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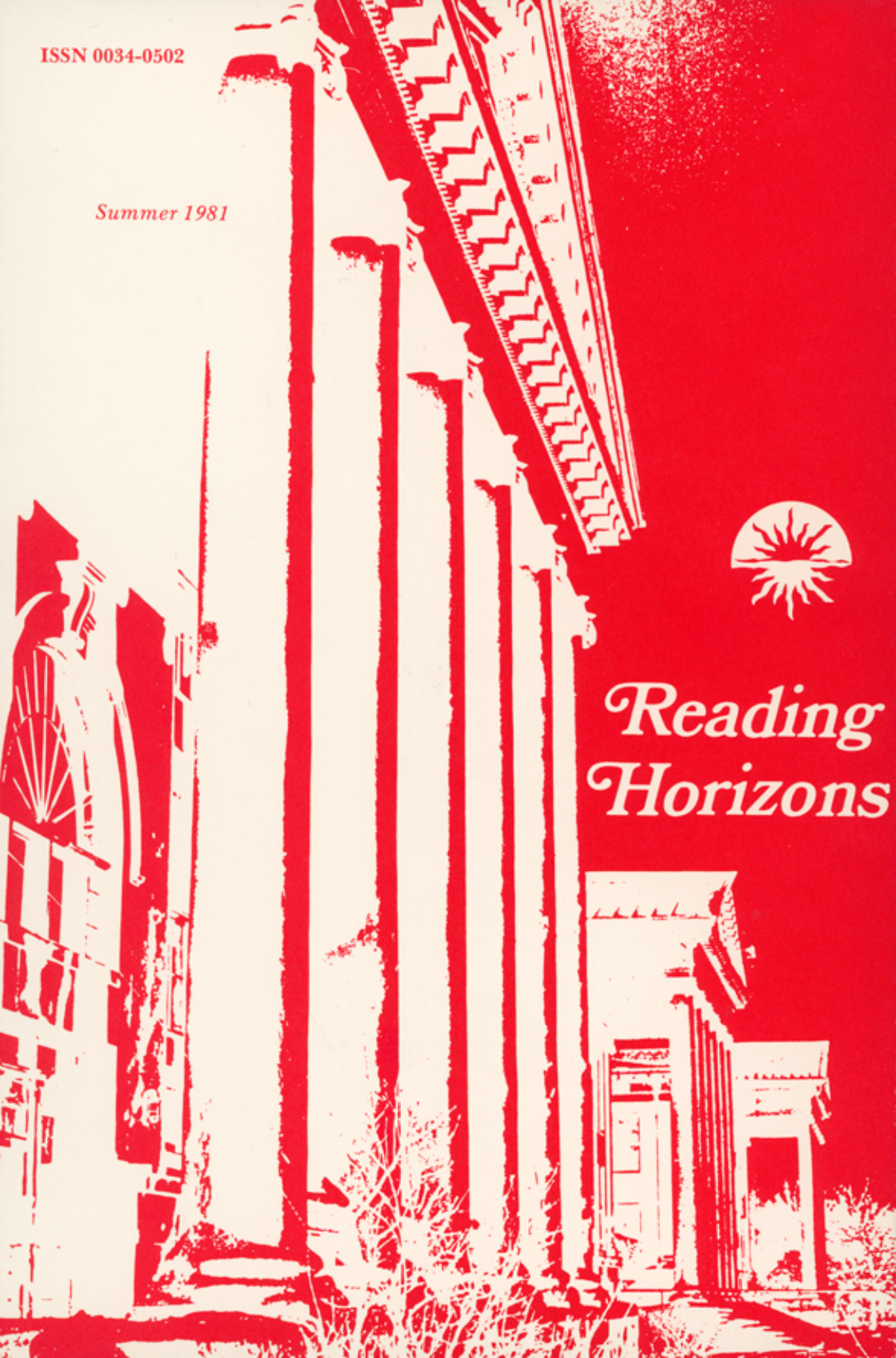


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GUEST EDITORIAL

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DOTHAN EXTENSION

An important reason for school administrators to view the act of reading as not only useful but necessary is seen in the following statement: "As a medium of communication and as a tool of learning, reading serves an indispensable function in society" (Tinker and McCullough, 1962). Casual observation and national statistics indicate that the experience of reading is not given adequate time in most classrooms. We feel it is entirely reasonable to expect every pupil to spend fifteen minutes of every hour in activities related to or directly involved in reading. For this to happen, the act of reading must have a higher place on the list of activities in every curricular area and at all academic levels.

As educational leaders, enlightened school administrators can play the key role in bringing about the change. Each administrator needs to recognize the fact that teachers must be given reading guidelines to make their classroom activities viable seeds of learning (Powell, 1976). Each administrator needs to help content area teachers build reading skills through working closely with reading specialists, as opposed to sending students out of class to "remedial" rooms. Principals need to recall that their own academic successes were derived through the medium of good teaching, not solely through program or materials or building arrangement.

Making administrators aware that good teaching and reading progress are interdependent will require our constant attention and effort, for we may all agree with the thought "the teacher makes the difference" (Singer, 1978), but administrators still make the decisions, and crowding reading opportunities out of the day's activity is still taking place.

Reading teachers need to join in a concerted effort to point the way for administrators, placing before each principal and curriculum director the essential aims of reading programs for children (Harris, 1961):

1. To help children mature in the ability to think critically;

2. To help children understand their own feelings and the feelings of others;
3. To encourage children to explore, become independent and self-directing; and
4. To help children understand the world in which they live and how they fit into it.

Specific aims, to bring about the thoughts listed above are:

1. To help children learn to read--
Developmental reading
2. To help children read to learn--
Functional reading
3. To help children develop the reading habit--Recreational reading

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LET THEM READ THE BOOK

Patricia M. Cunningham

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It is a September morning in a first grade classroom in Anywhere, USA. The boys and girls come into the room, excited and eager. This is the day, their teacher has announced, when they will begin their first book. For several weeks now the boys and girls have been in readiness. They have learned letter names and beginning associations for consonant letters and their sounds. They have learned that reading goes from left to right and top to bottom. They have matched letters and words. They are now ready to read.

Ms. Teacher calls the first group. Quickly they come to the front of the room and sit in their little chairs. Ms. Teacher then introduces four or five words. The children put the words in sentences and read the words in sentences which the teacher has written on the board. Finally, after what seems an interminable ten minutes, the boys and girls are given their first book. They talk about the title of the book and then begin to read. They read three or four pages, first silently, then orally. The teacher then collects the books and sends the children to their seats. As they return to their seats, the children are obviously disappointed. Jill is heard to say, "I thought we were going to learn to read a book." Jim says, "Well, maybe we're going to read the rest of that book tomorrow. She took a long time to teach us those words. We'll probably read the whole book tomorrow." Jill says, "Yeah, you're probably right," and goes back to her seat to do her seat work.

Tomorrow comes. The boys and girls are called for their reading group. The teacher reviews the words she taught yesterday. They then re-read the same three pages they read yesterday and they do several pages in their workbook. This time, as they go back to their

seats, Jim says to Jill, "I was wrong. It's going to take all year if we ever learn to read that book."

Jill and Jim's reading group continues like this for the next six weeks. Each day, the teacher introduces several new words and the children read a few pages in their book. On the following day, they review those words and pages and do some work in their work-books. Six weeks later, if they're an average-moving group, they complete their first real reading book, and, after a general review, begin their second book. Their excitement as they begin the second book is noticeably less than it was when they began their first book.

I have a three-year old. At several points during the day, we sit down and have a quiet time. He brings me a book or two to read. When we sit down to read the book, we have to read the whole book. In fact, often we have to read the whole book twice. He would, if I would, sit there while we read that same book all the way through three times. To little children, reading a book means exactly that. You start at one end of the book and you go until you finish the book. Much of the excitement about reading that first graders bring with them to school is dampened when they discover that it takes six or seven weeks to complete each book. What I am suggesting here is a way of using the same set of books you are currently using, and teaching the same skills you are currently teaching, but of beginning with the book, allowing the children to read the whole book, and teaching the skills from that book as they are experiencing the pleasure of reading the whole book.

Now let's go back to this first grade classroom, Anywhere, USA. And let's imagine what the beginning reading instruction would look like if the teacher began by allowing the children to read the whole book and taught the skills and the sight words as they were practicing reading the book.

I'm sure you are all wondering how beginning readers, who can't read, are going to read a whole book in one chunk. Actually, that is quite simply accomplished. Carol Chomsky (1976) first discussed a method of teaching children to read called imitative reading. Imitative reading is a very simple strategy. A book that is easy for the children to read (it can be one of the pre-primers, an easy-to-read book, or a picture book in which the pictures carry a great deal of the story) is taped. It is best to tape the book as you read the book to the children. Let them clap their hands when you turn each page. Ask them to be especially quiet because, as you are reading the book, the tape recorder is recording your reading

so that they can listen to it again and again. The teacher reads the book. The children participate by clapping their hands (once) when it's time to turn the page. After reading the book, the teacher plays the tape for the children to listen to. Time can also be given to a discussion of the book and how pictures tell part of the story. Once the tape is made, the group that is going to use this book for their beginning reading instruction gathers around the tape player and listens to the book at least twice a day. Each child has a copy of the book, and turns the page with the sound of the handclap while following along in the story. At the end of a week or two (ten to twenty times of listening to this book), most children can read the book. During reading group time, the teacher can introduce the words to be taught and teach the skills that accompany the book.

"But," you protest, "they haven't really learned to read that book, they just have it memorized." Well, in a way they do. They have it memorized in much the same way that children who learn to read before they come to school have learned by listening to favorite books again and again until they can read those books on their own. Often, in the process of memorizing those first few books, the children teach themselves a number of words as sight words. They also induct a great deal of information about how reading works. If, for example, it's a book with many rhyming words, the child who has memorized that book often learns that words that end alike usually rhyme. Many books have words in them which are alliterative, beginning with the same sound. The child who memorizes these books often inducts the fact that words beginning with the same letter often begin with the same sound. Sometimes children memorize books in which the pictures tell much of the story. In memorizing these books, children learn that pictures give clues as to what the words on the page are going to say. Memorizing books, and in the process of memorizing, learning sight words, inducting information about rhyming words, beginning sounds and the relationship between print and pictures, seems to be the way that children who teach themselves to read begin that process.

