techniques or instruments for measuring reading attitude. Identification and definition of the quality to be measured should be given first priority. A multi-dimensional conception of attitude toward reading has been called for in this paper. Furthermore, a practical application of that model has been put forth with the suggestion that the Individual Development, Utilitarian, and Enjoyment constructs are useful ones for interpreting students' attitudes toward reading. Such a conception of reading attitudes indicates that instruments should be used to measure each of the three constructs separately and that measures of the conative component observational techniques, book counts, activity preferences, etc. should be interpreted in terms of the three constructs.

In this manner we believe that teachers can gain clearer insight into what students believe about reading and how they feel about reading. Such information can be most valuable for interpreting student reading behavior and for determining the effects which instructional procedures and curricula have on attitudes toward reading.

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DYSLEXIA: THE REAL ISSUES

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One of the interesting philosophical issues or discussions present on the educational scene at the moment is that of the role of dyslexia as a cause for basic reading deficits. The purposes of this article are to present briefly some of the historical trends regarding the topic; analyze a few current definitions; outline several procedures for diagnosing the difficulty; offer a description of four techniques for dealing with the problem; and provide a response to three questions dealing with the real issues of dyslexia.

Historical Background of Dyslexia

The development of the term, "dyslexia," has evolved slowly during the past sixty years. From the period of 1925-1960, various psychologists and educators used such words as "strephosymbolia" to describe a condition of mixed brain dominance and uncoordinated brain functions. Others words and phrases used during this period were "word blindness," "alexia," "brain injured," "primary reading disability," and "developmental lag."

As far back as 1917, Dr. James Hinshelwood, a Scottish physician, compiled a volume entitled *Congenital Word Blindness* (1917). He contended generally that the loss of visual memory centers in the brain could create a reading problem. Dr. Samuel T. Orton (1937), a famous Iowa neurologist, did not believe that dyslexia, as a condition, was the real root of reading problems. It was his belief that many disabled readers possessed "strephosymbolia," a deficiency which caused children to reverse such common words as *saw* and *was*.

During the last seventeen years, a plethora of articles have appeared in the literature regarding the topic. The sections which follow describe the author's opinion as well as the thoughts of various writers on the important subjects of definition, evaluation, and remediation of dyslexia.

Definition of Dyslexia

A careful review of articles written in recent years on the subject leads one to the conclusion that there is some major disagreement as to whether such a condition exists. For example, Rafferty (1968), indicates that he has been waiting for somebody with expertise to tee off on "progressive" education's latest excuse for poor reading: dyslexia. He believes that dyslexia neatly fits education's classic definition of the perfect alibi; it's scientific sounding, it's mysterious, and it's something the teacher can't be expected to do much about.

Labeling children "dyslexic" really has more political and economic

importance than educational significance according to Fry (1977). He is of the opinion that special funding is available if the child is "dyslexic"; if the child is only a "poor reader," no special funds are available. He further contends that a scientific definition of dyslexia is lacking. In the same vein, Ross (1976) warns his readers not to be awed by fancy labels and that the word, "dyslexia," is an attempt to say in Greek that the child can't read.

Despite the skepticism of some writers, there appears to be a number of reading and learning authorities who do believe that dyslexia does exist as a definite, identifiable disability among children and adults. Unfortunately, the term itself means many different things to different educators and is probably more misunderstood than understood (Smith and others, 1978). Several authorities concur that the definition of *dyslexia* is a severe reading problem which is considered to be a result of a brain and/or central nervous system dysfunction (Savage and Mooney, 1979; Johnson and Smith, 1976; and Miller, 1971).

After serving many years as a director of a university reading clinic, the writer is convinced that indeed there are children and adults who have varying stages of brain dysfunctions which cause them to display evidences of mixed dominance, inability to remember recently taught sight words, and left-to-right orientation problems. Whether these persons should be labeled "dyslexic" is obviously a controversial question. Until further evidence is forthcoming to the contrary, it may be appropriate to indicate that these types of clients do, in fact, demonstrate dyslexic tendencies. The important thing to remember is that these children can be *treated*. They certainly *do not* have an incurable disease.

Diagnosis and Description of Dyslexia

Numerous writers have offered definite characteristics of the dyslexic child. Kaluger and Kolson (1969) observe that these children show difficulty remembering whole-word patterns and do not learn easily the sight method. Additionally, they are poor oral readers and poor spellers, and come from families in which there is left handedness or language disorders or both.

There are other characteristics as well. Miller (1971) mentions that the teacher may teach a dyslexic child a word which he/she learns and then forgets several minutes later. It would appear that the child cannot seem to hold either the visual or auditory image of the word in his/her mind. She further observes that such a learner is often hyperactive and distractable as well.

One of the interesting discussion points of dyslexia is the number of children who appear to possess the disorder. The percentage figure is obviously related to a given person's definition of the term. If, for example, an individual believes that any child who cannot read at grade level is dyslexic then the percentage may be in the range from 30 to 60 percent of the total child population. On the other hand, if one does not

believe in the total concept of dyslexia as a definite, identifiable disorder, then one might understandably conclude that there is not even one such child in the country.

Those who adhere to the viewpoint that dyslexia is a legitimate disorder employ a number of techniques for the purposes of diagnosis. These involve careful clinical observation of the child to note difficulties with orientation, visual-memory tasks, and general mixed dominance when asked to designate "right and left" and "up and down." To rule out any neurological disfunction, the learner should receive a thorough neurological examination by a reputable physician. Several well-known tests such as the following may be employed to evaluate auditory, visual, and/or mental functions: *Wepman Auditory Discrimination Test*; *Goldman-Fristoe-Woodcock Test of Auditory Discrimination*; *The Marianne Frostig Developmental Test of Visual Perception*; *Developmental Test of Visual Motor Integration* (Beery-Buktenica); and *The Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities*. With younger children the use of some commercial reading readiness tests may yield data relating to left-to-right orientation as well as visual and auditory functions. These would include *Gates-MacGinitie Readiness Skills Test* and the *Metropolitan Readiness Tests*. Information regarding these tests can be found in a number of source volumes including those by Kirk and others (1978) and Bond and others (1979).

Treatment of Dyslexia

During the past two or three decades a number of suggestions have been made by writers regarding the proper treatment for children and adults with dyslexia. Four approaches for helping learners with this general type of problem have been described by such authorities as Kirk and others (1978) and Miller (1971). The *VAKT Approach* represents four modalities: visual, auditory, kinesthetic, and tactile. This technique activates four different learning modalities into a single learning experience which may help the dyslexic child overcome some of his/her problems.

The *Fernald Method* developed by Grace Fernald (1943) uses four stages and employs both the language-experience and tracing methods to help the learner with orientation difficulties. *The Gillingham-Stillman Method* (Gillingham & Stillman, 1968) uses a multisensory procedure by teaching elements of sound and the letters of the alphabet. Anna Gillingham and Bessie Stillman utilized this alphabetic method with many children in the 1930's who had been diagnosed as being language disordered. Much drill and repetition is assigned and a strict sequence of teaching steps is demanded of persons using this method.

The Hegge-Kirk-Kirk Remedial Reading Drills (Kirk, 1936) were developed at the Wayne County Training School for high-grade mentally retarded children. Kirk and others (1978) recommend this approach for those pupils who have extreme visual or auditory deficien-

cies, lack perceptual-motor abilities, and are reading at a level much lower than the child's mental age.

In addition to the four methods previously described, some clinicians employ other routines such as the neurological impress method, the cloze procedure, and various phonic approaches. Obviously the success of any or all of these procedures depends on such factors as the learner's attitude, other disabling conditions, and the teacher's effectiveness.

The Real Issues

In light of this discussion, what are the *real* issues regarding dyslexia? They seem to concentrate on the questions and responses to three questions. These are: (1) Is there a reading-learning disability called dyslexia? (2) Can this problem be diagnosed? and (3) Can the difficulty be treated?

With respect to question 1, there are children who have severe reading difficulties and associated orientation and dominance handicaps. If one defines these conditions as being dyslexic, then indeed we may well say that these persons can be classified as being dyslexia statistics. This writer believes this is the case.

Can the problem be diagnosed? This answer is yes if the diagnostician is competent in the use of the various evaluative devices which have been described in this article. The important thing to remember is to examine the data and results of a number of commercial and informal devices *before* making a definite diagnosis.

Can the difficulty be treated? There are many different types of methods which can be utilized. Several have been described in this article. One must recognize that these techniques are merely ideas to try. No one plan can guarantee a cure. The wise clinician recognizes that several common approaches have been helpful in the work with many children; however, the true dyslexic child needs a flexible plan based on his/her exact learning needs.

In summary: there are dyslexic children; they can be diagnosed; and there is help available to them from competent clinicians in school and university reading/learning clinics.

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A MAJOR REVISION OF THE READING MODEL FOR CLASSROOM TEACHERS

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Although many models of reading have evolved in the history of the field of reading, these models generally lack the simplicity necessary to be readily translated into methodology. Both pre-service and in-service teachers enrolled in reading courses profit from a model of reading, since models aid the understanding of theory, and thus are prerequisite for translating theory into classroom practice.

For a number of years we have searched for a model that would meet the needs of teachers, i.e., be easy to understand and easy to apply. While we have been impressed with the many models of reading, the purpose of most models is to clarify reading theory and to aid in guiding future research, rather than to directly aid the pre-service or in-service teacher. With these criteria of simplicity and utility in mind, the Gray (1960) and Gray/Robinson (1966) models were selected for use with teachers, as these models are relatively straightforward and easily conceptualized theoretically even though they do not readily translate into practice. However, feeling a genuine need for a more usable model and following Robinson's assumption "that a conceptual framework for reading must be fluid and continuously refined," (1966) the Gray and Gray/Robinson models have been updated based on knowledge gained over the past ten years. Our purpose was to keep the new model understandable while making it easy to apply in the classroom.

