



# Reading Horizons: A Journal of Literacy and Language Arts

---

Volume 17  
Issue 4 July 1977

Article 16

---

7-1977

## Reading Horizons vol. 17, no. 4

Follow this and additional works at: [https://scholarworks.wmich.edu/reading\\_horizons](https://scholarworks.wmich.edu/reading_horizons)



Part of the Education Commons

---

### Recommended Citation

(1977). Reading Horizons vol. 17, no. 4. *Reading Horizons: A Journal of Literacy and Language Arts*, 17 (4). Retrieved from [https://scholarworks.wmich.edu/reading\\_horizons/vol17/iss4/16](https://scholarworks.wmich.edu/reading_horizons/vol17/iss4/16)

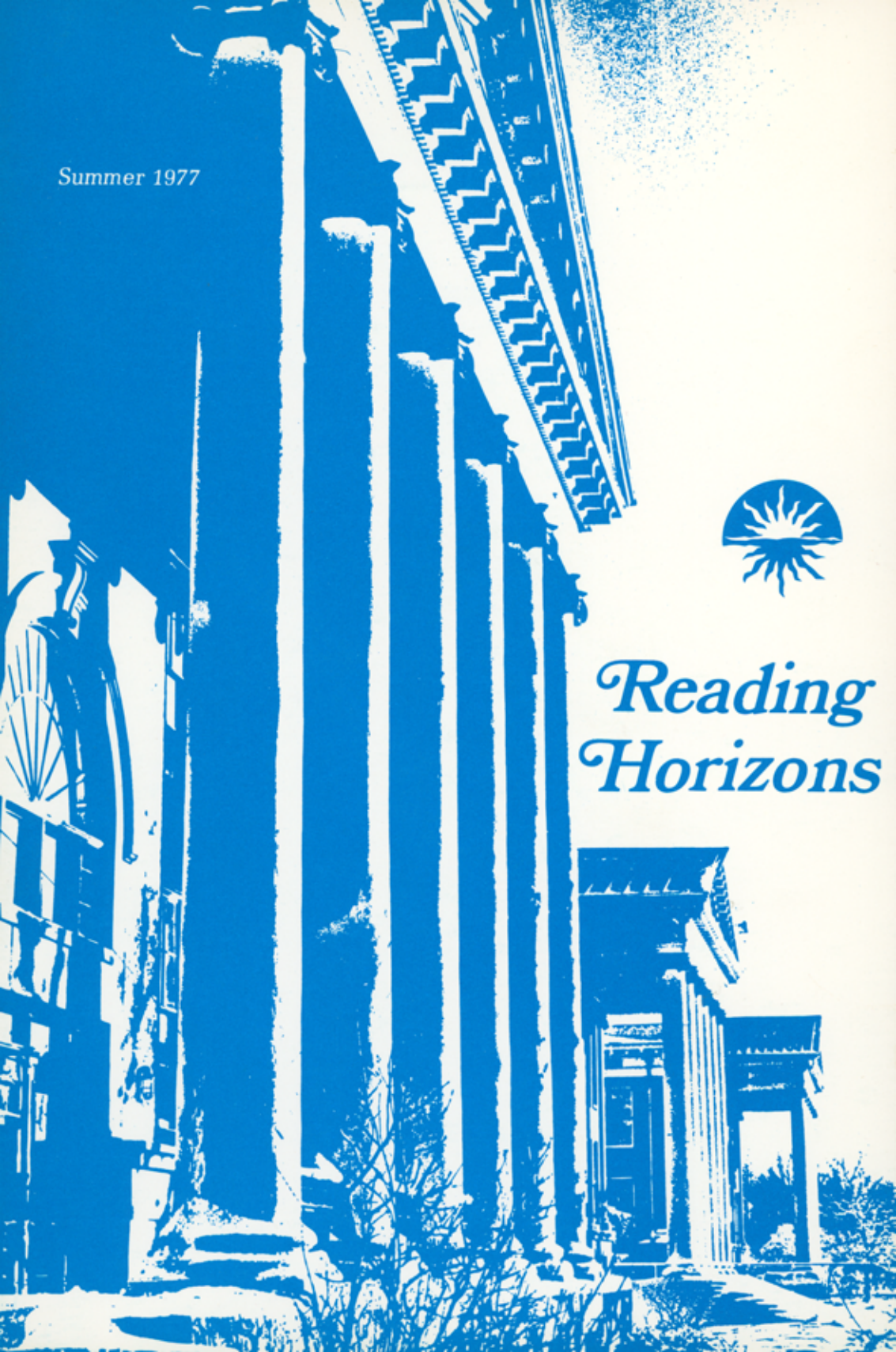
This Complete Issue is brought to you for free and open access by the Special Education and Literacy Studies at ScholarWorks at WMU. It has been accepted for inclusion in Reading Horizons: A Journal of Literacy and Language Arts by an authorized editor of ScholarWorks at WMU. For more information, please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