However, I'm not sure that memorizing is the best term to describe what children do with the book. When one memorizes something, s/he usually can recite it without any clues at all. Our teacher in junior English had us memorize a poem each week, and I can still quote:

"Into my heart's treasury, I slipped a coin,
That time cannot take nor a thief purloin;
More precious than the minting of a gold-crowned king,
Is the safe-kept memory of a well-loved thing."

I can recite this at any time and place and don't need anything to look at in order to do that. Very few children can recite a whole book without having the pictures and the pages and some of the words to keep them moving. What they do as they learn to read a book by memory is similar to what you and I do when we hear a song we haven't heard in "ages" and didn't even know we knew, but are able to sing along with it as we listen. Everyone who has had the experience of listening to the radio and found themselves singing along with a song they haven't heard in ten years will understand what children do when they memorize a book. We could not sing that song without the music to arouse the memory. Each word or note triggers the next. The rhyming word at the end of one line triggers the rhyming word at the end of the next line. The rhythm of the music carries the flow of the words.

The book, like the song, is not really memorized. Through several repetitions, it has become familiar enough that some words can be predicted from the pictures. These words trigger other words. Familiarity with the book and the language patterns in the book allows the beginning reader to experience the pleasure, pride, and success of reading a whole book!

Imitative reading is an especially effective teaching strategy to use with older children who have not learned to read or who are still at the pre-primer or primer level. A high interest-low vocabulary book of their choice is taped and they listen to the tape until they can read the entire book (or chapter of a longer book). Many "I don't care" remedial readers have been transformed into bookworms when they have accumulated a pile of books they can actually read!

Reading, like any other skill, requires instruction and practice. To provide beginning readers with the practice they need to become fluent readers as you teach them the skills they need, let them read the book.

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DOES THE TEACHER'S ATTITUDE TOWARD READING AFFECT THE ATTITUDE TOWARD READING HELD BY THE STUDENTS?

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When trying to determine who is an effective teacher of reading, three variables have been considered: 1) pre-sage—what the teacher brings to the classroom; 2) process—what the teacher does in the classroom; and 3) product—what the outcome of the teacher's instructional strategies is in terms of pupil growth.

It has been pointed out that the teacher of reading, while continuing to be regarded as a most significant influence on reading progress, continues to be a relatively neglected research variable (Schofield and Start, 1977).

Agin (1975), in an overview of research in reading, emphasized the importance of interest, attitudes, and motivation. She maintained that "the attitude of the teacher is the main ingredient...(in) getting children to read." There is very little research literature on the relationship between pupils' attitudes toward and their achievement in reading, and almost no research at all on the effect of teacher attitudes toward reading on pupil attitudes and achievement.

While not developing an instrument which could be used to objectively measure change in pupils' attitudes toward reading, the present study was an initial step in determining what influence a reading tutor's attitude toward reading had on the pupils he/she tutored. The tutors taking part were enrolled in a second undergraduate reading methods course. Three areas were the points of emphasis in this course.

- (1) Student tutors were to help elementary pupils develop more positive self images.
- (2) Student tutors were to use easy interesting materials in working with elementary pupils.
- (3) Student tutors were to read to elementary pupils each day and to come to recognize that this activity is an important and essential component of any successful reading program.

Procedure and Subjects

During the first seven weeks of the semester the class met on campus for two 2-hour sessions each week. During the last six weeks of the semester the tutors went to an elementary school where they provided individual reading instruction for pupils who were experiencing difficulty in reading. Elementary pupils were recommended for the tutoring program by their regular classroom teachers. These teachers were advised of the type of instruction to be provided for their pupils. A total of twelve elementary pupils participated; three from grade 2, one from grade 3, two each from grades 4, 5, and 6, one from grade 7, and one from grade 8.

The format of the tutoring sessions was structured as follows:

- (1) Tutor read to pupil for 15 minutes.
- (2) Language experience approach or adaptation of it (i.e., wordless picture books were used to help children develop a story).
- (3) Assistance provided for reading in content areas (intermediate and upper grades).
- (4) Remaining time to be planned for by tutor.

One stipulation was made during first meetings on campus—no worksheets were to be used by any students and no textbooks were to be used with primary students.

To determine, albeit in a very subjective manner, whether there were any changes in the child's attitude toward reading, he/she was asked the following question by the tutor at the first and last tutoring sessions: How would you teach a younger child to read?

It was hypothesized that the pupil's final response would be influenced by his experiences with the tutor in the tutoring program. While it is true that the tutors had varying attitudes toward reading which could not be strictly controlled, the instructor of the reading methods course was present each day to see that tutors were working to achieve the three goals set forth during the on-campus class sessions. Lesson plans were also checked to help ensure that tutors followed the prescribed format.

Findings

A brief chart listing the goals of the tutoring program and children's inclusion of these goals in their recommended practices is listed:

Goals	Initial Response	Final Response
Use of easy, interesting material	3 children	5 children
Read to child	1 child	3 "
Help child build self-image	0 children	2 children

For the practice of using easy, interesting material, the three pupils who recommended this before receiving instruction from the tutors were in the 8th, 7th, and 4th grades. They held to this recommendation in their final response also. In addition, the other 4th grade pupil and a 5th grade pupil included this in their final responses.

Only one 4th grade pupil recommended reading to children in his initial response. He was joined by two additional pupils, one in 3rd grade and the other in 5th grade, at the final session.

None of the students initially indicated that a positive self-image was important, but a 2nd and 4th grader did in their final response.

Three areas specifically not emphasized by tutors did receive emphasis by children. These areas were:

- (1) sounding out,
- (2) use of pictures, and
- (3) word-for-word accuracy

Pupils in 6th, 4th, 3rd, and 2nd grades emphasized this first area initially. The 6th grade pupil dropped the recommendation in his final response, while a 5th grader added this practice.

Pictures were not mentioned in the first response by anyone. Pupils in 7th, 4th, and 2nd grades recommended this finally. That makes a total of four recommendations for this practice (two at 2nd grade level).

Word-for-word accuracy received initial stress by the 8th grade pupil and one of the 4th grade pupils. Only a 5th grade pupil included this as being important in his final response.

Discussion

Examination of individual pupil's responses in some detail provides a better understanding of that pupil's attitude toward reading.

A fifth grade boy stated initially that he would have his pupil study his workbook, do papers, read readers and get lots of 100's on papers. His final response to the question was that he would read to his pupil and have his pupil read orally. He was concerned that the pupil give an accurate reading with no mistakes. If mistakes were made, the pupil would be asked to read the passage over.

The final response of this child perhaps reflects the influence of the tutor to the extent that the boy would now spend some time reading to the younger child. He

still placed very heavy emphasis on word-for-word accuracy in oral reading. This was not true in the tutoring sessions as the main concern of the tutors was for the pupil to obtain meaning from what he read. Meaningful substitutions were accepted.

A fourth grade girl initially stated that she would give her pupil a very easy book and tell her to read. If she couldn't read, the tutor would read it for her so that she would get used to hearing the words and would be able to read them later. She would also write words the pupil did not know on flashcards and have her sound them out.

In her last reply she stated she would still ask the pupil to sound out words, but she would also try to help the child picture the story in her head. She believed an interesting story which might tell a life lesson like Charlotte's Web should be used. The child should keep trying until she learned and should believe in herself.

This girl placed emphasis on sounding out words in both her initial and final responses to the question. There was indication that she recognized the importance of using interesting materials in her final response. The last comment she made about just believing in oneself is an excellent one which all teachers would do well to remember, as well as being one of the major goals set for the tutors to achieve in their sessions.

A fourth grade boy would help the child to spell and pronounce words. He would also read him little stories and have him read books on his own. In his final response he indicated that he would teach SQ3R, ask questions about stories read, use books the pupil is interested in, point out the use of pictures in reading, and give candy if pupil is good.

An element of behaviorism is present in the final response pertaining to providing candy as reinforcement for good reading. This definitely was not a part of the tutoring sessions. This boy was the first to mention in his initial response to the question that he would read to the child. This could be a result of his experiences in his home or in his regular classroom. His comment that books of interest to the pupils should be used might be accounted for by the tutoring sessions.

The third grade child indicated in her first response that she would have her pupil sound out words by blending the first two letters together. She included sounding out words in her response to the second question, but she also would have him read a book every single day. This last recommendation could be a result of the influence of the tutor. Perhaps part of the reason she held to her recommendation of sounding words out is because this is

frequently a practice in regular reading classroom instruction.

A second grade boy would show the pupil words and tell him what they were. He would use an easy book. If the pupil made mistakes in reading, he would tell the pupil what the words were. In his final response he indicated he would talk with the child first and help him learn new words he wanted to know. He also stressed the importance of looking at pictures first, before reading a selection.

His emphasis changed from telling the child the right word to helping him learn new words he wanted to know. This centers on the child's interests which are important. He also pointed out the value of looking at pictures. His emphasis on using an easy book was made at the first session, so that response could not have been influenced by the tutor.

Conclusions

Because such a short time was spent in tutoring sessions (12 one-hour sessions over a six week period) it is impossible to say with firm conviction that these tutors helped their pupils develop a more positive attitude toward reading. It is encouraging to note, however, that five of the twelve pupils recognized the importance of using easy, interesting material at the end of the sessions as contrasted with three at the beginning. The importance of reading to the pupil was recognized by only one child at the beginning of the sessions, but this number had reached three by the final session. And, the importance of a positive self-image which was not recognized as a concept by any children before the sessions did receive recognition by two students in their final responses.

Recommendations for Future Research

It would seem worthwhile to continue investigation in this area. A more objective way of determining the teacher's attitude toward reading should be developed. The relationship between the teacher's attitude toward reading and the change in attitude of his pupil should be examined closely. This might make it possible for us to move a bit closer to an understanding of the importance of a teacher's attitude toward reading and his effectiveness as a teacher of reading.

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COBASAL READING ADOPTIONS PRESENT UNIQUE PROBLEMS

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The selection of basal reading materials reflects crucial decisions made periodically by most school districts in our country. Considering that approximately 20 million students are enrolled in public school grades 1-6 in the United States, it is not difficult to understand why the selection of basal materials receives such considerable attention. In this vast market the publishers of basal programs compete for high stakes, and the selection process is important to the adopting district from both an educational and economic perspective. Yet selection committees often undertake the decision-making process without adequately assessing all the ramifications of their choices. On the surface the task is to choose the "best" books, but to do this numerous issues must be considered. The publishers' presentations must be critically reviewed. Problems of ordering and warehousing materials must be solved. Pupil placement, instructional management, and pupil progress must also be examined in light of the materials chosen. These issues present problems in any adoption, but when more than one basal is adopted the problems are often compounded. The purpose of this article is to acquaint teachers, administrators, and parents with the unique problems to be dealt with when adopting two or more basal programs, and to suggest potential solutions to these problems.