The revised model presented here (an expansion of the model presented by Robinson, 1966) has much flexibility. It has been successfully used with both elementary and secondary pre-service and in-service teachers. In its expanded and revised form, the model provides a base broad enough to satisfy the differing needs of elementary and secondary teachers and, at the same time, to help both groups grasp an understanding of the aspects of a complete comprehensive reading program.

The Gray Model (1960) consists of four aspects: Word Perception, Comprehension, Reaction to What is Read, and Fusion of New Ideas and Old. Gray arranged these four aspects in concentric bands with word perception at the center. Robinson (1966) kept Gray's four basic aspects; however, she added a fifth aspect, which she called Rates.

Robinson also revised Gray's schematic in order for the graphic representation of the aspects to better depict reading theory and to demonstrate the potential for the unlimited growth of Gray's four aspects. Robinson's additional aspect, Rates, was superimposed over the other four aspects, to indicate that growth in Rates is dependent on the development of the other reading aspects and that Rates do not have the potential for unlimited growth. Robinson's new schematic may have been a stroke of genius. The open-endedness of the aspects coupled with a similar beginning point makes it easy to see that reading skills, although hierarchical within each aspect, are developed simultaneously.

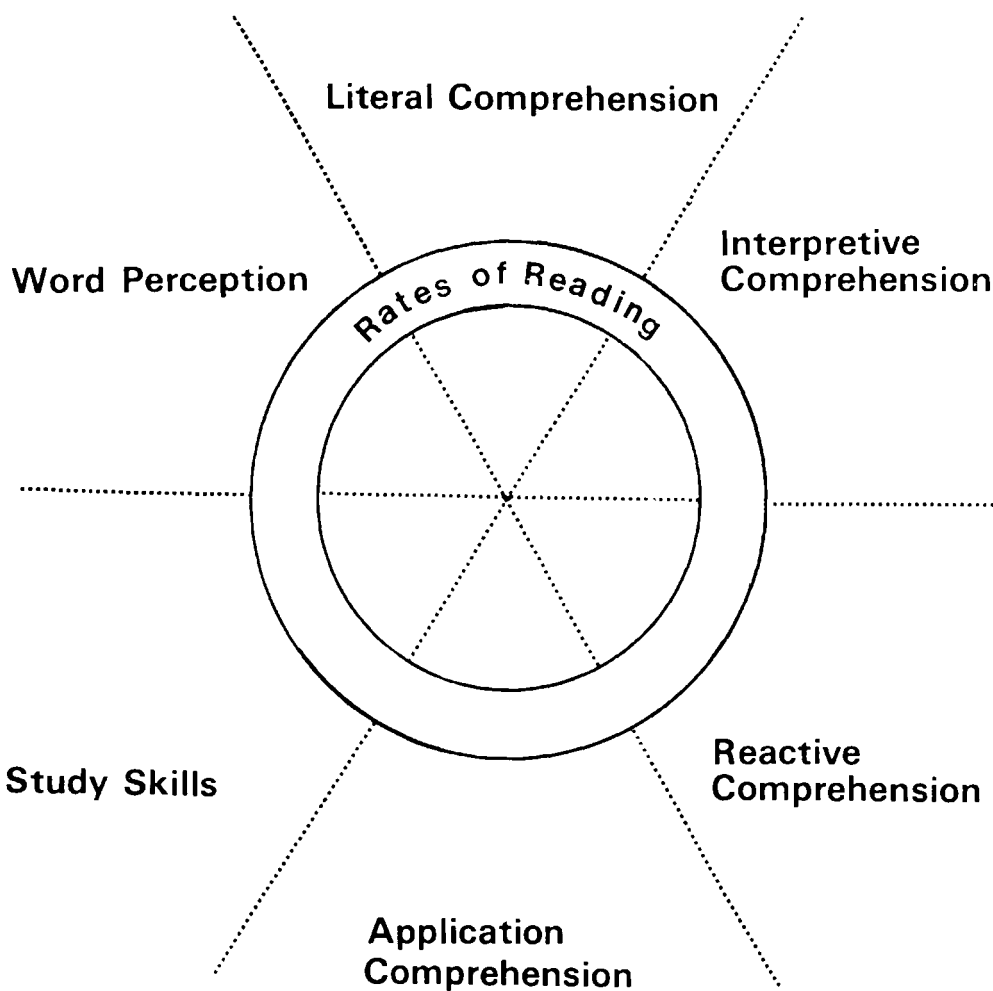
The revised model presented in this paper retains the basic graphic configuration of Robinson's model. However, the revised model redefines comprehension and adds study skills while retaining word perception and rates. The resulting model has seven aspects: Word Perception, Literal Comprehension, Interpretive Comprehension, Reactive Comprehension, Application Comprehension, Study Skills, and Rates.

Definition of the Aspects

The aspect of Word Perception, which includes the skills of word recognition and word meanings is identical to that aspect of the Gray and Gray/Robinson models. Word recognition includes all the skills a reader might use to decode an unknown word. Thus it includes all the "skills" presented in any good basal reading program. Although an implied hierarchy is present within each word recognition skill, research and arguments presented by Spache and Spache (1973) lead to the conclusion that all the components (skill areas) of word recognition should be developed congruently. Word meanings, as important as word recognition, is explained in detail by Gray and Robinson.

The aspect of Comprehension contains the major revisions between this model and the Gray and Robinson models. In this model, Comprehension has been renamed and regrouped. These changes have been made to reflect recent research and developments in the field of comprehension (Herber, 1978; Spache & Spache, 1973; Elijah and Legenza, 1978). In this new revised model, Comprehension is divided into four aspects: Literal, Interpretive, Reactive, and Applied. These four components constitute aspects of comprehension as defined by Herber (1978), Gray (1960), Robinson (1966), Spache & Spache (1973), and Elijah & Legenza (1978). An analysis of each of the above authors' works indicates agreement in having these aspects of comprehension as separate entities, although they use different terminologies to describe these aspects. The names for the four aspects of comprehension in this model are from Herber and Elijah & Legenza. These terms have been selected because they reflect the thinking process the reader must do to function at that level of comprehension.

Literal Comprehension can be defined as the ability to recall or



**THE MAJOR ASPECTS OF READING:REVISED
A READING MODEL FOR CLASSROOM TEACHERS**

recognize what is explicitly stated in the reading material. This aspect includes the ability to demonstrate a factual understanding of the material, the ability to translate the material into the reader's own words, and the ability to organize and regroup the concepts. Gray refers to these skills as the "ability to read the lines." Literal Comprehension, in the revised model, only includes one of the skills that he and Robinson grouped under Comprehension.

Interpretive comprehension is defined as the ability to make inferences. The reader who is functioning at the interpretive comprehension level is able to understand the relationships that may exist between the concepts presented in the reading selection. Gray refers to this ability as "reading between the lines."

The new revised model separates the aspect Gray and Robinson called Comprehension into two aspects, Literal and Interpretive Comprehension. Gray (1960) defined comprehension as involving "a clear grasp of the meaning of what is read" (p. 9), which often confuses teachers as it is not consistent with most recent work on questioning (Bloom, 1956; Sanders, 1966). Elijah and Legenza (1978) state that "only after the student knows the facts (literal) can he begin working out the relationships among the ideas presented in the material." Additional clarifications of comprehension by Herber (1978) also divide Gray's and Robinson's aspect, Comprehension, into two distinct aspects.

The aspect called Reactive Comprehension demands that the reader evaluate the concepts presented in the selection. The reader reacts to the selection and evaluates it both cognitively and affectively. Cognitive evaluation corresponds to the aspect called Reaction to What is Read by Gray and Robinson. The criteria used by the reader in making a cognitive evaluation are objective. This revised model adds affective evaluation. This is in keeping with recent work by Rath & Simons et al (1978) that children need to develop their own attitudes and values. In affective evaluation, the reader reacts to the material using his/her own values and attitudes as the criterion. Robinson came close to this in her revision of Gray's model by adding "Emotional Responses" to the definition of Reaction, but this model goes beyond that by adding a component where the student not only reacts according to emotions, but also according to personal values and attitudes.

Elijah and Legenza (1978) included cognitive evaluation under interpretive comprehension and had affective evaluation as a separate aspect. It is now felt that these are both types of evaluation, the difference being in the source of the criteria, cognitive being external to the reader, and, the other, affective being internal to the reader.

Application comprehension requires the reader to be able to apply material to both theoretical and pragmatic situations. The ability to apply what is read is the ultimate goal of reading comprehension (Elijah & Legenza). This is similar to Gray's aspect, Fusion of New Ideas and Old.

Robinson contends that the five aspects so far discussed can be developed either simultaneously or hierarchically. Elijah and Legenza

(1978) dispute this point. They argue that, although a hierarchy is implicit within the aspects of comprehension, each aspect must be developed as fully as possible within the framework of an individual reading assignment, thus developing the skills simultaneously at each point in the development of a reader.

The aspect of Study Skills has been included in this model. Study skills are the process skills (Herber, 1978) necessary for the aspects of comprehension to more readily function. They include the use of reference materials, techniques for effective studying, notetaking, skimming and scanning. Skimming and scanning are included in this aspect, rather than with rates, because they have the potential for unlimited growth. The techniques taught by such programs as Evelyn Wood have demonstrated that stupendous rates are possible through skimming and/or scanning.

By including study skills in the model, we have found that content teachers better understand the involved, often circular, relationship between reading skills, and the learning of content. They come to see that as study skills improve, comprehension and, therefore, learning skills also increase.

The last aspect, Rates, represents the reader's actual reading rates. The able reader should be flexible and able to adjust his rate to fit his purposes for reading. Actual reading rates range from very slow study type reading to very rapid reading rates. This aspect is similar to Robinson's Rates, except that this model includes only actual Reading Rates and has included skimming and scanning under study skills.

Concluding Statement

This paper has presented a revision of the Gray and Gray/Robinson reading models, reflecting knowledge about reading gained since their publication. We feel that the use of this revised model will not only aid teachers in better understanding the reading process, but will aid them in developing the student's reading skills. The revised model readily translates from theory to classroom methodology (Elijah & Legenza, 1978), utilizing such methods and techniques as presented by Elijah and Legenza (1978).