Summer 1977

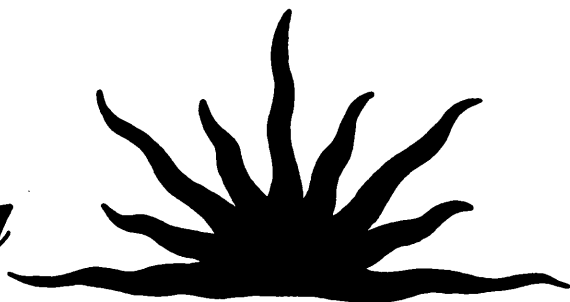


# *Reading Horizons*





# Reading



# HORIZONS

Volume 17

Number 4

**EDITOR:**

Kenneth VanderMeulen

**ASSOCIATE EDITOR:**

William L. Holladay

**EDITORIAL BOARD:**

Aurelia Spengler  
Reading Council President

Lorraine Beitler  
New York City Community College

Joe R. Chapel  
Western Michigan University

C. Hap Gilliland  
Eastern Montana College

Lawrence Hafner  
Florida State University

**FEATURE WRITERS:**

Eleanor Buelke

R. Baird Shuman

Kenneth VanderMeulen

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



## **READING HORIZONS**

A professional journal of the Reading Center and Clinic of Western Michigan University and the Homer L. J. Carter Reading Council. HORIZONS is published quarterly by the Western Michigan University Press. Copyright 1976, 2nd class postage rate paid at Kalamazoo, MI.

## **SUBSCRIPTIONS AND CHANGE OF ADDRESS**

Subscriptions are available to all persons interested in reading at \$4.00 per year. Address all correspondence and change of address to READING HORIZONS, Reading Center and Clinic, Western Michigan University, Kalamazoo, MI 49008.

## **MANUSCRIPTS**

Manuscripts, books, and any other materials for possible publication or review can be sent to Kenneth VanderMeulen, Editor, READING HORIZONS, Western Michigan University, Kalamazoo, MI 49008. Author's guides and publication policies are available on demand.

## **MICROFILM**

Microfilm copies are available from University Microfilms, 300 Zeeb Road, Ann Arbor, MI 48106. Back issues, while available, can be purchased from READING HORIZONS, Western Michigan University, Kalamazoo, MI 49008.

## **ADVERTISING**

Advertising rates, policy, and information can be obtained from the Advertising Manager, READING HORIZONS, Western Michigan University, Kalamazoo, MI 49008.

## **EDITORIAL POLICY**

THE CONTENTS AND POINTS OF VIEW EXPRESSED IN THIS JOURNAL ARE STRICTLY THOSE OF THE AUTHORS AND DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT THE OPINION OF THE EDITORIAL BOARD OF READING HORIZONS.

Copyright 1977  
by Reading Center and Clinic

**RH**  
TM

# TABLE OF CONTENTS

KENNETH VANDERMEULEN	237	Mainstreaming
WILLIAM H. RUPLEY AND TIMOTHY R. BLAIR	239	The Effective Reading Teacher: What are the Missing Pieces?
CAROL LYNCH-BROWN	243	Procedures for Determining Children's Book Choices: Comparison and Criticism
JERRY L. JOHNS AND NANCY GALEN	251	Reading Instruction in the Middle 50's: What Tomorrow's Teachers Re- member Today
MARIE CARDUCCI-BOLCHAZY	255	A Survey of Reading Readiness Practices
THOMAS R. SCHNELL	260	Listening Instruction in College Reading Programs
MICHAEL MCKENNA	264	Reading Viewed as the Result of Writing
MARCIA LYNNE PENNINGTON	268	Toward a More Positive Self-Concept in Reading
PATRICIA K. SMITH	275	Personality and Behavior Traits in Basal Readers
PATRICIA M. CUNNINGHAM	280	Supplying the Missing Links From Consonant Substitution to "Real" Reading
ELEANOR BUELKE	283	We Suggest
R. BAIRD SHUMAN	286	Professional Concerns
J. LLOYD ELDREDGE	289	Phonics . . . Learning To Read and All That Stuff
HOMER CARTER READING COUNCIL	296	Reviews
SANDRA AHERN	300	New Materials



## EDITORS-AT-LARGE

---

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



It is with a genuine sense of gratitude that we note the continual progress of *mainstreaming* students whose achievement, nature, or background may be different from the majority. We have come a long way since the days of tracking, inflexible grouping, and isolating those who seemed to present a challenge to the success of the instruction. Modern teachers in-training cannot believe the crudity of treatment of disabled readers which prevailed in the first third of this century.

Just as teachers of two hundred years ago believed that whipping and beating students was part of the instruction, teachers of past generations believed in teaching embarrassment, shame, and guilt as part of the daily lessons. If a student were unable or unprepared to read aloud, he or she was forced to admit publicly to this lack of preparation by failure in performance. As if this were not enough punishment, the teacher had special harsh words reserved for the unprepared students, delivered in front of all classmates, and designed to peel the conscience raw. In addition to all the above, a grade which reflected lack of preparation went home to the parents, where the whole can of worms might have been reopened, depending on the sensitivity of one's parents.