Sales Presentations and the Selection Process

The foremost goal of any publishing company is to sell the books. Publishers of a basal program would prefer to be selected as a single adoption rather than as part of a co-adoption. The co-adoption is usually viewed positively by the publisher under only

two circumstances. The first is the situation in which its program will not be considered as a single adoption. This can be described from the publisher's standpoint as the "something is better than nothing" idea. The second occurs when one company publishes both of the series which are considered for coadoption. This situation could arise when Keytext (1977) and Keys to Reading (1975) from Economy Publishing Company are being considered. In situations other than these, the publisher's representative will try to present the comprehensive nature of his or her program. The major problem is that the presentation typically makes it difficult to determine how applicable the series will be in a coadoption instructional setting.

Suggestion one: If a coadoption is being considered, it should be made completely clear to the publisher's representatives prior to their presentations to the selection committee. They should be asked to address themselves specifically to their program's potential for such a use in their presentations.

Another concern with the selection process is the "compromise" theory of coadoption. This happens when the selection committee begins with the purpose of selecting one program, but later becomes deadlocked over the selection. At this point a conciliator may suggest "let's get both programs." This is not a wise basis on which to select the coadoption alternative. The fact that the committee cannot choose between Bookmark Reading Program from Harcourt Brace Jovanovich (1979) and the Basics in Reading Program from Scott, Foresman (1978) or between Series r from Macmillan (1975) and Reading Basics from Harper and Row (1976) is not justification for choosing both.

Suggestion two: Decide early in the selection process whether or not cobasal adoption is a viable option. Make the decision on firm instructional grounds considering the needs of the students to be taught. If coadoption is not educationally justifiable at that point, don't compromise values later.

Ordering

Knowing how many of each of the components of a basal program to order is always a problem. Determining how many students in the district will work in any given level of a series can only be estimated prior to the initiation of instruction. Even if the district has done adequate pre-ordering assessment, some changes in students' abilities from pre-ordering

level to actual reading level when instruction begins will be inevitable. Because materials are generally ordered in the spring for use in the fall, any pre-ordering assessment must be done in winter or early spring of the year prior to the beginning of instruction with the new program(s). This time lag increases the ordering problem because changes in students' abilities increase as the time span between assessment and instruction increases. This ordering problem is compounded in the cobasal adoption, because a change in student reading level may reflect a change from one reading series to another. Thus, in a single basal adoption students may need to be changed between levels --but in a cobasal adoption students may need to be changed between levels or between series.

Suggestion two: Order 10% to 15% more instructional materials and 15% to 20% more teachers' manuals than the anticipated necessary number based upon preassessment. Roughly 2/3 of these extra materials should be stockpiled in the buildings and 1/3 held in reserve at a central storage point. This amount of extra material usually is enough to accommodate changes between levels within a series and changes between series.

The ordering problem in cobasal adoption are not limited to how much to order. Problems also arise over what to order. Although the term cobasal generally implies that the basic readers, workbooks, and manuals from both series will be purchased, there are numerous points in a reading program at which a district will not purchase matching components from both programs. As an example, many districts using two basals in a tracking approach often purchase only one readiness program. If a district is using Pathfinder from Allyn and Bacon (1978) and Houghton-Mifflin Basal Reading Series (1979) it may choose to use only Reading Steps and Ready to Read from Houghton-Mifflin as the core readiness program. This calls into question the readiness level of the students who will begin instruction in the Pathfinder series. On the other hand, if the district elects to purchase both Houghton-Mifflin's program and Moving Days and Summer Fun from Allyn and Bacon as readiness programs, they are confronted with tracking students even prior to their receiving readiness instruction. The readiness program is one example of the selection of components problem which will surface later in the discussion of placement, advancement, and skill management.

Suggestion four: Try to identify points in the program where components will be selected on an either/or basis. Then assess the merits of the components of each program in light of their

usefulness to the other program. Also consider the possibilities of using some supplementary components which are not parts of either program but are generalizable to both.

Placement

One method of placing students into appropriate levels of a basal program incorporates the use of results from standardized tests, informal reading inventories, or word list assessments which are not directly related to the series. While this method has benefits, the generalizability of these results for placement into a specific reading series may be questioned. Another common placement method involves the use of placement tests which are optional components of almost all reading series. This approach overcomes the problem of generalizability because tests are designed specifically for placement into the series used for instruction. Although it is quite acceptable in a single basal adoption, it creates another problem in the cobasal adoption. For example, if the Basic Reading System (1977) from Hold and Reading 720: Rainbow Edition (1979) from Ginn are coadopted --should the Holt Placement Test be used for both series; or should the Initial Placement Tests from Ginn be used for both series?

On the surface the simple answer may be, "use both tests." However, this solution is confounded by the issue of which students will be placed in which series. Essentially the question is where to draw the line between students entering one series and students entering the other series. Thus, we have two problems, one of placements between series and the other of placements within series.

Suggestion five: Tackle placement problems one at a time. First, consider the reasons for adopting two programs, and let the same rationale guide the drawing of the line for between series placement. Once this rationale has been developed use an assessment device which is generalizable to both series. Teacher judgment, aided by informal assessment in questionable cases, may be effective for this between series placement decision. When the initial between series placement has been made, use the placement tests which are components of the respective programs for within series placements. Most of all be flexible. If student response to instruction prove the assessments to be incorrect, move the students accordingly either within a series or between series.

Management of Skill Instruction

This aspect of the cobasal adoption is perhaps the most difficult of all. Numerous problems in skill instruction will be encountered. The skill sequences of the two series are likely to differ to some degree. If a teacher forms ad hoc groups for skill instruction, this sequencing difference can be troublesome. Students reading in different series may receive direct instruction on a specific skill together, but when they return to their independent reinforcement materials, there may be no activities available. The instructional approach also may differ significantly from one program to another. Some programs specify preassessment on skills, others have optional preassessments, still others defer any assessment until after instruction. Some basals place greater emphasis on coordination between skill development and literary selections than do others.

The many problems with skill management have led districts making coadoptions to a myriad of solutions. Some of the more prevalent solutions include: adhering closely to the sequence, approach, as well as materials, in each series--combining the various skill management components of the two series into a single unified approach; and selecting or creating a supplemental skill management system which is independent of either series.

Suggestion six: Initially, try to follow the manuals of the respective series as closely as possible. There are enough other problems to deal with in a cobasal adoption without further clouding the skill management issue. This is particularly true if both programs are new to the district, or if teachers are not experienced. Teachers need a period of trial before they are ready to select or develop a supplemental skill management system. These modifications can be made later.

Suggestion seven: Use the consultant services provided by the publishing companies to solve skill management problems. The competition between the companies is at least temporarily over once the selection has been made, and the consultants can often work together effectively to solve problems.

Advancement

The problems in pupil advancement or progress in a reading series are similar to the problems of pupil placement. They center around movement within

a series and movement between series. The advancement problems within a series are no different in a cobasal from problems in a single basal adoption. The judgment relating to when a pupil has adequately mastered one leveled text and is ready to move to the next must be made in either case. However, the problems of advancement between series are unique to the cobasal adoption.

One problem of advancement from one series to another is essentially the age-old problem of any tracking system, "once a bluebird always a bluebird." If a child initially meets the criteria for the lower track and is placed into the appropriate series, he or she often is continued in that track. Even when students experience rapid growth in reading ability they sometimes remain lock-stepped into the initial series. These students may reach the point where they are ready to move from one series to the other, but the move may not actually take place.

Suggestion eight: Never lose sight of the original rationale for selecting a cobasal adoption, nor the original criterion for placement into the respective series. Be sensitive to changes in students' performance, and when students meet the criterion for advancement—move them. Finally, be flexible enough to switch when the criterion is reached, but not before. It can be very discouraging to be "moved back" after a brief flirtation with advancement.

Another problem associated with between series advancement is the adjustment of the student to be made to the new program. This problem is related to the degree of difference between the "new" and "old" series and to the dynamics of the group to which the student moves. The student will be encountering new readers, workbooks, tests, instructional lessons, etc. Some students may make changes easily, but to some students any change in routine can be difficult. There is also a status change for the student to be considered. The student who is advancing is doubtless moving from being one of the more able readers to a group in which he or she will probably among the least able. Remember that the student making the change is the "new" member of the group.

Suggestion nine: Don't neglect the affective needs of students because of the mechanistic aspects of advancement between series. Schedule an orientation session to acquaint the student with the new program. Designate a partner from the student's new group to help him or her make the transition. Strive to create an environment

where instructional changes are a regular part of the learning process and not a once-in-a-life-time event.

Conclusion

The problems discussed here are not an exhaustive list of those which may be encountered. The issues of inventory control, teacher inservice, and consumable materials are just a few of those not mentioned. Remember that these problems do not exist in isolation, rather they interact with each other to produce many unique sets of problems. The suggestions made are not fail-safe, but they are suggestions which have been effective in stimulating discussion and creating solutions in many school systems. The message here should not be interpreted as an indictment of cobasal adoptions, but it should be interpreted as an advance warning of some of the pitfalls.

Final suggestion: Anyone who teaches encounters problems. Often the better job of teaching that is done, the more problems that are encountered. If the selection committee of a school district has chosen a cobasal adoption for sound education reasons, then teachers must roll up their sleeves and make the programs work. No program has anywhere near the effect on students that teachers do. If the teachers believe in the programs they will work.

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FLEXIBILITY: A KEY ELEMENT FOR READING AND STUDY SKILLS SPECIALISTS

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The term flexibility is difficult to define. A person's definition of flexibility, like many other concepts, depends on a particular orientation or perspective of the world. If flexibility means adapting to change, then most people are flexible in some way. Through science we have developed technology, and our technology forces us to be flexible. About 97% of all the scientists who have ever lived are alive now, and they produce many changes (Toynbee, 1971). Our knowledge of the world is expanding at an incredible speed. Fourteen years ago George Arnstein said our scientific knowledge doubles approximately every eight years (Arnstein, 1966). Today knowledge is sought at accelerated rates through structured, complex, interrelated systems.

Educators should understand and respect the need for a flexible approach in many areas. "Tolstoy's observation, in the opening lines of Anna Karenina, that all the happy families are alike and all unhappy families different, seems no less true of species. Those which survive share a common trait: they are able to adapt to changing circumstances" (Callahan, 1973, p. 86).