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WHAT DOES RESEARCH SAY ABOUT BEGINNING READING?

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Reading, mankind's way of conveying thoughts and ideas across time and distance, has long been treasured by a literate society. Reading has become so vital in the American society that often people who do not read face difficulties in social interactions and in securing employment. This has resulted in an all-out effort by parents and teachers to guide children into discovering the process of reading.

Authorities have differing points of view about when reading instruction should begin. Morphet and Washburne (1931) selected the mental age of six years and six months as the "best" time to begin reading instruction. Their study of first graders showed a high correlation between mental age and reading achievement which led them to select the magical age. Weaknesses in their study include a limited population—first-grade in one school in Illinois—and the apparently false assumption that a specific mental age guarantees a certain development level which in turn insures a high degree of reading success.

The theory of the need to delay reading instruction until approximately the middle of the first grade prevailed until the mid-1960s (Chall, 1977). The prevalent philosophy was that the later the children started to school, the better. It was believed that children needed to practice preparatory skills before learning to read. A majority of the reading methods textbooks used in teacher-training institutions before 1965 supported the theory that a lack of reading readiness was a major cause of reading failure.

Durkin has made major contributions to the study of beginning reading. Her work has attacked the notions that a certain age is required for reading and that readiness skills must be taught. She (Durkin, 1966) conducted two longitudinal studies of children who learned to read before receiving school instruction. The first study, involving a sample of forty-nine preschool readers, covered a six-year period beginning in 1958. One hundred and fifty-six preschool readers were the subjects for the second study which began in 1961 and continued until 1964. Her conclusions were that some children could and would read before school instruction and that children differ greatly in potential and achievement. In these studies, Durkin also found that the average achievement of the children who read before entering school was higher than the average achievement of equally intelligent children who were not preschool readers. Since children are individually dif-

ferent and unique, Durkin felt that kindergarten programs should have flexible curriculums.

Durkin (1974-1975) conducted a follow-up study of the children involved in the 1966 study. In the study she followed the children from grade one to grade four and compared these children with a control group not involved in her earlier study, but who had attended kindergartens that dealt with the development of a reading vocabulary, and letter and numeral naming. The reading achievement of the preschool readers exceeded that of the control group in each of the four grades. However, an analysis of covariance indicated statistically significant differences only in first and second grades. When relating reading achievement to chronological age, Durkin found no significant correlation. Durkin hypothesized that even though the students had not made statistically significant gains in grades three and four, the possibility existed that early reading was educationally productive. Thus she claimed that educational importance could only be determined if early reading experiences were utilized in planning subsequent instruction. Observations of the classrooms of the preschool readers convinced Durkin that the teachers had not capitalized upon the early reading experiences of the students.

McAllister (1975) studied a group of children who were taught to read in kindergarten. After the completion of the first grade, these children were ahead of the control group who had not received such kindergarten training. However, the advantage of early reading was not present at the end of the second grade for the control group had caught up with the experimental group in reading achievement.

After working with schools in the United States, Douglass (1969) noted that teachers were very concerned about scholastic failure, especially in beginning reading. In contrast, he found in Norwegian schools an absence of the idea of failure. The Norwegian child starts school at seven years of age and spends only fifteen hours a week in school. The Norwegian educators never consider the possibility that the child would not learn to read. The classrooms were less formal, and social groupings formed the basis for the learning. Douglass listed several practices which he considered advantages in the Norwegian schools; two of the practices were particularly noteworthy: (a) the children had the same teacher for a minimum of four years, and (b) there was no grouping by ability.

Shapiro and Willford (1969) examined the effects of early reading on subsequent reading achievement. The control group received the instruction in kindergarten. At the end of the second grade, a statistically significant difference favored the experimental group.

Laird and Cangemi (1975) addressed the question of early reading by stating that the language experiences of today's four- and five-year-olds are more sophisticated than those of children in past decades. Chall (1977) gave credence to these comments by pointing out the educational contributions of such television shows as "Sesame Street" and "The Elec-

tric Company.” She stated that these television programs give “popular legitimacy” to early reading as parents and teachers observe children being guided into the reading process with “no obvious harmful effects.”

Sutton (1969) made a longitudinal study of the impact of pre first grade reading on children’s later achievement. At the end of the third grade, the experimental subjects who had learned to read in kindergarten scored higher on reading achievement tests than two control groups who had not read in kindergarten.

King and Friesen (1972) identified twenty-seven children who could read when they were in kindergarten. Twenty-eight kindergarten nonreaders were selected to serve as the control group. The results of two reading tests, given at the end of the first grade, indicated that the experimental subjects performed at a higher level of achievement than the members of the control group.

Domain (1964) and Delacato (1966) examined from a neurological maturational viewpoint the question of when reading instruction should begin. They stated that children have a neurological organizational developmental pattern of learning to crawl, to creep, and then to walk. If this sequence is interrupted, they claimed that the child might have trouble learning to read. The last step in neurological development is laterality, and receptive language and expressive language depend upon this development. According to these researchers, children have the potential to learn to read when they have developed strong laterality.

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Smethurst (1975) studied early readers and found no evidence of negative effects on children who learned to read early. In fact, indications were that early reading was beneficial to both the child’s mental development and general achievement.

Furth and Wachs (1974) and Elkind, Larson, and Doorninck (1965) opposed an early start in reading. Furth and Wachs stated that early reading could be harmful to cognitive growth. Elkind, Larson, and Doorninck believed that attempting to teach reading before the first grade is useless because children do not have the cognitive development required for reading.

Chall (1977) stated that in the last ten years the question has changed from *is early reading beneficial* to *who should teach it*. In 1967, educators felt that reading instruction should be provided only by a professional teacher in the school. Today, the parents are being accepted as teachers, and the home has become a classroom. In addition, parents are now serving as paraprofessionals in many schools across the country.

In a majority of the studies discussed thus far, the educators have perceived reading to be a process which must be taught to youngsters. This is a very narrow definition of reading. Goodman and Goodman believed that reading actually begins when children “respond to meaningful printed symbols in a situational context with which they are familiar” (1976, p. 12). Smith echoed this idea by stating that children

"probably begin to read from the moment they become aware of print in any meaningful way" (1976, p. 297). These views hold that children learn language and reading naturally, and that they learn to read the same way and for the same reasons that they learn to speak and listen (Goodman & Goodman, 1976). The implications are that educators should not ask when to teach children reading because, in fact, children learn to read naturally on their own as they encounter print and have a need for understanding it.

SUMMARY

A review of the literature indicated that educators have differing opinions concerning the optimum time to begin reading instruction. The majority of the studies held that learning to read before school is an asset to children because this lead in achievement is maintained through the first two years of school. Durkin stated that if kindergarten teachers capitalize on the reading abilities when the children enter school, the achievement advantage will be maintained beyond the second grade.

The Goodman and Goodman study indicated that the teacher need not ask when to teach children to read because children become aware of print in their environment and proceed to the stage where they obtain meaning from print in a total reading context. Therefore, learning to read is as natural as learning to understand speech. When children enter school, the teacher should base the curriculum on the reading abilities of the children. In other words, the teacher should base instruction on the child's level of maturation and should not force all children through the same educational sequence. To place every child into the same instructional mold would cause the children who come to school knowing how to read to be held back and to become frustrated. Also, the role of the teacher should be that of a master of language and a helper of children. The teacher should provide this help by setting up learning situations which motivate children. Instruction which does not build on the child's natural learning ability will serve only as interference and will be counterproductive.

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MEETING CHILDREN'S READING NEEDS: EXAMINING THE ROLES OF SPECIAL TEACHERS

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Those who teach remedial reading in the schools have numerous titles, dissimilar training, and overlapping responsibilities. Children who have mild to severe reading problems may be instructed by reading specialists, Title I teachers, teachers of the learning disabled, and so forth. Similarly, the reading teachers' training may range from participation in an undergraduate or graduate reading program to never having taken a formal course in reading. Though there may be an inherent assumption that all these individuals are equally capable of teaching reading, there are marked differences in training that could make this assumption untrue.

There is little question that the ability to read is of primary importance, regardless of the type of teacher who accomplishes the task. Yet, it is difficult to believe that all teachers of remedial reading are equally qualified to teach on the basis of background or training. Assuming, for the moment, that all of these individuals are capable, there still are a number of differing assumptions which affect how the reading instructional process is delivered. Some of these assumptions are:

1. the primary factor causing reading problems or the inability to read,
2. the importance of reading in the life process,
3. the likelihood that teaching will lead to substantial or sustained improvement,
4. the remedial techniques which are most likely to improve reading performance,
5. the diagnostic process that will provide the greatest amount of information,
6. the types of materials utilized for instruction,
7. the concept of what one is reading.

An elaboration of these assumptions will be undertaken as we attempt to explore where the discrepancies and inter-faces exist between these groups.

Learning Disabilities Teachers

Most of the theories that have attempted to account for the reading failures of learning disabled children are based on the medical model (Bryan & Bryan, 1975). Thus, the most prevalent theories involve infor-

mation processing difficulties (Birch & Belmont, 1964; Vande Voort & Senf, 1973), perceptual deficits (Orton, 1937; Vellutino, Pruzek, Steger, & Meshoulan, 1973), and deficiencies in verbal skills (Owen, Adams, Forrest, Stoltz, & Fisher, 1971; Hutson, Note 1). In spite of the fact that more research has been done on reading than any other academic area, there is very little known about a "best method of teaching reading" that is generally accepted (Diederich, 1973); about the only point of consensus is that the most important variable is the teacher (Bond & Dykstra, 1967; Rutherford, 1971; McDonald, 1976). Even though definitive information about a best method teaching reading is lacking, the emphasis of LD teachers is toward task-analytic or behavior approaches (Lovitt, 1975a, 1975b).

It is interesting to note that the major remedial emphasis for learning disabled children is often on reading (Kirk & Elkins, 1975). This suggests that LD teachers' primary responsibilities are correction or remediation of reading problems, even though they are also responsible for improving academic performance in the areas of language, spelling, arithmetic, and handwriting. Regrettably, many learning disabilities teachers have little preparation to teach reading. Furthermore, few states have any reading requirement for LD certification, while the few states that do have a requirement, require little more than an introductory reading course or two (IRA, 1976). It is paradoxical that most states regard remedial reading programs as embodying learning disabilities programs (Kirk & Elkins, 1975). In view of the severe reading problems these LD teachers encounter, it is questionable whether they are well-equipped to deal with the various types of reading problems they encounter.

Admittedly, some LD teachers are able to effectively work with children who have reading problems. However, due to the variation of certification requirements from state to state, it is impossible to determine precisely which states, and which individual teacher training programs, are preparing LD teachers who are effective teachers of reading. Again, the assumption is that all LD teachers can teach reading, since that is one aspect of their professional responsibility. Whether this assumption finds realization in practice is unknown.

LD teachers work with disabled learners who have difficulty in academic and learning tasks. As has been noted, their primary emphasis is not necessarily on reading, even though poor reading is the handicap that is most prevalent in learning disabled children (Kirk & Elkins, Note 2). Since their training emphasizes such a broad background, and since the children they teach may manifest multiple problems, they must by necessity be generalists rather than specialists. The question arises as to whether a generalist can effectively diagnose and teach reading to children who have known problems associated with this skill.

Reading Specialists

The International Reading Association (1968) has established a set of

guidelines for identifying and certifying reading specialists. These guidelines are provided below:

- Complete a minimum of three years of successful classroom teaching in which the teaching of reading is an important responsibility of the position.
- Complete a planned program for the Master's Degree from an accredited institution to include:
 1. A minimum of 12 semester hours in graduate level reading courses with at least one course in each of the following:
 - (a) *Foundations or survey of reading*
A basic course whose content is related exclusively to reading instruction or the psychology of reading. Such a course ordinarily would be first in a sequence of reading courses.
 - (b) *Diagnosis and correction of reading disabilities*
The content of this course or courses includes the following: causes of reading disabilities; observation and interview procedures; diagnostic instruments; standard and informal tests; report writing; materials and methods of instruction.
 - (c) *Clinical or laboratory practicum in reading*
A clinical or laboratory experience which might be an integral part of a course or courses in the diagnosis and correction of reading disabilities cases under supervision.
 2. Complete an undergraduate or graduate level study in each of the following areas:
 - (a) Measurement and/or evaluation
 - (b) Child and/or adolescent psychology
 - (c) Psychology, including such aspects as personality, cognition, and learning behaviors.
 - (d) Literature for children and/or adolescents.
 3. Fulfill remaining portions of the program from related areas of study (IRA, 1968).

More recently, the IRA (1978) has formulated a series of attitudes, concepts, and skills which are considered to be requisite behaviors for those individuals who desire to teach reading. The IRA has recommended that all individuals involved in teaching of reading be trained in the following skill areas:

- Language Foundations for Reading Language development
- Comprehension
 - Literal and interpretive comprehension
 - Critical comprehension
 - Reference and study skills
- Word Analysis
- Enjoyment of Reading
- Diagnostic Teaching
 - Diagnostic evaluation
 - Organizing school and classroom for diagnostic teaching

Adapting instruction to students with varied linguistic backgrounds
 Instruction of students with special reading needs

- Program Planning and Improvement
 - Interaction with parents/community
 - Instructional planning: curriculum and approaches
 - Initiating improvements

The training is far more extensive for a reading specialist vis-a-vis and LD teacher. Two major differences exist. First, the primary emphasis in the case of the reading specialist is on reading. Assessment and clinical courses are designed solely for reading, and not for other academic areas. In other words, there is a pivotal point around which training is centered. Second, the guidelines recommend that the reading specialist program be administered at the graduate level. While the trend is toward graduate level training for LD teachers, much of special education training is at the undergraduate level and does not involve specialization.

Although there is still some question regarding inadequate, or non-existent, state certification requirements for reading specialists (Kinder, 1969), more adequate certification is becoming commonplace. As has been pointed out, the responsibility for adequately trained reading personnel must also lie with higher education (Briggs & Coulter, 1977), who may lack necessary faculty for practicum supervision.

Thus, the reading specialist is uniquely equipped to remediate reading disabilities. Unlike the LD teacher, who is a generalist, the reading specialist is, as the name implies, a specialist. The reading specialist's abilities are uniquely suited to the assessment, evaluation, instruction, and programming efforts of the problem reader.

Discussion

As has been noted the impreciseness in defining a learning disability has created many difficulties for those involved in the teaching of reading (Sartain, 1976). Children who have been identified as manifesting a reading problem have had this problem attributed to a learning disability and, therefore, come under the auspices of special education personnel.

Very few school districts can afford to provide duplications of services. Yet, in view of the current state-of-the-art, a district has several options. First, it may elect to decide which children have a learning disability or only a reading problem. Once this decision has been made, appropriate resources can be made available. Second, school systems may opt to eliminate, or phase-out, reading specialist positions. If a learning disabilities teacher can provide reading instruction, and is *assumed* qualified to do so, that individual becomes far more valuable to the system in view of the fact that she can teach not only remedial reading, but also remedial math, writing, and spelling. This is, of course, a specious argument and one which has little merit. LD teachers cannot substitute for highly trained reading specialists.

One final point needs to be made. With the enactment of the Education for All Handicapped Children Act (PL 94-142), more federal and state dollars will be flowing to services provided for handicapped children. Regrettably, this legislation will not include those children whose only difficulty is in reading—unless that child is designated as handicapped. Therefore, local education agencies will be under increasing pressure to obtain monies and provide services for reading disabled children by determining that they are handicapped and therefore eligible for the services of a LD specialist. If a large number of reading problem children are referred to special education teachers, the need for reading specialists will decline.

Conclusion

There are those who would argue that the decision about who serves reading disabled children is irrelevant (e.g., Lovitt, 1978). However, it is evident that philosophical basis, training, and perhaps competencies of learning disabilities and reading specialists differs. “Who” serves these children is just as critical as “what” or “where” they are taught.

Obviously, it would be best if LD specialists and reading specialists could work cooperatively toward the development of effective reading programs. This would improve reading instruction and help those children who have reading problems. Since this reconciliation may not occur in the near future, due to the aforementioned constraints, we would agree with Sartain (1976) that the reading specialist is more capable of diagnosis and instruction as they relate to reading. For the present time, reading remediation will be best left to the reading specialist.

Interesting enough, this separation of responsibilities should benefit the LD specialist. The emphasis will be less on reading, and more on other academic skill areas. As the LD specialists' reading efforts decline, greater attention will be focused toward the improvement of arithmetic, spelling, and writing skills in learning disabled children. Similarly, the integrity of the reading profession will be preserved and the competition for limited monetary resources diminished.

Ultimately, efforts need to be directed toward achieving a rapprochement between reading specialists and learning disabilities teachers. For this to happen, two mutually inclusive circumstances must exist. First, it will require that LD teachers become cognizant of developments within the field of reading. Second, teachers of reading will need to become aware of the major findings that have taken place in the field of learning disabilities (Lerner, 1975). Promotion of this awareness could take the form of innovative trans-disciplinary programs, professional meetings involving both groups, joint publications, or informal gatherings. What is crucial, is that a dialogue be established that begins to clarify the roles and responsibilities of *all* professionals engaged in the teaching of reading.

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HELP FOR THE MOBILE STUDENT

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Teachers today know firsthand that sociologists are correct when they describe Modern American society as mobile. It is not at all unusual for many students—sometimes half a class—to enter classrooms while numerous others leave during the normal school year. This situation of course has always been true in areas that serve very transient groups such as military families, but it appears to now also apply to many other populations. Some up-to-date estimates predict that workers will change jobs eight or nine times in a lifetime and children are often involved in these moves. Consequently, today's teachers have to be prepared to help new students as they come to their classes throughout the school year. Many times these students come with few records from their previous school, and it can be a difficult task for a teacher to find the time to properly assess the new students and their reading needs. The following ideas are possible ways for the classroom teacher to be prepared to welcome new students to class, properly place them for instruction and make them feel at home in the new group.

For the teacher to help herself and the new student simultaneously, it is important to work in the categories of testing and acclimatizing. These areas include determining the child's instructional reading level, assessing his actual classwork, and making him feel accepted. While achieving these goals, the teacher of course, cannot neglect the other students, so it is important to work as quickly as possible, use student help, and let the new student perform some tasks independently.

Testing

When a new student arrives, it is often with no more than a report card, if that. How can we decide where to place him for maximum success? An individual informal reading inventory can be very helpful, but that takes time. What can be done that's quicker and still useful? Try the following:

- (1) For older children (approximately, third grade level and above), prepare CLOZE passages from the texts being used in your classroom and keep them on file. Make a tape of directions and follow the exercise with a tape of how to find the answer key and correct the passage. The new student can work independently or with minimum help from a teacher-appointed helper in the class. The data are available quickly, and the student feels useful without being embarrassed.
- (2) Have a passage selected in textbooks to be read for ORAL READING. Again, have the student work alone and read and record the passage on tape. Later, you will be able to assess his

oral reading performance without neglecting the other youngsters and making the child feel ill at ease in front of you.

- (3) Keep passages for a **GROUP INFORMAL READING INVENTORY** on hand. However, in this case, let the new student work alone in the passage and write the answers to his questions. These results give helpful data about the student's comprehension skills and also yield a sample of writing ability.

After getting an approximate reading level from one or more of the tasks above, follow up in these ways:

- (4) Let the student look at the materials in use in your classroom at or about his level. In a short interview, ask which ones are most similar to those that she had been using. If time permits have the youngster read a short passage and answer questions about it or check sight word knowledge by pointing out important words in the glossary or word lists for instant recognition.
- (5) Give the child several assignments at the apparent instructional level from the materials you use at that level. Again, these could be kept on file and would probably be most useful if taken from work the other students have already completed. These **WORK SAMPLES** might include several worksheets of the basal unit tests that you have already finished, workbook pages and/or criterion-referenced tests.