In the classroom it is important for teachers and students to adapt to each other. Teachers need to understand that they have the responsibility to facilitate this process. Some time ago R. D. Laing said, "A child born today in the United Kingdom stands a ten times greater chance of being admitted to a mental hospital than to a university, and about one fifth of mental hospital admissions are diagnosed schizophrenic. This can be taken as an indication that we are driving our children mad more effectively than we are genuinely educating them. Perhaps it is our way of educating them that is driving them mad" (Laing, 1967, p. 104). Laing may have taken liberties

with formal logic, but his message has implications for teachers. We have considerable influence, and we need to be able to adapt to student needs.

It is important to foster traits that promote a range of ability. Most teachers have to be quite flexible in order to keep their students' interest and at the same time transmit knowledge. Within higher education, professors must be involved in research, information, character building, and numerous administrative chores. A good researcher embraces qualities such as boldness, originality, incisiveness, and common sense. The ability to transmit knowledge is needed to fulfill the informational function. As more pressure of an administrative nature arises, the character-development function may well be neglected.

In the early 1960s Robert Knapp prophetically identified certain trends in our system of higher education:

1. Character building more passive with emphasis now on the good example;
2. Rise in professional societies and identification, producing conflict of loyalty and division within disciplines;
3. Rise in academic freedom, starting in 1915 with the Committee on Academic Freedom and Tenure;
4. Importance of research and publication as the marks of professional success and as the avenue to promotion and advancement;
5. Ph.D. as the union card to teach and a growing bureaucratization of college teaching;
6. Decline in the professor's influence in the management of institutional affairs;
7. Fewer Ph.D. programs developing teacher skills, and decline in enthusiasm to teach (Knapp, 1962).

Reading and study skills teachers must be involved to some degree in research and character building as well as the mechanics of teaching corrective or developmental reading. The business of transmitting knowledge on the remedial level is a major concern. This is a complex and difficult job, because students usually do not understand their obligations to the educational process. Remedial students need patience and considerable help from accepting teachers.

Every teacher must be flexible in addition to being knowledgeable in their content area. It is also necessary for educators to instruct their students to be flexible. Gibson and Levin (1975), in a most

comprehensive and scholarly work on the psychology of reading, argue throughout their volume that flexibility of reading style is of the greatest importance. They contend that the reader's purpose, the author's intention, and the style of the text are factors to be adjusted to. Furthermore, they point to the fact that many educators have emphasized that variability in rate is not the cause of flexibility in reading styles, but a result of mature reading skill. The mature person is relatively flexible like the mature reader or the mature teacher.

Terry Johnson (1973) explains that the goal in reading is not speed but flexibility and selectivity. Johnson said:

In recent years there has been a flurry of interest in "speed" or "quick" reading. This interest has been primarily at the secondary and adult level, but suggestions for its use have trickled into the junior school. A desire for greater speed of reading can lead to a great deal of misapplied effort. It is as nonsensical to claim a reading speed of 900 words per minute as it is to claim a running speed of 15 m.p.h. I can run at 6 m.p.h. I can also run at 15 m.p.h., but not for very long. The speed at which I run depends on what I want to do. If I have lost my watch I am going to go very slowly and retrace my steps if I feel it is necessary. A similar situation applies in reading. If I wish to decide whether a textbook on reading instruction is worth reading I will skim through it at a rate which is equivalent to about 2000 words per minute. If I wish to read a legal document concerning the sale of my house I will read it at about 50 words per minute and read and re-read certain sections silently and aloud until I am certain of the intent of the agreement (Johnson, 1973, p. 135).

Since the 1920s notable progress has been made in the identification, diagnosis, treatment, and appraisal of reading disabilities; yet many instructional problems remain. In the general area of study skills considerable efforts have been made to channel high-risk students into programs that will enable them to succeed in higher education. Many of these programs have been developed in two-year colleges within the last 15 to 20 years. Although there are numerous programs in operation, it is often difficult to get a consensus regarding the approach that needs to be taken. Reading, as an example, is a difficult skill to master. There are many theoretical approaches regarding the reading process, and these notions are not easy to comprehend.

Our scientific attempts to organize knowledge provide us with definitions that may confuse and make

matters more complicated. Reading has been defined as a processing skill of symbolic reasoning sustained by the inter-facilitation of an intricate hierarchy of substrata factors that have been mobilized as a psychological working system and pressed into service in accordance with the purpose of the reader (Barzun, 1964). This definition may be quite difficult to understand and even more difficult to explain.

Within the study of reading behavior we have such terms as comprehension, a complex process that is not completely understood, but is generally accepted to be the outcome of a number of component skills. It is thought that these component skills (such as automatic word recognition, vocabulary knowledge, prior word knowledge, and organizational skills) should be taught to improve comprehension. It has also been suggested that these component skills be taught concurrently, not sequentially (Jund, 1978). There are varied approaches within the delivery area. Methodology may be a factor that is related to individual style or personality of teacher and student.

To illustrate a flexible approach to the general area of reading and study skills in higher education, the research of Martha Maxwell must be explained. Early in the 1960s Maxwell accomplished some research with a pre-college summer program at the University of Maryland. This research gives emphasis to the term flexibility when applying remedial strategies. In the summer of 1961 a program was designed to enable low-achieving applicants to test their ability to perform college work. Students whose high school averages were below C and who scored in the bottom 30% of University of Maryland freshman norms (American Council of Education Psychological Test, Cooperative English or Cooperative Algebra) were required to attend a special six-week, pre-college, summer session in order to qualify for continued enrollment. This program was designed to maximize the student's chances for academic success. All students were required to enroll in freshman English and to elect either mathematics, sociology, or American government. Academic success was defined as passing both courses and achieving at least a grade of C in one of them. A battery of reading and study skills tests were administered at the beginning and end of the summer session. An individual program was prepared for each student indicating a starting level and the sequence of activities to follow in order to improve upon their weakest area. All students were required to attend the first reading and study skills laboratory; however, subsequent attendance was voluntary. If the student chose to attend the reading and study skills laboratory, he or she

was required to work on his or her weakest area for one week, after which the person could work with any of the skills or materials. Three hundred fifty-six students registered for the program and 176 attained grades enabling them to continue.

Maxwell (1963) found the academically successful students made significantly higher initial scores than the failing students on reading rate, vocabulary, and comprehension tests. Both groups (failing and passing) showed significant improvement in vocabulary and study skills habits and attitudes. Student reaction to the program was highly favorable as revealed by a questionnaire administered with the post-tests. The successful students were found to be more flexible in their use of the laboratory materials and worked on more varied skills than did the failing students.

Some professionals might criticize this approach by Maxwell as being too flexible--implying that all under-prepared students should be forced to participate in all aspects of the program. This is a major problem. If students accept the fact that they need help and are willing to attend remedial classes and work, the instructor's job may be somewhat mechanical. This does not usually happen.

Dealing with students who do not understand their problem(s) requires patience and flexibility when attempting to use acquired knowledge. Imposing structure is challenging for all concerned. "Every animal species inhabits a homemade universe, hollowed out of the real world by means of its organs of perception and its intellectual faculties" (Huxley, 1937, p. 295). Reading and study skills teachers are attempting to re-structure the "real world" for their students. This is a difficult task.

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DIAGNOSTIC PERFORMANCE-BASED ASSESSMENT: A TOOL FOR THE KINDERGARTEN AND PRIMARY GRADE TEACHER

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Most elementary educators agree that assessment is a necessary preparation for instructional planning. Teachers can use one of several standardized instruments or an informal reading inventory to assess the abilities of their reading students. A problem occurs for the teacher of non-readers or the teacher of beginning readers. These students cannot be assessed with instruments requiring reading ability. They need to be evaluated with instruments that sample their ability to perform with psycho-motor, auditory, oral, and visual skill areas. These areas are the foundation of beginning reading instruction and should be measured and evaluated prior to instructional planning for each kindergarten and primary school child.

One possibility for teachers of this level is the use of a teacher-made, performance-based assessment kit. The teacher can zero in on the skills that are vital to beginning reading instruction. By selecting the skills and planning for the measurement and evaluation of them, the teacher will be able to tailor the instructional program effectively, basing it on the outcomes of each assessment. The teacher then adds the techniques of performance measurement and observation. Periodic observations following the initial pre-assessment can provide a continuous check on the student's development and an opportunity to modify instruction as indicated.

Description of Kit

Criteria for a performance-based assessment kit:

1. A grouping of pre-literacy (Powell et al 1976) or reading readiness skills should be selected from a reliable source. These skills can come

from state or county curriculum guides or current reading textbooks. Attention should be given to skills from the psycho-motor, auditory, oral, and visual domains.

2. A minimum number of performance skill items should be matched to each skill selected. The performance skill items must be based on sound criteria.

3. An assessment checklist should be developed which lists each performance skill to be observed and evaluated. There should be enough copies of the checklist to assess each child in a class.

4. A place should be designated on the checklist to note how many times out of a given number of tries the student was able to perform the skill, to allow for notes taken during observation and to record future observations.

5. Detailed instructions on the criteria for passing or failing each performance skill should be noted in written form.

6. Folders or envelopes containing the necessary materials and/or information to measure each performance skill should be well organized and sequenced to follow the checklist.

Application in the Classroom

Once the performance-based assessment kit is developed, the teacher can organize the instructional materials he or she has available and the teaching strategies to provide practice. In this way, one can individualize the program to meet each beginner's needs while fitting one's own instructional resources.

The organization of these materials and strategies could also help the teacher identify materials needed for purchase from the classroom budget. A group of primary teachers using the same assessment kit might pool their existing materials and budgeted monies to purchase materials that complement the performance skills of the kit.

Application for Pre-Service Education

The development of a performance-based assessment kit can be a valuable pre-service activity for early childhood and elementary education majors. Students would need to study various reading readiness skills lists to develop a skills inventory for their kit. They should be able to justify and defend their skills inventory. Once developed, thought would have to be given as to how to assess these skills. Suitable materials would need to be gathered or developed for use with the kit.

It would be necessary to devote attention to techniques of measurement and observation, organization and evaluation. Preservice teachers could be assigned the task of organizing a simulated pre-reading program of instruction for students based on their findings of their performance-based assessment kit. The development of this kit would be a teaching tool in preservice education that could later be useful and directly applicable to the student's teaching assignment.

Example of Checklist for Assessment Kit

A checklist from an actual performance-based assessment kit has been included to illustrate how such a kit could be organized.

Performance-based Assessment Checklist

SKILL	YES	NO	NOTES
Left or right hand orientation?			
1. Vocabulary development			
2. Put puzzle together			
3. Recognizing differences:			
a. visual			
b. auditory			
4. Recognizing similarities:			
a. visual			
5. Association among objects			
6. Knows colors			
7. Can match colors			
8. Drawing a person			
9. Can name body parts			
10. Body perception			

SKILL	YES	NO	NOTES
11. Can imitate body movements			
12. Can follow directions--Auditory			
13. Knows personal information			
14. Recognizes his/her first name			
15. Gross motor coordination a. throwing a bean bag			
b. catching a bean bag			
c. walk on tape			
d. hop up and down in a circle			
16. Cuts with scissors on a line			
17. Can trace pattern with finger			
18. Can tell a story			
19. Can match shapes			
20. Bead Stringing			
21. Rote Counting			
a. one to five			
b. one to ten			
c. more than 10			
22. Recognizes numbers			
23. Recognizes letters			
24. Match letters			
25. Stays with task until complete			

DIRECT INSTRUCTION VERSUS INCIDENTAL LEARNING OF READING VOCABULARY

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Advice to teachers that the direct teaching of reading vocabulary to children is an inferior procedure for gaining this linguistic goal is still circulating. It is easy to find recent statements from reading authorities that are intended to substantiate the belief that extensive reading will develop children's vocabulary better than direct instruction. For example, Smith (1978) maintains "The best way to acquire a large and useful vocabulary for reading is by meaningful reading" (p. 168). Johnson and Pearson (1978) would not apply this rule at the very beginning stage of reading instruction, but would put it into force quite early in the reading program. They note that "once children have acquired some basic proficiency in reading, that proficiency develops with practice, practice in reading, not in doing work sheets" (p.178).

Other reading experts disagree. Dale and O'Rourke (1971) protest that there must be "an organized, systematic way (provided) to improve their vocabulary" (p. 2). The defenders of direct instruction in reading vocabulary emphasize the idea that "without (such) a plan, their vocabulary grows sporadically at best" (p. 2). Weintraub (1968) concurs, saying "directed vocabulary instruction utilizing numerous useful techniques appears to be the most promising approach."

Because of the sharp dissent among reading experts over this issue, it is not easy to decide if children develop their reading vocabularies best through wide reading or from the direct teaching of words. The sharp division of views over this topic leave one in a quandary. Is it wise to assume that vocabularies will develop satisfactorily as a result of extensive reading? In practical terms, should teachers eliminate

the formal teaching of reading vocabulary, such as that now carried on in basal reading lessons? It is clear that answers to these elemental and critical questions cannot be determined from a study of the opinions of the experts in this field.

The resolution of these basic questions must come from a more objective source of information; therefore, we must inquire as to what the research on reading vocabulary development says about this matter. Although there has not been a great deal of research on this fundamental question, empirical evidence that is now available does suggest that there is a preferred method of teaching reading vocabulary.

Research Favoring Direct Teaching

There have been empirical studies from the 1930's to the present whose findings indicate that the direct teaching of reading vocabulary is a superior manner in which to develop this knowledge with children. Holmes (1934) and Gray and Holmes (1938) found that the direct method is significantly more effective in this respect than are incidental procedures like independent reading. This finding is duplicated in the study by Bedell and Nelson (1954) and in that by Eichholz and Barbe (1961). Vanderline (1964) discovered that children who made a direct study of mathematics vocabulary achieved significantly higher scores on a math problem solving test than did children not given such direct instruction.

In addition, the research offers clues as to what kind of direct instruction in reading vocabulary is the most effective. Clifford (1976), Sinatra (1977), and Gipe (1980) found that a sentence context method is the superior type of direct instruction for reading vocabulary development. These findings appear more impressive than those of Hafner (1965) who reported that the sentence context method has no significant advantages in teaching reading vocabulary. It is fair to say that the quality of the design of Hafner's study does not match that of Clifford or Gipe.

Research Favoring Extensive Reading

Extensive reading does not appear to have empirical evidence to support it in the comparison of methods for building reading vocabularies. The research that has been conducted so far appears to contradict the notion that the best way for children to acquire a reading vocabulary is through their wide reading.

Conclusions

The sharp disagreement among reading experts

today as to the relative effectiveness of teaching reading vocabulary directly to children versus their learning these words through extensive reading has been described. It has been demonstrated, however, that the research on this issue suggests that direct instruction in reading vocabulary (especially if this is done with sentence contexts) is likely to result in greater reading vocabulary growth in children than is possible through extensive reading.

This conclusion challenges a fundamental tenet of the psycholinguistic approach to reading instruction. This principle is: "All the teacher can do (for the pupil) is provide the raw material, the written word and its 'name'" (Smith, 1971, p. 225). The research evidence cited in this discussion contradicts this precept. To the reverse, it notes that the teacher in fact can profitably do much more, to teach reading vocabulary, than merely present words to children while assuming that they will develop, on their own, a satisfactory knowledge of words.

It is recommended, therefore, that teachers continue to teach reading vocabulary to their pupils in a direct and systematic fashion throughout the grades of the elementary school. In short, there is no evidence at present that confirms the notion that once children have acquired some unspecified basic proficiency in reading that the direct teaching of vocabulary can be properly discontinued in favor of extensive reading by pupils.

This recommendation is not meant to imply that extensive reading by children has no appreciable effect on the development of their reading vocabularies. It does insist, however, that unless children through the grades receive direct instruction in reading vocabulary that their growth in this word knowledge will be handicapped. In 1940 Seegers was right in concluding that "little of concrete value has been presented" as to "how one can best develop the vocabularies of children" (p. 30). There have been surprisingly few studies made of this critical issue since that time. However, the uniformity of the findings of the studies that have been made does suggest that a recommendation for the direct teaching of reading vocabulary is justified. As Petty, Herold and Stoll (1968) state, "it is possible to note accumulating evidence to dispel the widely held notion that having students 'read, read, read' is a satisfactory method for teaching vocabulary."

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IMPLICATIONS OF PIAGETIAN THEORY FOR CORRELATING ART AND READING

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Piaget tells us that we know something to the extent that we act on it. Because art facilitates the right kinds of action for knowing, or learning, correlating art and reading may well be the vehicle to growth in and enjoyment of communication skills. Therefore, art not only contributes to reading development but also contributes to both the cognitive and the affective development needed for success in all academic areas.

In addition to the tangible aspects of art there is also an aesthetic dimension. Fortunately, people are imbued with the potential to create art and to appreciate the artistry of their surroundings. We will show how this potential may be nurtured and in so doing illustrate how the following principles can be realized in practice:

1. Art provides children of a broad range of abilities opportunities to participate meaningfully and happily in communication experiences
2. Art provides an excellent vehicle for the exercise and development of interrelated adaptive processes--assimilation (play or using existing abilities) and accommodation (work or developing new abilities). In this way balanced development results.
3. Art provides children with interrelated physical, mental, and social environment necessary for the development of a variety of important concepts needed for reading and other academic areas.
4. Art activities provide a context in which

a child may be aided in decentering psychologically and perceptually. In decentering psychologically, the child learns to take other people into consideration. In decentering perceptually s/he looks at several aspects of a configuration such as a letter or a printed word in order to differentiate it from similar-appearing letters or words.

From Principles to Practice

In our work of correlating art and reading in the schools, we have developed a number of activities based on the above principles. When trying these activities with children, one experiences the satisfaction of knowing that what is being done is rooted in good theory. Also, one enjoys these activities and begins to see children developing in many ways.

Learning and Using Letters.

Learning to recognize and reproduce letters of the alphabet is an important part of most beginning reading programs. Regardless of the methods or combinations of approaches used, there always seem to be letters that are difficult to master. Teachers often scratch their heads, pondering the effort to find "the" activity that clicks.

Eating Through the Alphabet

Make cookies in the form of letters and allow the child to internalize each letter s/he has mastered. A child may also wish to take letters home to be eaten and enjoyed by those who may also have been helping in letter mastery. You will need the following:

- 1 recipe of chilled refrigerator cookie dough or sugar cookie dough (homemade or purchased--refrigerator dough is stiffer)
- 1 3x5 unlined index card for each difficult letter to be studied (each letter previously printed clear and large with a magic marker)
- waxed paper (10 sheets in 18" lengths)
- cooking oil
- oven
- spatula
- cookie tin

Prepare activity table: Tape index card (on which target letter has been previously printed) on table. Cover index card with a sheet of waxed paper. (Target letter on index card will show through waxed paper). Place small amount of cookie dough in upper corner of waxed paper.

Procedure: Place small amount of cooking oil on each child's hands and instruct child to rub together (palms only). Roll cookie dough into snakes. Form letters on waxed paper using the see-through letter guide. Remove formed letters with spatula, place on cookie tin and bake. While baking first batch, repeat the

activity. However, remove the taped index card from beneath waxed paper and place at top of waxed paper. Ask children to make second cookie without the use of the pattern under the waxed paper.

Variations: If cookies are not to be eaten, paint and glaze as desired. The same activity can be done using Kitchen Klay. Make scatter pins, necklaces, or manipulative play letters with Kitchen Klay or cookie dough.

"I Can Read and Spell My Name!" Children are so proud when they can utter these words. And parents are quite happy to hear them because they mean the child has achieved some key developmental tasks. That is fine; but our concern should always be to find the best methods to attain these goals.

For example, teachers overwork the use of name puzzles for teaching written and oral spelling of children's names. And, of course, laborious copying methods are not very meaningful. There are easier ways for learning name mastery. Why not use a correlated art and reading approach?

Making Name Bracelets. For this activity one needs these materials for each ten children:

- "Kitchen Klay", see recipe below
- Milk straws, cut into 1" lengths (60-100)
- Waxed paper (10 sheets cut into 18" lengths)
- Ball of string or yarn
- A sentence strip or index card with each child's first or last name printed in large plain letters
- A sharpened primary pencil

Recipe for "Kitchen Klay"	1 cup <u>plain</u> flour
	1 cup salt
	1 cup water

Put one cup of flour and one cup of salt into a bowl. Mix with a large spoon. Add one cup of water to mixture and stir. Place mixture in the top of a double boiler and cook until firm. Remove from pan to a cutting board or waxed paper and knead gently. Keep "Kitchen Klay" in a covered container until ready to use. (A coffee can with a plastic top makes an excellent container.) If mixture becomes too hard, add a little water and knead. If mixture becomes too soft, sprinkle a little cornstarch over the mixture and knead. This material hardens and turns white as it dries. To hasten drying, place finished products in a warm oven for two or three hours.