If these suggestions have been followed, two of the goals for dealing with new students have been achieved: you should now have work samples and a fairly accurate instructional level. The third goal of making the new student feel welcome might need some more work. These points then are aimed at the affective domain and fall into the category of acclimatizing the youngster.

Acclimatizing

- (6) Use the **BUDDY SYSTEM**. Appoint a student who does approximately the same level work to show the new pupil where supplies are kept, how to label his work (name, group, date, book, level or whatever is the usual procedure), where to put completed assignments, the time schedule, guidelines for doing work over, how to get help, etc. The two pupils might even work together for a day or so.
- (7) The first time that you meet with the new student for instruction in a group or individually, conduct a **BRAG SESSION**. Explain how well the child followed directions, did the testing assignments, or completed the worksheets. Use anything positive and true that you have observed and congratulate the child.
- (8) When time allows, be certain that the new student meets any other personnel in the school who may deal with reading—the librarian, parent volunteers, the reading specialist, principal. The child's buddy or another student might make these **INTRODUCTIONS**.

- (9) Have the entire class do a group language experience story to welcome the new child. Allow a few days for them to get acquainted and then use language experience for a reading assignment. Let the new student participate too, and some more diagnostic information on oral language facility can be procured during the WELCOME STORY activity.
- (10) Finally, when the child's records arrive, do a CROSS-CHECK. See if your instructional level agrees with his previous work. (Often, unfortunately, titles of books, rather than reading levels are given. In this case, many state departments of education, reading specialists, college professors or textbook representatives can help determine the levels.) Check any notes on past work with your observations. If the records differ from your findings and you feel that you do not have the child at a point where he is making maximum progress, further testing may be necessary or a parent conference might be needed. In contrast, however, if the child is doing well, let him continue to succeed.

These suggestions are possible ways that classroom teachers can deal with new students who enter their classes during the school year. Many times, the child's first day can be disruptive to the class, unsettling to the teacher and disillusioning to the student. These activities, in contrast, can help the teacher learn about the student with a minimum of preparation and time and get the youngster started in his new school in a positive, productive manner without disturbing his classmates.

WHY DO KIDS READ?

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We can learn much about how individuals approach reading by examining their feelings about the nature of reading. Although several authorities (i.e., Lapp and Flood 1978, Smith, 1978) believe that one's reasons for reading influence reading habits, motivations and abilities, few studies have actually examined these reasons for reading.

A fairly comprehensive study of adults indicated that most read for knowledge or for pleasure ("The Consumer Study on Reading and Book Purchasing;; 1978). Much less is known about children's reasons for reading, however. Denny and Weintraub (1966) questioned first-grade students about why they wanted to learn to read, but most of these children were just speculating on a process in which they were not yet fully involved. There is a need to examine the reasons of children who are able to read.

In addition to knowing children's reasons for reading, it is also important to know how teachers perceive student's reasons for reading, since teachers have the potential to influence children's opinions.

This study attempts to answer two questions. First, what do elementary students believe is the most important reason for their reading? The second question also examines children's reasons for reading, but from the teacher's perspective—what do elementary teachers believe is the most important reason for their students' reading?

Procedure

Individual interviews were conducted with 257 elementary students to determine their major reason for reading. These children attended a Nebraska school specifically selected because it was representative of various racial groups, nationalities and socioeconomic groups. In most cases the children had attended at least one other school, therefore being exposed to a variety of teaching styles and instructional programs. The findings of this study can be generalized only to similar schools.

Students in grades one through six who could read were asked, "What's reading good for? Why do you read?" Transcriptions of their statements were made. In cases where several responses were given, the student was asked to clarify which was his/her most important reason. Each child's reading level (above average, average, or below average) based on teacher judgment, and sex were also noted. These two variables were later used in data analysis.

One hundred and fifteen teachers in six Nebraska counties were asked to complete a written response in which they listed what they believed to be elementary students' most important reason for reading. These

teachers were either enrolled in university reading education courses or were members of a local International Reading Association.

Results and Discussion

A content analysis of students' and teachers' statements led to the development of a classification scheme. This scheme was later used to categorize all the responses. Validity and reliability of this scheme was verified as acceptable by several university and elementary school staff members who cross-checked the researcher's classifications. The six main categories and representative quotes or paraphrases follow:

Classification of Reasons for Reading

1. Reading is needed to *survive* or function in school and/or society.
 - to do well in school
 - to do the workbooks
 - to get a diploma
 - to read signs, labels, newspapers
 - to get a job
 - to cope with life
2. Reading enables one to gain *knowledge*, as comprehension and/or learning occurs.
 - to learn
 - to know how to make things
 - to know what other people write
 - to find out about other people or things
 - to find information one wants to know
 - to understand information in print
3. Reading enhances *personal development* and/or self-concept.
 - to experience success in being able to read
 - to improve one's self-esteem or self-concept
 - to learn about oneself
 - to broaden one's experiences
 - for life enrichment
 - to learn to think for oneself
4. Reading gives *pleasure*.
 - for enjoyment or fun
 - to make one happy
 - for excitement
 - for entertainment
 - to pass the time
5. Reading encourages a *shared experience* with family or others.
 - to read to family or others
 - to discuss a book, story, etc. with others
 - to read to one's own children or others some day
 - to teach one's own children or others to read in the future
6. *No value identified*.
 - non-meaningful responses given

Students' vs. Teachers' Responses

To investigate the effect of role as student or teacher on the main reason for elementary children's reading, a 2 x 6 chi-square analysis was performed. The data indicate a significant difference between children's reasons for reading and teachers' perceptions of why students read ($X^2_5 = 33.4$, $p = .001$). As Table 1 indicates, the first four reasons (survival, knowledge, personal development and pleasure) were identified about equally by the teachers. No teacher mentioned the shared experience reason, however, or failed to identify some rationale for reading. There was a notable range, on the other hand, among the proportions of students in the six categories. The greatest percentage, 37%, stated that reading's most important value was knowledge. The second most frequent choice, reading as a survival skill, was given by 26% of the children. Considerably fewer students, 13% stated that they read for pleasure, while 11% felt they read to enhance their personal development. Nine percent didn't identify any reason for reading. Finally, the smallest percentage of children, four percent, emphasized the value of reading in connection with a shared experience.

Table 1

Reasons	% Students	% Teachers
Survival	26	28
Knowledge	37	27
Personal Development	11	21
Pleasure	13	24
Shared Experience	4	0
No Value Identified	9	0
Total	100	100

The teachers seemed to feel that students read for pleasure more often than students indicated this reason. Teachers also put a greater emphasis on children's reading for personal development. As this latter reason is fairly sophisticated, it is understandable that fewer children would supply it. The difference between teachers' and students' emphasis on pleasure is more difficult to rationalize without looking at specific influencing factors such as reading education experiences or impact of television as an entertainment medium.

It is encouraging that children gave a priority to the knowledge value, although they less often emphasized that several students did not see any reason for reading. This feeling probably has a great impact on their reading behaviors and may even lead to avoidance of reading situations in some cases.

Typically teachers read aloud to children as they share books in many different situations; however, instructors apparently believe that this shared experience is not a primary reason for children's reading. A few students gave priority to this reason, which seems to indicate that

they have a strong desire to relate to others during the reading process, instead of only reading to themselves. When specific grade levels were examined, it was apparent that lower-grade children were more inclined than intermediate children to value this reason.

Above vs. Below Average Readers

No significant relationship existed between students' reading performance levels and their main reason for reading. As shown in Table 2, it appears that above average readers tended more often to read for knowledge and pleasure than below average students did, which one would intuitively expect to find. On the other hand, below average students felt the shared experience of reading was more important than above average children did. Also, below average students were more inclined to state that reading had no value.

Table 2

Above Average and Below Average Readers' Reasons for Reading

Reasons	% Above Average Readers	% Below Average Readers
Survival	26	28
Knowledge	42	32
Personal Development	12	11
Pleasure	13	8
Shared Experience	0	6
No Value Identified	7	15
Total	100	100

When children succeed at what they do, generally they feel good about the activity promoting this feeling. So it makes sense that above average students, those experiencing success, enjoyed reading more than those who did not attain the high level of success. It also follows that the above average, successful reader will probably gain more knowledge from what is read. Indeed, the above average students more often supplied the knowledge reason, as compared to the below average students' lesser emphasis of this reason.

Below average readers frequently are involved with tutors or special reading classes, as stronger students are encouraged to independently pursue their reading interests. This may parallel the finding that no above average reader supplied the shared experience reason while several below average readers mentioned this reason.

Girls vs. Boys

The profiles of girls and boys were also quite similar, as no significant relationship was identified between sex and reason for reading (see Table 3). Nearly the same percentage of girls and boys identified survival, personal development, and shared experience as reasons for reading, but 10% more girls than boys supplied the knowledge reason. Boys, on the other hand, supported the pleasure reason slightly more

often than girls did. Boys were also somewhat more inclined to say that reading had no value.

Table 3

Girls' and Boys' Reasons for Reading		
Reasons	% Girls	% Boys
Survival	24	24
Knowledge	43	33
Personal Development	11	12
Pleasure	10	15
Shared Experience	5	3
No Value Identified	7	13
Total	100	100

The greater proportion of boys supplying the no value reason as well as the lower percentage who read for knowledge may, in part, be a result of social, cultural and emotional factors. These elements may negatively influence boys' attitudes about school and reading experiences within the school (Stauffer 1978). The data in this study cannot fully explain why boys gave the pleasure reason a higher rating than the girls did. Possibly in an attempt to counteract negative factors, these boys' teachers made a special attempt to emphasize their reading for pleasure.

Conclusions

To understand how our students approach reading situations, it seems reasonable that we assess their reasons for reading, in addition to the more traditional skills and abilities we typically measure. After the children's reasons are identified, we need to also look at our own beliefs about why children read. Then we can better determine if we want to reinforce student's reasons for reading or attempt to modify them.

Considering the teachers at the school described in this study, they were proud of their students' high emphasis on reading for knowledge. They wanted to maintain this attitude. Several staff members, however, decided to put a renewed effort on reading as a pleasurable process. To help achieve this goal, one suggestion might be to spend less time on repetitive ditto skill exercises and more time with self-selected reading materials. Expanding students' accessibility to print materials other than books, including magazines and taped stories, is a second way to promote reading enjoyment. Book reports written after completing a selection might be replaced with more diverse creative dramatics or art activities based on the stories. Book report projects could also be replaced by additional reading time in many cases. These teachers decided that in addition to a general focus on reading for pleasure, they wanted to put a special emphasis on providing positive reading experiences for those students who believed reading had no value. In this situation, it seemed the most logical starting point was to base a portion of their

reading activities on personal interests of the students, rather than using only the basal reading materials.

If we take time to talk to our students, as well as to observe their behaviors, we can better determine how children feel about reading including their reasons for reading. We need to consider this information carefully to understand our students more fully and then plan instruction accordingly.

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AUDITORY CLOSURE AND READING

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In contrast with visual perception, about which there is a larger body of knowledge, relatively little information exists concerning auditory perception and its relationship to reading. This fact is both surprising and troublesome as several researchers have found that auditory perceptual measures are better predictors of reading achievement than are visual perceptual measures (Blank, 1968; Linder & Fillmer, 1970; Muehl and Kremenak, 1966). It has been widely assumed that some basal level of auditory skill is related to normal language acquisition, school readiness, and academic achievement, particularly reading. Various auditory perceptual processes have been described, including the processes of discrimination, memory, synthesis (sound blending), and analysis (closure).

A review of the literature indicates that much of the research in auditory perception has focused on auditory discrimination and memory, with a lesser amount of attention paid to sound blending, and very little attention paid to closure. The most thoroughly investigated area of auditory perception is auditory discrimination correlates moderately with reading achievement (e.g., Benger, 1968; Morency, 1968; Oakland, 1969; Peck, 1977; Wepman, 1960) and it is generally assumed that a minimal level of auditory discrimination is necessary for the normal acquisition of reading and general verbal skills (e.g., Deutsch, 1964; Zigmond, 1969). Auditory memory and auditory sequential memory have also been investigated by many researchers. Although the research is not conclusive, it appears the impairments in memory are related to reading disabilities (Witkin, 1969). Numerous researchers have reported significant correlations between reading achievement and memory (e.g., Badian, 1977; Boyd & Butler, 1971; Morency, 1968; Peck, 1977; Poling, 1953). Research on sound blending is not as extensive as research on discrimination and memory. Skill in sound blending has been suggested as providing possible clues to reading performance (Finkenbinder, 1972) and as a component of the decoding process (Richardson & Bradley, 1974). Most researchers who have studied the relationship of sound blending to reading in primary grade children have reported statistically significant correlations (Richardson, DeBenedetto, & Bradley, 1977; Harber, Note 1). Studies which compared sound blending ability in good and poor readers reported that the two groups perform significantly differently while studies which determined concurrent and/or predictive relationships reported low to moderate correlation coefficients.

Research on auditory closure is far less extensive than that on other auditory perceptual skills. Several researchers have suggested that auditory closure is a necessary or at least helpful skill in the acquisition of reading (Finkenbinder, 1972; Fox & Routh, 1976; Kass, 1966; Kroth, 1971; Oakland & Williams, 1971). Of the studies which compared the performance of good and poor readers on auditory closure tasks, two found no significant differences (Macione, 1970; Sears, 1970) and one found differences which approached but did not reach statistical significance (Golden & Steiner, 1969). Intelligence was controlled in two of these studies. Other studies which determined concurrent and/or predictive relationships between auditory closure and reading achievement reported low to moderate coefficients (Elkins, 1972; Gallistel, Boyle, Curren, & Hawthorne, 1972; Harber, Note 1). Intelligence was controlled in only one of these three studies. When uncontrolled, intelligence tends to inflate the resulting coefficients, thereby suggesting that the true magnitude of the relationship between closure and reading achievement might be somewhat lower than it appears.

Harber (Note 1) studied the relationship between auditory closure and reading performance (word analysis skills, oral reading, and silent reading) in learning disabled subjects. With the effects of intelligence and chronological age controlled, correlations between auditory closure and reading performance reached statistical significance ($r = .35$, $p < .001$ with word analysis skills, $r = .32$, $p < .001$ with oral reading, and $r = .29$, $p < .01$ with silent reading). While all three coefficients reached statistical significance, only one reached the cut-off point Harber established for educational significance.

The present study further explores the relationship between auditory closure and reading performance. It has been suggested (Elkins, 1972) that auditory closure skill becomes more critical to reading success at the third grade level. As most subjects in the Harber (Note 1) study had not yet reached that level of reading, it was hypothesized that the relationship between auditory closure and reading may be found to be greater in more advanced readers. This suggestion is further supported by Kaluger and Kolson's (1978) statement that ability in phonetic analysis (closure) is needed by the middle of second grade level because by this time too many words look alike for children to successfully discriminate among them through visual clues alone. Kaluger and Kolson suggest that it is at this time that children with auditory perceptual problems begin having difficulty with reading. The purpose of the present study is to explore the relationship between auditory closure and reading performance in learning disabled children who have achieved varying levels of reading competency.

METHOD

Subjects. Seventy-five children who had been identified as learning disabled according to prevailing guidelines. Learning disabled subjects were selected according to the following criteria: (1) they evidence an

academic deficit sufficient to warrant special education services, (2) they obtained intelligence quotients in the average or above average range, (3) they do not have physical, sensory, or primary emotional problems, and (4) they are between the ages of 6-0 and 11-0. Mean IQ was 94.

Procedures. The following test instruments were utilized. Auditory closure was measured by the Auditory Closure subtest of the Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities (ITPA) (Kirk, McCarthy, & Kirk, 1968). The Durrell Analysis of Reading Difficulty (Durrell, 1955), Word Recognition and Word Analysis, Oral Reading, and Silent Reading subtests were used to measure reading performance. Subjects who were unable to read at least ten words on this subtest were also administered the Hearing Sounds in Words subtest of the Durrell. Performance in reading was measured by the composite scores of the subtests administered. All subjects were tested individually. The order of the tasks remained constant for all subjects. After all subjects were tested, three groups (low, middle, and high) were formed according to performance on the Durrell Analysis of Reading Difficulty. Mean composite reading scores were: low group, $X = 126.12$; middle group, $X = 134.35$; high group, $X = 188.61$.

Statistical Technique. Second-order partial correlational procedures were utilized in order to determine the relationship between auditory closure and reading skills for each group, without the contaminating influence of intelligence and chronological age. To determine whether the relationships were substantial enough to be of educational value, it was necessary to establish a minimum level at which the correlation coefficients attain practical significance. Guilford (1956) suggests the educationally significant correlation coefficients must reach .3 since coefficients below that level indicate negligible relationships between the variables. Garrett (1954), on the other hand, suggests that only coefficients of .4 or above are useful, as lesser values denote negligible or at best, slight relationships. In the present study, .35 was used as the cut-off point between coefficients with practical significance and those without. Differences between resulting correlation coefficients were tested for significance utilizing the Z statistic.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Second-order partial correlations are presented in Table 1. Correlation coefficients for each group exceeded the established cut-off point for practical significance.

The correlation between auditory closure and reading performance was highest for the low group and lowest for the high group. However, the differences in magnitude of correlations between groups were not statistically significant ($Z(72) = .17$ to 1.86). These findings are somewhat surprising in light of the suggestions found in the literature that auditory closure skill becomes more critical to reading success after initial reading skills are acquired (Elkins, 1972; Kaluger and Kolson,

TABLE 1

Correlation Coefficients Between Auditory Closure
and Reading Skills

Group	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>
<i>Low readers</i>	.92	<i>p</i> .001
<i>Middle readers</i>	.87	<i>p</i> .001
<i>High readers</i>	.47	<i>p</i> .025

1978). However, the findings of this study do support the relationship between auditory closure and reading, suggesting that the relationship is indeed educationally significant. This study's findings clearly support the suggestions of Finkenbinder (1972), Fox and Routh (1976), Kass (1966), Kroth (1971), and Oakland and Williams (1972) that auditory closure is a necessary or at least helpful skill in the acquisition of reading.

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READING AND RISK TAKING: THE TEACHER'S ROLE

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Among the most puzzling students for the reading teacher are the children who say they can't learn to read or don't want to learn to read. Despite excellent objectives and activities which the skilled reading teacher has planned, these children seem determined to avoid the reading task, and to deny the teacher the opportunity to help them learn.

From the child's point of view, such oppositional behavior may well be a survival skill. Most likely, repeated confrontations with expectations related to the reading task have met with failure. Parents, teachers and peers value reading, and people who read well are valued in the classroom. The child's self message may reflect the certainty that there is something wrong that causes failure at this very important task. The response is to avoid the situation which causes the exposure of this inadequacy, and the child says he/she does not want to learn to read.

Causes of Reading Failure

The causes of reading failures are many and varied, but the results tend to be similar; avoiding the reading task at all costs. Sometimes a child will use a direct approach such as announcing, "this is dumb," or "I'm not going to do this stuff." At other times a child may be more indirect and claim inability to find the page, doesn't have pencil or other materials, complains that eyes hurt, or engages in other off task activities. Whether the child is direct or indirect in the way he/she communicates feelings about reading, the message is the same; the intent to avoid the reading task.

In order to turn this situation around to where the child can and will engage in the reading task willingly, we need to take into account the amount of risk we are asking the child to take. Reading is risky; one makes incorrect responses, often does not know what is expected, what is correct or incorrect, and exposes these inadequacies to the view of peers and teachers. A successful remedial program must be structured in such a way that the risks the child is asked to take are those that can be managed. A gradual increase of risk taking should be built into the structure of the reading task until the child is able to deal successfully with the risks inherent in a traditional reading session.

Before considering structural components as they may be related to the amount of risk for the child, attention should be given to characteristics of the structure of a learning experience as well as to a hierarchy of risk taking.