Prepare activity table: Tape each child's name to the table. Below each name, place a sheet of waxed paper. Place a small amount of "Kitchen Klay" on each piece of waxed paper. Seat the children.

Procedure: Ask each child to first count the number of letters in his or her name. Then ask each child to make that number of small clay balls. (Demonstrate) Next, instruct each child to place a clay ball between the thumb and forefinger, squeezing gently. (Demonstrate) Lay each clay ball on one of its flat sides until all balls are finished. With help, place a piece of straw lengthwise through each clay ball. (Demonstrate)

Aided or unaided, allowing for ability, have each child (using a primary pencil) engrave the letters of his name, one letter per ball, on a flat side of each ball. Let dry. Thread balls to make name bracelet. Allow children to take their name bracelets home upon name mastery. Paint if desired.

Learning and Using Words

Stamp collaging. Did you know that those gorgeous stamps that some people are tempted to discard can be utilized by creative little hands? Those big beautiful stamps that are coming out, especially in the nature series, can actually be used by children of all ages in activities ranging from stamp collaging to stamp collecting.

What can stamp collaging do for the pre-school child? We'll show you what Drew (age 5) has been doing and you will be able to see how stamp collaging helped further develop his perceptual and language skills.

An innovative teacher, having received nature stamps in the mail, decided to share with Drew the beautiful animal pictures on the stamps. She had recalled from a previous conversation with him that he knew something about animals indigenous to Florida. For example, upon seeing the numerous pictures, he readily identified the alligator picture and deduced that the word under it must be "alligator." She told him it was. He asked if he could take the stamps home. Hours later he brought back a treasure for her to see. It was an unusually interesting collage. He had carefully selected those animals that he had in his "bank"--ones that he now knew! Drew himself had licked the stamps and placed them to form a special design.

Through observing and manipulating the medium, he had dealt with shapes, sizes, and colors. A bonus was that he had discovered the idea of symbol-sound relationship. A further advantage was that he was engaging in the kind of near point visual activity used in reading.

Stamp collaging also afforded Drew the opportunity to talk to his parents, the teacher, and a friend about what he was doing. And, as he developed language

expression, he further expanded his social horizons.

Learning to Comprehend and Create

Storytelling with Puppets. An extremely important facet of the language arts that supports reading comprehension is listening comprehension. However, many children come to the learning environment with little or no ability to listen attentively and carefully over a period of time. How do we get their attention?

As most of us know, the more action and dramatic effect utilized in storytelling the more interested the audience. Action and dramatic effect in stories can be heightened through the use of puppets--especially the glove puppet which allows for the interchange of characters.

For example, in telling the story of "The Three Little Pigs," one uses a hand glove puppet to visually captivate the listeners. Each of the characters is represented by an attachable cotton pom pom head. Each head is attached to a finger on the glove with velcro. But there is more to this activity than listening. Note how other facets of the language arts are developed as this activity is expanded. No sooner is one finished telling the story than the children want the magic glove themselves! It's not long before they are retelling the story. Do they get bored? No, because after a while they begin embellishing the story. As children retell stories and as new stories are introduced, concepts and associated vocabulary are further developed and syntax is expanded.

How can reading be developed from these kinds of activities? As children are ready, one can ask questions such as, "What can you tell me about the wolf?" Most children will give specifics--long ears, big teeth, mean eyes, hairy. A few children will make inferences about the wolf's character. These phrases are written down and then read. Before long these words and phrases are combined into sentences, and sentences into paragraphs. It is obvious that through these art-based activities many important reading readiness and reading skills are being developed.

Wheeling for Comprehension

An excellent hands-on activity which further incorporates art and reading, and extends the work we do with storytelling and puppets, is the comprehension wheel or pie. For example, in dealing further with the story of "The Three Little Pigs," we can use a comprehension pie which contains inner and outer wheels. The pieces of the inner wheel might be the big bad wolf, the three little pigs, and the houses made of straw, sticks, and brick. By pointing to the appropriate pictures on this inner wheel, children

can answer questions about details, main idea, sequence and other aspects of comprehension. By manipulating the outer wheel, which contains words representing the pictures, the children can match words with corresponding pictures.

Since art activities are so meaningful and pleasurable, isn't it fortunate that they can be a vehicle for the kinds of cognitive, language, and affective development needed to make children better readers? In this article we have noted principles rooted in Piagetian theory, for correlating art and reading instruction and explained a number of useful activities in art that explicate these principles, as an example of theory into practice.

AN ATTITUDE SURVEY OF UNINTERRUPTED SUSTAINED SILENT READING

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Uninterrupted Sustained Silent Reading, more usually referred to as U.S.S.R., was introduced by Lyman J. Hunt of the University of Vermont in the early sixties. Since that time reports indicate that many elementary and secondary schools in the United States and Canada have installed USSR into their timetables (Jones,1978; Mork,1972; Petre, 1971). There is an abundance of literature describing in general terms this program of silent reading of a self-selected book (Allington,1975; Carner,1969; Ganz & Theofield,1974; McCracken,1971; Noland,1976; Oliver,1970). More recently authors have suggested detailed methods of organizing a classroom in order to maintain a USSR program (Gambrell,1978; McCracken & McCracken,1978). The focus of these recent articles is on the specifics of application rather than on the generalities of organization. In addition, some empirical research has been carried out on the effects of this kind of program (Evans and Towner,1975; Harvey, 1974; Mikulecky and Wolf,1977; Oliver,1976). There appears to be little doubt that both researchers and classroom teachers have more than just a passing interest in USSR.

Why an Attitude Survey?

The USSR Attitude Survey presented here evolved from active participation in a USSR program, discussion with teachers and students who have had experience with the program and extensive reading on the topic. Almost everyone who has participated in USSR has been pleased with the program. Increased interest in reading, increased awareness of a variety of books, increased feelings of community within a classroom, and increased awareness of the reading program have all been reported.

Most people who use this reading method in their classrooms have their own way of organizing the actual practice. It is these variations that need to be investigated in order to find the actual or potential weaknesses of the program. For example, in one classroom a teacher may use this quiet time to mark workbooks, to conduct interviews, or to leave the room in order to run off a

stencil, make a phone call, or to simply take a 15 minute break. In this instance the teacher is not acting as a model. A teacher moving about could be a cause of interference with the reading program. Teacher modelling is very important to the success of USSR (McCracken and McCracken, 1978).

Another variation besides the absence of teacher modelling could be in book selection. Provisions are not always made for the students who forget their books and these absent-minded people are expected to sit quietly while the others read. Or students that were able to find one interesting book at the start of the program are unable to find a second or third good book after the first one is completed. The importance of providing interesting reading material must be taken very seriously. Many students need a lot of assistance in finding good books. Periodic library visits or even a classroom collection of assorted titles can help introduce students to literary selections.

Another problem often contributing to difficulty in the program is classroom and hall disruptions. Using the Attitude Survey the teacher can identify these problems early and make the necessary adjustments. For example, it may be necessary to cut short the USSR program for a couple of days in order to make the class aware that the teacher is firm about providing an uninterrupted quiet atmosphere.

Sometimes, because of student restlessness or misbehavior, teachers have unfortunately chosen to discontinue their USSR programs. One of the purposes of this attitude survey is to provide these teachers with information on student feelings, which can then be used to remedy weaknesses and promote the continuation of USSR.

In some school districts the decision to adopt a program of USSR depends on analysis of test results. In such circumstances, however, is allowance being made for the possibility that the program is interpreted differently in individual classrooms? Because of the high degree of variation from classroom to classroom with regard to such factors as the availability of books, the quietness of the environment and the role of the teacher, it is suggested that the results of statistical testing are of limited value. Thus, another purpose of the Attitude Survey is to allow each teacher to evaluate the program's worth for her own group of students. If more evaluative information is required, statistical measures can be taken after the program has been refined and improved on the basis of the information gleaned from the Survey. Hence it would be appropriate to give this Survey in order to iron out the kinks in the program before embarking on extensive empirical data taking.

What It Is and How To Use It

The USSR Attitude Survey is very simple to administer and score. There are eleven statements that students are to respond to by circling their preference on a seven-point scale. The choices on the scale range from "disagree very strongly" to "agree very strongly." Two examples are provided before the attitude statements are presented. The second section requires yes-no answers to statement groups on the practice of the program. Here, too, examples are provided to help the student understand the directions.

Each statement is to be judged on its own. There is no need to total the group scores on the overall Survey. In the first section the scores for each statement should be added together and averaged. In the second section it is suggested that the total number of yes and no answers be calculated for each item. This straightforward analysis is all that is necessary for an item-by-item summary of students' attitudes.

When To Use It

It would be appropriate to administer this Survey after USSR has been in operation for at least six weeks since any difficulties that may arise in connection with the implementation of the program will have appeared. The information derived from the Survey will help teachers and administrators redirect the program in appropriate ways.

This Attitude Survey is not being suggested as a total evaluation scheme for a class or school. It is best used by classroom teachers to investigate actual or potential strengths and weaknesses. A more complete method of evaluation would include some or all of the following: interviewing teachers and students, administering a Reading Attitude Survey, observing the program in practice, making sure that students keep records of their reading, and obtaining feedback from librarians and parents.

The principle idea of this Attitude Survey is to give insight into students' reactions to their USSR program. To date it has been used successfully by teachers of high school and junior high classes, as well as intermediate levels. Teachers have been enthusiastic about the information it provided. Teachers in Toronto, Montreal, and Vancouver reported that this Attitude Survey gave feedback that helped their organization of the USSR program.

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STUDENT ATTITUDE SURVEY ON
UNINTERRUPTED SUSTAINED SILENT READING

This attitude survey is an attempt to determine students' feelings toward USSR. This will help your teachers decide if the USSR program should be changed and improved on in any way. On this first page you will be asked to answer a few general questions. On the other pages you will be asked to respond to statements of opinion on the different parts of the USSR program. Read the instructions carefully before responding to the statements.

General Questions

1. What grade are you in? _____
2. When did you start USSR in class?
     year _____ month _____
3. How many days a week do you do USSR?
     _____
4. How long is each USSR session? _____
5. How much time do you spend each day after school
     reading things other than school-books?
     _____
6. Are you male? _____
     female? _____

ATTITUDE SURVEY ON USSR
 DIRECTIONS

You are being asked to respond to a number of statements. Seven choices are given for each statement. The choices range from disagree very strongly to agree very strongly. The seven choices are:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
d i s a g r e e				a g r e e		
very	slightly		I	slightly	very	
strongly			don't care		strongly	

Following each statement you will see a line of numbers. These seven numbers correspond to the above numbered line. Please circle the number that best describes your feelings about each of the statements. Remember that you may choose any one of the seven numbers.

Two examples are provided.

If there are any difficulties in answering this survey,
please ask your teacher for help.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly disagree	very strongly disagree	disagree slightly	I don't care	agree slightly	agree strongly	very strongly agree

EXAMPLES

Every student should
be given free milk
at lunch time.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7

Christmas holidays
should be longer.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7

ATTITUDE SURVEY ON USSR

1) I think that our teacher
should give us marks for
reading during USSR.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7

2) I think that students
who disturb others during
USSR ought to be punished
by the teacher.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7

3) I feel it is difficult to
find interesting books to
read during USSR.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7

4) I would like to have a
stack of comics and/or
magazines in the classroom
that could be used during
USSR.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7

5) I find myself reading
books after school that I
started during USSR.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7

6) I used to read after
school even before we
started USSR.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7

7) When our class does USSR,
noise from other students in
our class stops me from
reading.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7

8) I find that when we are doing USSR, noise from outside the classroom stops me from reading.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7

9) I would read my own books after school even if we didn't have USSR during schooltime.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7

10) I feel that USSR is a good time to try different kinds of books to see if I like them and want to finish them.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7

10a) I think USSR is a worthwhile activity and I am pleased that our class does it.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7

DIRECTIONS: Please circle either yes or no to the following statements. An example is provided. If there are any difficulties in answering this section of the survey, please ask your teacher for help.

EXAMPLE: My after-school activities are:

baby-sitting	yes	no
TV watching	yes	no
school sports	yes	no
music lessons	yes	no
homework	yes	no
kite flying	yes	no

ATTITUDE SURVEY ON USSR

11) I think that we ought to do USSR at the time of day we now have it

yes   no

at a different time

yes   no

at different times during the day

yes   no

12) Having a book ready for USSR

is always a problem

yes   no

is sometimes a problem

yes   no

is not a problem

yes   no

- 13) I get my books for USSR from
a friend	yes	no
the school library	yes	no
teacher recommends	yes	no
home	yes	no
classroom library	yes	no
bookstore	yes	no
other places/people	yes	no
- if yes, list _____
- _____

(Answer either number 14 or number 15)

- 14) If your parents know that you do USSR, are they:

pleased that you do USSR	yes	no
of the opinion that USSR		
is a waste of school time	yes	no
trying to have your family		
do USSR together	yes	no
interested in finding out		
more about USSR	yes	no

- 15) If your parents don't know that you do USSR, should

they be told what USSR is	yes	no
they be told that you do USSR	yes	no

- 16) During USSR I would prefer that my teacher

read a book	yes	no
spend the time making sure		
that everyone in class reads	yes	no
leave the room	yes	no

- 17) During USSR does your teacher

stop USSR at first interruption	yes	no
mark papers, talk to others	yes	no
see that students read	yes	no
read a book	yes	no

- 18) I think that the amount of time that our class spends on USSR each day is:

too long	yes	no
too short	yes	no
just right	yes	no
a waste of school time	yes	no

THE IMPORTANCE OF EVALUATING THE SYNTACTIC COMPLEXITY OF INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIAL

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One of the many problems facing educators involved in instructional programming is how to tell whether a given piece of material is likely to be readable to an individual child. Botel (1967) presented the following rationale for the necessity of matching reading materials to individual student needs:

From a psychological point of view we have evidence that the most efficient learning takes place where pupils are highly motivated, where their self esteem is enhanced and where they have rather full comprehension of what they are doing. For those who are overplaced in reading, such lack of success leads to discouragement, loss of dignity or ego support, withdrawal and often to hostility. At the opposite extreme, to the underplaced, the lack of challenge offers inadequate opportunity for involvement and the effect is to dampen the enthusiasm of these able students (p.1).

The necessity of providing each student with reading materials at his/her appropriate difficulty level in order to facilitate achievement gain has been supported by expert opinion, clinical evidence, and research findings. However, it has been reported that the majority of students comprehend printed language so poorly that they are able to gain little or no information from their instructional materials (Bormuth, 1968).

The concern for matching instructional materials to individual student's needs and abilities is particularly significant in several situations, including: (1) when the child has previously suffered failure and frustration, which is unfortunately the case with many children, especially with certain groups of children including the exceptional child, the culturally, environmentally, or economically disadvantaged child, and the non- or limited-English-speaking or bilingual child; (2) when an individualized educational program is being developed for a handicapped child deemed in need of special education and related services; (3) when the child transfers to a new school and his/her educational records do not arrive with the child; and, (4) when instructional materials are being developed and field-tested.

Shortcomings of Traditional Analysis

A problem common to all levels of education is the selec-

tion of materials which can be read and comprehended by the student. One result of attempts to clarify or reduce the dimensions of this problem has been the development of means to judge the readability of written materials. Various linguistic factors have been suggested as increasing the complexity of written language, with major attention paid to syntactic difficulty and vocabulary (semantic) difficulty. Vocabulary difficulty has been judged primarily by the presence of words on word lists and by syllabic counts and syntactic difficulty has been judged primarily by average sentence length in words. While sentence length is a syntactic measure, it offers little indication of the grammatical complexity of a sentence. Consider two sentences of equal length, such as Chomsky's (1969) famous example: John is eager to see and John is easy to see. Both sentences have six syllables and five words. Yet, Kessel (1970) confirmed Chomsky's (1969) finding that there is an invariant developmental sequence in which the former sentence is understood before the latter. A second example can further illustrate that a word count is not sufficient for analyzing the complexity of language in reading materials. The following sentence has a word count of three—The girl skips. So has—Skipping is fun. The first sentence represents one of the most commonly used sentence constructions found in the language of young children (O'Donnell, Griffin, & Norris, 1967). The second sentence, however, has a gerund (skipping) which is found more frequently in the language of older children, suggesting that sentence number two is more difficult than the first. With only a word count the difference would not be detected.

Furthermore, increased sentence length does not necessarily result in increased grammatical difficulty. The shortcomings of using a word count to judge complexity are apparent in the examples which follow: (1) I went to the store. I bought bread for lunch.

(2) I went to the store and I bought bread for lunch. Sentence number two has more than twice the number of words than either of the sentences in number one. By word count, therefore, sentence two would be judged to be far more complex than the reading material in one. Research, however, has not found this to be true (Coleman, 1966; Drumm, 1974; Hunt, 1965). Pearson (174-75) found no support for the recommendation that the difficulty of written materials can be reduced by decreasing sentence length, while Kaiser, Neils, and Floriane (1975) found that passages of equal length are not necessarily equally complex syntactically.

Sentence length has no doubt something to do with reading difficulty. Nevertheless, one finds long sentences which are syntactically simple, and short sentences which are quite complex; thus length is, at best, a very crude measure of complexity (von Glaserfeld, 1970-71).

Blue (1965) studied the effect of increasing both length and vocabulary difficulty on seventh graders' comprehension of science materials and found that these two variables had little influence on his subjects' comprehension. Rosenshine (1969) studied students' comprehension of passages which had been found to be equivalent in difficulty according to traditional readability

variables, i.e., vocabulary difficulty, sentence length in words, and word length. Interestingly, the students exhibited varying degrees of comprehension of the passages. Rosenshine isolated five factors which influenced the readability of the passages. Difficulty was increased by: (1) Vagueness and ambiguity (e.g., excessive use of indeterminate qualifiers such as rather and quite a bit, and probability words such as might, may, and possibly). (2) Irrelevancy (e.g., digressions and unnecessary restatements). Comprehension was aided by: (1) Frequent use of explaining links (e.g., terms as because, in order to, and if...then, which call attention to a cause, result, or means). (2) Use of a rule-example-rule pattern (in which a generalization is stated, followed by one or more examples, and then by a restatement of the generalization). Harris (1974) found that the excessive use of the passive voice and the subjunctive mood increases the difficulty level of written materials, while the placement of modifying phrases and clauses close to the items they modify, and the placement of antecedents of pronouns so that they are easily identified increases the ease with which one can comprehend written materials.

Sentence length has been found to be more dependent on the presence and difficulty of transformations than on vocabulary difficulty (Fagan,1971; Fodor & Garrett,1967; Gough,1966). This finding has been explained in light of the redundancy of the language. Information which a child may miss in one sentence may be acquired in some other sentence in the passage. For example, suppose the sentence "The girl wasn't allowed to go to school" were part of a story. If a child misses the negative within the sentence, the information derived would doubtless be incorrect. Further in the story there may be some statement telling what the girl did while her brother was in school, allowing the child to gain the information previously missed.

In addition to the fact that traditional readability analysis provides only a superficial evaluation of the complexity of the written language, several researchers (Bradley,1973; Jongasma,1972; Pauk,1969) found that different readability measures often provide different estimates for the same reading materials.

Moir (1970) also questioned the simplistic notions on which traditional readability analysis is based. He suggested that the ease with which a reader can identify and use the syntactic context of a passage in the reading process directly influences the degree to which the reader can gain comprehension from the material. Smith (1971) found a correspondence between his subjects' levels of syntactic maturity and the syntactic levels of the material they read, and concluded that syntax does make a difference in reading difficulty.

Harris (1975) found that the attainment of certain syntactic competencies was significantly related to reading achievement in a sample of second graders. She found that the correlation between reading achievement and score on measures of oral and written syntax was .70. The specific syntax items which were most

clearly related to reading achievement were compound subject transformations, noun marker modification in noun-verb-noun statements, auxiliary verb questions, and adjective and adverb modification in noun-verb statements.