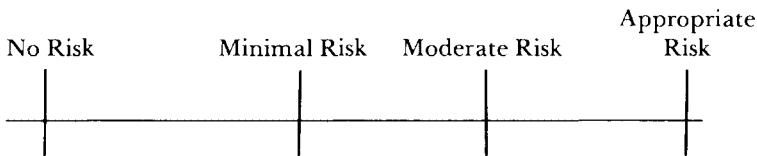
Characteristics of Structure

Structure is described by Hewett (1968) as the conditions under which the learning task is performed and contains five characteristics:

1. What — the task the child is expected to perform.
2. When — the time the task is to be performed as well as the length of time to be devoted to the task.
3. Where — the location of the task performance.
4. How — the process to be used to complete the task.
5. How Well — the degree of accuracy and quality with which the task is to be completed.

Hierarchy of Risk Taking

Risk taking may be considered on a continuum from none to appropriate. At one end, the child takes no risks and the teacher does all the risking, while at the other end, the child takes those risks that are appropriate for the particular classroom and the teacher takes fewer. Check points on such a continuum may be labeled:



The teacher uses the variables available in the structure (what, where, when, how and how well) to design the reading experience for the child in a manner that reflects the child's ability to take risks. The design can and should be modified as the ability to risk increases.

Design Considerations

No Risk — Initially, the teacher should take full responsibility for the success of the reading session, the tasks should be structured in a manner that the child cannot fail. The teacher should consider:

1. Beginning with tasks that don't look like reading to the child (games, conversations, exploratory walks, etc.). Such activities permit manipulation of what, where, when and how.
2. Setting up situations where the child is "caught" reading (recognizing signs, labels, etc.) and demonstrating surprise and pleasure that the child can "read" (what and how well).
3. Reading to the child (what).
4. Rewarding the child for engaging in the activity (how and how well).
5. Planning the activity in such a manner that the child's responses are acceptable (how well).
6. Teacher taking responsibility for all materials (how).

Minimal Risk — Once the child has become comfortable with the teacher and the sessions, consideration can be given to increasing risks

for the child. The teacher continues to take the major responsibility for the success of the sessions. The structure of the sessions should now include the following:

1. Begin discrimination tasks. Because discrimination inherently implies the possibility of correct and incorrect responses, the teacher should begin with obvious differences and move slowly to fine discrimination (comparing o and x and moving to p and b) (what and how).
2. Consistency. As principles of phonics are introduced, expectations to principles should be avoided (what).
3. Corrections of all errors as they are made. The opportunity to correct each error as it is made helps the child begin to take a few risks. If there is advance awareness that mistakes can be erased and corrected with the ultimate product accurate, the child is more likely to venture into risk taking responses in reading (how and how well).
4. The process the child uses to arrive at a response is more important than the accuracy of the response (how and how well).
5. Continue reading to the child and encouraging participation as interest is indicated (what and how).
6. Teacher continues to take responsibility for materials (how).
7. Keep progress charts (what).

Moderate Risk—As the child increases the ability to take risks, the teacher's role gradually shifts to taking minor responsibility for the success of the sessions. The structure may now include:

1. Asking the child to work independently for increasing period of time (how, what and when).
2. Inviting the child to participate in evaluation of work (how and how well).
3. Reward the child for asking for and using help (how).
4. Invite the child to take responsibility for his/her own materials and gradually increase this requirement (what, how, when and where).
5. Continue to keep easily visible records of progress (what).

Appropriate Risk—The teacher continues to take minor responsibility for the success of the reading sessions by careful attention to the quality of the task expected of the child (what). In terms of risks, the structure should not be similar to that for other children in the class.

Summary

Consideration for the amount of risk taking a child can productively tolerate can have direct implications for designing the structure of a reading session in such a way that the student experiences success.

For those children who can tolerate little or no risk-taking, the teacher takes the major responsibility for the success of the sessions and little or no attention is given to correctness or quality of response. At this level, an individual session with the child is probably necessary.

As children begin to experience success and are able to tolerate increased risks, the teacher shifts to taking less responsibility for the suc-

cess of the sessions and more emphasis is placed on the quality of the child's response. From the time children are able to take minimal risks, they can participate in small group reading sessions.

By gradually increasing the risks children are asked to take according to their ability to tolerate, they continue to experience success and no longer need to avoid the reading task.

Periods of backsliding should be expected. However, careful records will show both the teacher and the child that continued progress is being made overall.

As progress continues, avoidance of reading tasks should be replaced by acceptance, and, perhaps, even willingness and eagerness.

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A COMPARISON OF AVERAGE READERS AT DIFFERENT GRADE LEVELS

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Many standardized reading tests yield separate scores for vocabulary and comprehension. Sometimes the vocabulary and comprehension scores for a given student are more or less (if not exactly) the same. In other cases, one is substantially higher than the other.

The pattern of vocabulary and comprehension scores on a standardized reading test has been discussed by Arlin (1976). According to Arlin, there are three categories of readers: balanced, word dominant, and paragraph dominant. *Balanced* readers are defined as those whose levels of word meaning and paragraph meaning skills as measured by a standardized reading test are more or less equivalent. Readers whose skill in word meaning substantially exceeds skill in paragraph meaning are said to be *word dominant*. Finally, *paragraph dominant* readers are those whose paragraph meaning skill substantially surpasses skill in word meaning.

Support for the validity of Arlin's categories comes from evidence to the effect that vocabulary knowledge is neither a necessary nor a sufficient condition for comprehension (see Stratton and Nacke, 1974). After all, if vocabulary knowledge were a necessary condition for comprehension there could be no such thing as a paragraph dominant reader. Conversely, if vocabulary knowledge were a sufficient condition for comprehension there could be no such thing as a word dominant reader.

Of the three categories that Arlin has proposed, it would seem reasonable to expect that the balanced category would be the most prevalent, regardless of grade level. Less predictable, it would seem, is (1) the degree of similarity in the percentage of balanced readers at different grade levels, and (2) the relative incidence of word dominant and paragraph dominant readers at different grade levels.

The purpose of this study was to investigate the pattern of vocabulary and comprehension scores of average readers in grades two through six. More specifically, this study was undertaken to determine whether the percentages of balanced, word dominant, and paragraph dominant readers vary substantially as a function of grade level.

Method

Subjects

The subjects whose data were subsequently analyzed were 414

average readers in grades two through six. The average readers represented a little over half of the students who participated in the testing phase of the study. All of the students were enrolled in one of three elementary schools and one junior high school in a midwestern school district.

An average reader was defined as a student whose Total stanine score on the 1978 edition of the *Gates-MacGinitie Reading Tests* was in the four-to-six range. The number of average readers by grade is shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1
Number of Average Readers
in Grades Two through Six

Grade	2	3	4	5	6
Number	85	85	88	69	87

Tests

The standardized reading test which was used as a basis for studying the pattern of average readers' vocabulary and comprehension scores was the 1978 edition of the *Gates-MacGinitie Reading Tests*. The students in grades two and three were administered Form 1 of Levels B and C, respectively. The students in grades four through six were administered Form 1 of Level D. Each Level consists of a Vocabulary test and a Comprehension test. Normative scores are provided for both tests individually and for the two combined (Total).

Procedure

All of the students who participated in the testing phase of this study were tested in October of 1978. Each student's Total raw score was converted to a national stanine score using the appropriate norms tables in the various Teacher's Manuals. For those students who obtained a Total stanine score of four, five, or six—the middle third of the stanine scale—the Vocabulary and Comprehension test raw scores were also converted to national stanine scores in order to determine to which reader category, i.e., balanced, word dominant, or paragraph dominant, they should be assigned. Stanines were selected for this purpose because they measure achievement in relatively broad classes, and therefore help take into account the range of scores that might be obtained with repeated testings. In operational terms, Arlin's reader categories were defined as follows:

Balanced: a reader whose Vocabulary and Comprehension stanine scores were either identical or failed to differ by more than one stanine.

Word Dominant: a reader whose Vocabulary stanine score was

two or more stanines higher than his/her Comprehension stanine score.

Paragraph Dominant: a reader whose Comprehension stanine score was two or more stanines higher than his/her Vocabulary stanine score.

After the students in each grade had been classified as to reader category, the percentage of students by grade in each category was calculated.

Results

The percentage of balanced, word dominant, and paragraph dominant readers in grades two through six are shown in Table 2.

TABLE 2
Percentages of Balanced, Word Dominant, and
Paragraph Dominant Readers in Grades Two through Six

Grade	N	Balanced	Word Dominant	Paragraph Dominant
2	85	83%	12%	5%
3	85	88%	9%	3%
4	88	79%	14%	7%
5	69	84%	9%	7%
6	87	80%	12%	8%

An examination of Table 2 reveals that regardless of grade level, the vast majority of readers were balanced. Furthermore, the percentage of balanced readers in each grade was virtually the same, ranging only from a low of 79% (fourth grade) to a high of 88% (third grade).

The next most prevalent category was word dominance, again regardless of grade level. The percentage of word dominant readers ranged from a low of 9% (third grade and fifth grade) to a high of 14% (fourth grade). For the paragraph dominant category, the range was from 3% (third grade) to 8% (sixth grade).

Discussion

In addition to providing support for the validity of Arlin's reader categories, the results of this study indicate that average readers at different grade levels have more in common than their relative standing among their peers. The percentages of balanced, word dominant, and paragraph dominant readers did not vary substantially from grade to grade.

The nature of this uniformity suggests that regardless of grade level, the comprehension ability of average readers is largely limited by their ability to assign meanings to individual words. Otherwise, one would expect to witness a lower incidence of balance, and a higher incidence of paragraph dominance. To put it another way, the data collected in this study suggest that average readers are at best only moderately proficient in terms of making use of contextual information as an aid to comprehension.

This inference raises an interesting question. Would systematic attempts to improve average readers' ability to make use of contextual information result in a lower incidence of balance and a higher incidence of paragraph dominance? Inasmuch as an instructional approach aimed at improving average readers' ability to make use of contextual information might result in the development of more proficient readers, it would seem that a study designed to answer this question is warranted.

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READING INTERESTS AMONG FIFTH AND SIXTH GRADE CHILDREN

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Teachers have been urged to discover and utilize the reading interests of their students to promote enthusiasm for learning (Witty, 1959, 1961; Purves and Beach, 1972). By discovering reading interests, it is hoped that teachers can encourage extra-curricular reading, thereby improving reading skills through this invaluable practice. Teachers should strive to encourage an interest in reading — what better way than to provide students with “interesting” books?

This article reports the results of an interest survey given to children in four fifth and sixth grade classrooms. The author especially wished to determine if the sex differences in interest reported by so many writers (Norvell, 1958; McKay, 1968; Beta Upsilon Chapter, 1974) were still in effect today.

METHOD

The subjects were ninety-three fifth and sixth grade students in a small midwestern city. Fifty-one of the subjects were above the national mean in reading ability (average percentile = 67 on the SRA Assessment Survey, comprehension subtest). There was no difference in reading ability between males and females.

The instruments used to assess interests were of two types. The first method employed a picture rating scale developed by Asher and Markell (1974). Children were shown a picture depicting the topic and asked to rate their interest in reading about this topic on a scale from one to seven. For example, a picture of an erupting volcano was shown, and children were asked to rate their interest in reading about this topic.

The second instrument was the more traditional questionnaire, which asked children to rate their interest in topics on a scale from one to seven. The same thirty topics (see Table 1) were presented on both instruments. Final topic score was the combined picture rating and questionnaire scores. The possible high score was thus fourteen. By combining the results of two methods, it was hoped to have a more “true” score for each topic.

RESULTS

The results of the survey are given in Table 1. The topics are ranked according to overall popularity. In addition, the average male score and the average female score are given for each topic. These scores were

tested (using a t-test) to determine if the differences between sex means were significant. Those topics which showed a significant difference between sexes (at the .05 level) are indicated by an asterisk in the last column of the table.

DISCUSSION

The results of this inquiry show that there are still differences in reading interests between boys and girls. Fifteen of the thirty topics showed sex differences. However, some topics on which differences might be expected (e.g., camping, rodeo, rats) showed no significant sex differences. This may indicate a diminishing of sex-based interests.

The "winners" in the popularity contest among topics were outer space and galaxies. Many children showed by their comments that they associated these topics with the popular "Star Wars" movie and "Battlestar Galactica" television show. Boys were special fans of these two topics (although outer space was #2 for the girls, and galaxies was #4). This seems to indicate that media have an effect on children's reading interests. The topic of "science fiction" finished a dismal twelfth in the Beta Upsilon Chapter's survey in 1974 (i.e., pre-"Star Wars").

Teachers are urged to use the results of this survey in order to provide reading material of interest to their fifth and sixth grade students. They are also urged to investigate the interests of their particular group of students. By using the picture rating and questionnaire techniques, teachers can provide a check on responses. Only by assessing interests can we hope to provide students with materials of interest to them.

TABLE 1
Mean Scores on Topics by Sex (Standard Deviations in Parentheses)

Topic	average topic score	average male score	average female score	significant sex difference
1. outer space	12.08	13.02 (1.77)	10.29 (3.73)	*
2. galaxies	11.44	12.51 (2.19)	10.14 (3.39)	*
3. sea lions	10.83	10.49 (2.49)	11.24 (3.03)	
4. volcanoes	10.54	11.68 (2.24)	9.14 (3.39)	*
5. camping	10.23	9.77 (3.57)	10.79 (4.20)	
6. elephants	10.11	9.71 (3.48)	10.59 (3.59)	
7. rodeo	10.12	10.45 (3.39)	9.69 (3.54)	
8. fish	10.01	9.96 (3.33)	10.07 (3.36)	
9. bats	9.95	10.94 (3.07)	8.74 (4.14)	*

TABLE 1 (continued)

Topic	average topic score	average male score	average female score	significant sex difference
10. rockets	9.73	11.47 (2.69)	7.62 (3.68)	*
11. birds	9.44	9.45 (2.87)	9.43 (2.99)	
12. jets	9.26	10.90 (3.16)	7.26 (3.68)	*
13. glaciers	9.24	9.63 (3.36)	8.76 (2.84)	
14. lightning	8.95	9.08 (3.76)	8.79 (4.15)	
15. baseball	8.60	9.63 (4.25)	7.36 (4.4)	*
16. sailing	8.52	7.82 (2.84)	9.36 (3.57)	*
17. radar	8.47	10.06 (3.58)	6.45 (3.89)	*
18. Coast Guard	8.29	9.08 (3.31)	7.33 (3.96)	*
19. Lincoln	8.20	8.35 (3.79)	8.02 (3.88)	
20. photography	8.13	8.06 (3.57)	8.21 (3.52)	
21. lifeboats	7.92	7.98 (3.36)	7.86 (3.54)	
22. plants	7.86	6.75 (2.83)	9.21 (3.38)	*
23. sequoia trees	7.76	7.49 (3.37)	8.09 (2.65)	
24. insects	7.52	8.55 (3.85)	6.26 (3.49)	*
25. rats	7.36	7.88 (3.55)	6.71 (3.68)	
26. termites	7.09	8.41 (4.09)	5.48 (4.13)	*
27. Washington (George)	6.72	7.04 (3.30)	6.33 (3.13)	
28. coal mining	6.44	7.24 (3.39)	5.48 (3.46)	*
29. aluminum smelting	5.95	6.76 (3.40)	4.98 (2.73)	*
30. skyscrapers	5.57	5.88 (2.89)	5.19 (2.88)	

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REVIEWS

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Who's Afraid of the Dark? by Muriel Stanek, ill. by Helen Cogancherry
Albert Whitman, 1980. 29pp.

One of the most common fears of childhood is being afraid of the dark. Muriel Stanek has written an excellent story for elementary-age readers about a young boy, Kenny, who is afraid of the dark. Kenny's family is understanding and supportive, but his friends make fun of him. Finally, the grandfather buys Kenny a small flashlight to help him overcome his fear of the dark. The line-drawings enhance the story. Teachers may want to read this story aloud to the class as an effective discussion starter.

Grandpa and Me Together. by Susan Goldman, ill. by author, Albert Whitman, 1980. 29 pp. \$5.95. Ages 4-7.

Katherine and Grandpa are great friends, and their friendship is described in this book. The story tells about some of the things Katherine and her Grandpa do together when she goes to visit him. The author depicts a loving, close relationship between family members. Young readers would enjoy either having the story read aloud or reading the story independently. Goldman's illustrations are simple but effective in adding to the enchantment of this book.

Cousins are Special. by Susan Goldman, ill. by author, Albert Whitman. 1980. 30 pp. \$5.50. Ages 4-7.

Families are important and special to young children and this delightful story tells of the fun two cousins have when one goes to visit the other. Relatives and family relationships can be confusing to some youngsters at times. However, this short story will help primary-age children to better understand the special ties family members have with each other. The author has done an excellent job illustrating her own story. This book can be used to read-aloud or may be read independently by early readers. It is a nice companion story to *Grandpa and Me Together*. Both books are excellent resources for use in a teaching unit about families.

She's Not My Real Mother. by Judith Vigna, ill. by author, Albert Whitman, 1980. 30 pp.

The topic of divorce, remarriage, and step-parents is a sensitive, contemporary issue. Vigna presents a story of a young boy who visits his father and step-mother. As the story begins, the boy does not like his father's new wife. One day he goes with HER to the Ice Show and he pretends to get lost in the stadium. Suddenly the boy discovers he really is lost and becomes very frightened. When his step-mother finds him, he is so glad to see her his feelings about HER begin to become more positive. Many young readers will be able to identify with the boy and his feelings. The step-mother should have been given a name in the story, rather than referring to HER. The illustrations contribute to the mood and message of the story.

Behind the Scenes Series. by Don and Barbara Fenton, Ed. by Howard Schroeder. Crestwood House, 1980.

This series of five books describes the activities which take place behind the scenes in various communication or recreational areas. The complete series consists of the following books:

Behind the Sports Scene—
Behind the Newspaper Scene
Behind the Television Scene
Behind the Radio Scene
Behind the Circus Scene

Each book tells about the key people and their job. In addition, the books describe the activities which occur behind the scenes to run a baseball club. Create a television program, put on a circus, etc. The books are illustrated with excellent black/white and color photographs. The text seems appropriate for elementary readers, and is interesting and easy to understand. Each book has some specialized vocabulary for the specific topic of the book. This series is an excellent resource for teachers and would be most useful for instructional units.

The Reading Activities Handbook. by Wilma H. Miller, 476 pp. Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1980. \$14.95.

The Reading Activities Handbook is a useful, new collection of teaching ideas and activity sheets to implement strategies and competencies presented in the reading program. The ideas and activities cover a range of difficulty and interest levels for children in the first through eighth grades. Miller presents over four hundred teaching suggestions and more than one hundred reproducible activity sheets.

The first section of the *Reading Activities Handbook* contains checklists for competencies at various reading levels, along with a brief discussion of diagnostic-prescriptive teaching of reading. Each item on the checklist is keyed to the appropriate reading activity in the handbook. The nine remaining sections emphasize a specific area in reading. These areas include the following: Sight Word Recognition, Phonic Analysis, Structural or Morphemic Analysis, Contexture Analysis, Literal Comprehension, Interpretive Comprehension, Critical Reading, Creative Reading, and Study Skills. Each of these sections is structured in the same way. First, the general competency is briefly described, then, the teaching suggestions are presented according to grade level; thirdly, the activity sheets for each grade level are presented; and finally, a list of commercial materials and games is included.

Many times it is difficult for classroom teachers or reading specialists to find good resources for ideas, as well as meaningful activities for their students. Miller has written a handbook which has many useful and appropriate suggestions for reading educators. Among the most noteworthy activities are those relating to Contexture Analysis, Critical Reading, and Creative Reading. Teachers can use the ideas of the author to develop additional activities for their students. The *Reading Activities Handbook* is the type of resource material which is suitable, practical and very useful.

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