The importance of evaluating the syntactic complexity of reading materials is heightened by the research findings which have indicated that the syntactic patterns in written material significantly affect the reader's comprehension of the material (Bormouth, Carr, Manning & Pearson, 1970; Fagan, 1971; MacKinnon, 1959; Robertson, 1968; Ruddell, 1965; Stoodt, 1972; Tatham, 1970). Fagan's (1971) research indicated that the following transformations were most difficult for children to comprehend: 1) Appositive (Mary Jones, a student, is in the library studying.) 2) Deletion (The dog seemed hungry and thirsty.) 3) Ing-nominalization (Bill's motorcycling worried his parents.) 4) Negative (He did not notice the ice on the path.) 5) Genitive pronoun (He broke his leg.) Christie (1978) investigated the effect of later appearing syntactic structures on the oral reading performance of seven and eight year old children. He constructed two passages which were equated in terms of average sentence length, vocabulary difficulty, characters, setting, action, and readability level determined by two frequently used measures. The major difference between the two passages was the ordering of words. One passage was composed of syntactic structures that are frequently used by young children while the other passage was primarily composed of later appearing structures (i.e., appositive phrases, gerund phrases, nominal absolutes, nominalized subjects, and participle phrases). Subjects were screened to assure that they were unfamiliar with these later appearing syntactic structures. Christie found that his subjects made significantly more errors (as analyzed by a modified version of the Goodman and Burke Reading Miscue Inventory) and a higher percentage of detrimental errors (defined as errors that were grammatically unacceptable and/or did not make sense in the context of the preceding words in the sentence) on the passage composed of unfamiliar later appearing syntactic structures. Christie's results indicate the importance of matching the syntax of beginning reading materials with the syntax used in children's oral language and the need for more sophisticated readability measures.

Complexity of Syntactic Structures

It was not until very recently that grammatical complexity of sentences was even considered in readability prediction although the reading process has been described as a visual language system imposed on an already acquired aural language framework (Johnson & Myklebust, 1967; Kolers, 1969). This apparent lack of concern with syntactic elements as a determinant of reading complexity may be due, at least in part, to the widely accepted assumption that the child has mastered the basic structure of his native language by the age of four (McNeill, 1970). Recent research, however, has questioned this assumption and has indicated that children's understanding of syntactic structures, which develops in an orderly sequence as a function of cognitive maturity and experience, continues to develop through the primary grades (Capron,

1975; Chomsky, 1969; Cromer, 1970; D'Asaro, 1974; Entwisle&Frasure, 1974; Frasure&Entwisle, 1972; Hunt, 1965; Kramer, Koff & Luria, 1972; Loban, 1963; O'Donnell, et al, 1967; Smith, 1921). There are certain later appearing syntactic structures which are rarely used by children under ten years of age. These structures include: 1) Appositive (Rusty, my dog, got lost.) 2) Gerund (You should try running on that track.) 3) Nominal absolute (The phone being locked, no one could dial.) 4) Nominalized subject (Jumping rope is fun.) 5) Participle phrase (Tired of running, he gave up the race.) While research findings indicate that some children have specific deficits in comprehension and production of syntactic structures (Semel&Wiig, 1975; Slegman, 1974; Vogel, 1974), there is empirical evidence to suggest that all children acquire the rules of language in a similar order. For example, it has been shown that exceptional children develop similar linguistic systems to normal children but with a marked delay in the onset and in acquisition time (Kelleher, 1973; Lackner, 1968; Lenneberg, Nichols, and Rosenberger, 1964; Morehead & Ingram, 1973; Vogel, 1974; Wiig and Semel, 1973). Thus the continuing development of syntactic structures in all children, and especially in those with language disorders or differences and/or with cognitive disabilities, during their early school years and possibly extending into adolescence (Wiig & Semel, 1974, 1975) must be recognized and attended to in the assessment process and in the planning of language and reading instruction. Yet after examining four published series of readers for sequential patterns of increasing syntactic complexity from first through sixth grade, Kachuck (1975) reported that patterns of increases were irregular, showing no evidence of systematic planning. Pflaum (1975) reported similar findings in intermediate level readers.

It is evident that educators need a means of determining the syntactic complexity of written materials before they can intelligently select appropriate reading materials for individual children. Recently, efforts have been made to develop readability measures which do take syntactic complexity of sentences into account (Endicott, 1973; Granowsky, 1971). When further validation is completed, these efforts may prove extremely useful in the evaluation of the difficulty of written material.

Evaluation of Materials to Determine Syntactic Complexity: Preparation for Instruction

Research has clearly shown the need for educators to consider the syntactic complexity of instructional materials when judging whether a given book is appropriate for a student or students. Knowledge of the syntactic complexity of the material will, no doubt, aid the teacher in deciding whether or not to select given materials. In addition, an examination of the syntactic complexity of materials will allow the teacher to anticipate the comprehension difficulties a particular child may encounter. Teachers might check to ascertain whether a child understands the syntactic structures present in the instructional material previous to introduction. If the child does not comprehend certain structures, the teacher should consider providing instruction in those structures

before introducing the selected material in order to minimize the possibility of failure and frustration for the child. Some activities which can be used to introduce syntactic structures are:

1. Presentation of oral paragraphs containing the appropriate syntactic structures followed by open-ended, yes-no, or multiple choice questions to be answered by the child.
2. Oral presentation of a sentence containing a conjunction (without deletion). The child is to identify the two coordinated ideas. Example: Mary is tall and Jane is short. Child gives the two simple sentences - Mary is tall. Jane is short.
3. Oral presentation of a sentence containing a conjunction (with deletion). The child is to identify the two coordinated ideas. Example: Bill drives a car and rides a motorbike. Child gives two simple sentences - Bill drives a car. Bill rides a motorbike.
4. Oral presentation of a sentence with a subordinate clause. The child is to identify the component sentences. Example: I don't want to eat, but I'd like something cold to drink. Child gives the two sentences - I don't want to eat. I'd like something cold to drink. (A similar activity can be used to teach relative clauses.)
5. Oral presentation of a paragraph with omitted conjunctions, etc., using a cloze procedure.
6. Presentation of several sentences. Child indicates for each sentence whether it is complete or incomplete. Examples: The girls who are reading. The boys who had been in the library went home.
7. Presentation of kernel sentences which can be combined into a single sentence. Child is to combine kernel sentences to form a single sentence. Example: Today it is slippery outside. The remaining snow froze last night. Child gives one sentence - The remaining snow froze last night so it is slippery outside today.
8. Presentation of sentences which contain referents (i.e., relative pronouns). Child is to replace all referents by the words to which they refer. Example: The man who called left his telephone number. (Fagan, 1971)
9. Presentation of several words, each on an individual flash card. Child is to arrange the words into a sentence. (Johnson and Myklebust, 1967)
10. Presentation of scrambled phrases. Child is to rearrange the phrases into a sentence. Example: the boy—the ball—threw —into the yard. The child gives the sentence: The boy threw the ball into the yard. (Wiig & Semel, 1976)
11. Presentation of scrambled phrases which the child is to rearrange into interrogative, passive, and negative sentences. Examples: a. the boy—the ball—did—kick (question) Response; Did the boy kick the ball? b. by the boy—was kicked—the ball (passive) Response; The ball was kicked by the boy.

c. did not kick—the boy—the ball (negative) Response; The boy did not kick the ball. (Savin & Perchonock, 1965)

12. Presentation of scrambled phrases and words. Child is to rearrange phrases and words into sentences with relative clauses Example: the girl—ate—the apple—who—saw—Mary. Response; The girl who saw Mary ate the apple, or, Mary saw the girl who ate the apple, etc.

13. Presentation of scrambled phrases and a conjunction. Child is to rearrange into sentences. Example: the paper—forgot—the pencil—the girl—but—remembered. Response: The girl forgot the pencil but remembered the paper.

14. Presentation of incomplete sentences. Child is to finish the sentence. Examples: (a) Yesterday the man...(requiring a specified verb tense)

(b) The woman put the plant...

(requiring a prepositional or adverbial phrase)

(c) The teacher handed... (requiring direct-indirect object sequence or a direct object and a prepositional phrase)

15. Presentation of an elaborate transformation. Child is to abstract the kernel sentence. Example: The shot for distemper was given by the veterinarian to my dog. Child abstracts—My dog got a shot. (Wiig & Semel, 1976)

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ANNOUNCEMENTS

We are privileged to have several especially important articles appearing in Volume 22, beginning October of this year, and we wish to share a forward look at a few of the contributions.

A comprehensive report of a study on beginning reading instruction will be run in the Fall and Winter issues. Dr. Cathy Collins, Texas Christian University, undertook a comparative survey of tests used, ages of students, criteria on which decisions are based, and programs and progress in beginning reading teaching in twenty five countries which use alphabetic language systems. Her summary of the results of this massive research is highly informative and useful to all professionals interested in this aspect. HORIZONS will include the questionnaire used, and the several tables of comparative data.

Other articles appearing this fall will include Bernard Floriani's "Divide and Conquer: Syllabication Assessment and Older Students". This article confronts the problem of secondary students with poor word-attack skills, suggesting a means of teaching syllabication generalizations to bring about a solution.

Also, for secondary reading people, "Theories of Reading and Implications for Secondary Teachers" by E. Marcia Sheridan, Indiana University of South Bend.

Elementary teachers will doubtless appreciate the ideas and suggestions in "Show-and-Tell: Assessing Oral Language Abilities" by Gerry Bohning of Barry College.

Another article we are proud to present in our Fall issue is "The Context of Comprehension" by Niles and Harris, of VPI and State University, Blacksburg, Virginia. Every subscriber is sure to gain in depth of understanding, in sensitivity, and in scope of awareness after a careful reading of this piece.

Two more authors whose materials we prize highly, Katherine Wiesendanger and Ellen Birlem, both of universities in New York, have contributed "A Critical Look at the Reading Approaches and Grouping Patterns Currently Used in the Primary Grades". We feel that our readers will gain a wealth of information from this sound and well written article.

For practical value and applicability, we recommend Karla H. Wendelin's "Using Children's Books to Develop Reading Skills".

Other articles by experts whose reputation for quality is well established, are as follows: W. John Harker, University of Victoria; Kathleen M. Ngandu, Hood College; and, Duane Tovey, Ohio State University.

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REVIEWS

Our Future World by Harriette S. Abels, Crestwood House, Library binding - \$53.55 complete series, \$5.95 individual titles, Paperback - \$26.55 complete series, \$2.95 individual titles. Address Box 3427, Mankato, MN, 56001.

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Kathy Seeley
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EDITOR'S NOTE

We wish to thank Beth S. Wise and John W. Logan, both of Texas A&M University, for their reviewing work in the previous issue. We also wish to issue an invitation to persons, whether student or professionals, to send in reviews. There are so many books and periodicals dealing with the many facets of teaching reading that we cannot keep up with all. We will publish your name and location if we use the review. However, we will ignore polemics, tirades, and harangues, simply because reading teachers always try to emphasize the positive.