What we have learned and what we are still trying to help others learn is the importance of self-concept to those students who are somewhat handicapped in their reading. It is common sense that the best reading growth and development occurs within those students who are helped to feel good about themselves. There is no way of assessing growth of reading accurately when the youngsters feel they have been put into isolation cells or "dummy" classes. Thus, when persons who are trained reading teachers or specialists are employed by a school system, they may be found working just as hard for pleasant surroundings and positive atmosphere in which to teach as for hardware and faculty status.

A single move we could make in the field of reading that would immediately set ahead all the clocks of progress would be to eliminate for all times and from all levels of use, the word *remedial*. Wherever the word is used, it seems to cause disturbance. Although those who work in the field understand the practical meaning and validity of the word, we have allowed it to become stigmatized as a term of opprobrium for those who need special help in reading. You may have met the tenth grader who comes to the reading room door with a request that he be allowed to join the group: "I am a *remedial* student," as if it were an awful admission. While we have no immediate suggestions for substitute terms to use in place of *remedial*, we believe strongly that other words must be found to take its place, in school and out.

Ken VanderMeulen  
Editor





# THE EFFECTIVE READING TEACHER: WHAT ARE THE MISSING PIECES?

*William H. Rupley*

TEXAS A & M UNIVERSITY

*Timothy R. Blair*

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA, GREENSBORO

Defining an effective teacher of reading is not difficult; clarifying that definition is. The definition offered by most colleagues and students in the reading methods classes is: "The effective reading teacher develops the necessary reading skills for independent reading and fosters an interest in reading a wide variety of materials at a level appropriate to the children's abilities." Although some might argue with the semantics of this definition, people concerned with reading would probably agree that if all teachers did develop the reading skills of their pupils to a level commensurate with their abilities, and concurrently fostered an interest in reading, that these teachers would indeed be effective.

However, to argue that this definition begs clarification in relation to the question of "how" (the process) is legitimate. How does the effective reading teacher develop the reading skills? How does the effective reading teacher foster an interest in reading? The specific answers to these questions are not available and these are missing pieces that have not yet been found.

One larger piece of this puzzle that needs to be found before the "how" piece will fit, is to determine just what is meant by effective. It is the author's contention that a consensus regarding the product (the result of the process) must be agreed upon. When neither the process nor product is known and/or agreed upon, anomaly will continue to exist in the reading profession. In terms of the previously offered definition, the meaning of the term "effective" is evident: to develop reading skills for independent reading and to foster an interest in reading at a level appropriate to the children's abilities. However, there are some difficulties for teachers, administrators, and researchers in determining when one teacher is an effective teacher of reading and another is a less effective reading teacher. This difficulty lies in clarifying the portion of the definition concerned with the level of the children's abilities.

Newspapers and popular magazines frequently rail about the results of testing programs that indicate many students are not reading up to their grade level placement. Is this the solution to the problem of determining what constitutes the highest level of the children's abilities? Is the effective reading teacher one whose children read at or above grade level? Hardly. Those familiar with the manner in which standardized tests are normed realize that fifty percent of the students in the United States will not read at their grade level placement. Furthermore, it is an accepted fact that

students can read at or above their grade level placement and still not read at a level commensurate with their reading abilities. Conversely, students can be reading below their grade level and still be reading at a level that is appropriate considering their abilities.

Possibly, the answer lies in research results that reflect a significant gain in pupils' reading achievements for teachers who used a particular reading approach compared to teachers who used a "more traditional" reading approach. Accepting this as a criterion of effectiveness implies this is the approach that makes a difference in students' reading achievement, rather than the teacher who used the approach. The results of the First Grade Studies (1967), however, support the idea that it is not so much the reading approach that determines effectiveness as it is the teachers and their competency with a particular reading approach. Also, the risk accepting a comparison of reading approaches as a definition of effectiveness is compounded by the problem of not knowing if the observed differences, although significant, truly reflect an achievement appropriate to the students' reading potential.

For the educational researcher, significant findings are rewarding. However, when investigating effective reading instruction, significant differences may not reflect effective teaching. The reading approaches that reflect significant differences have to be suspect in terms of how robust they are. Because researchers can, and usually do, monitor the treatment groups to be assured that the treatment was administered (teachers did use the experimental approach), the teachers in the field may omit or modify one small portion of the approach, thus jeopardizing any possibility of getting similar results with the reading achievement of their pupils.

The previous considerations for identifying effectiveness are limited to only two examples and do not exhaust all the possibilities for determining what constitutes effectiveness. For example, such important generic variables as a teacher's personality, warmth and acceptance of pupils' ideas could be related to effectiveness in terms of how they affect pupil reading achievement. However, this stance requires making decisions regarding which areas should be investigated and then hoping that the selected area relates to student achievement. For example, suppose teacher warmth is highly suspected as being an important indicator of teacher effectiveness, and two groups of teachers are identified, those who exhibit the trait of warmth and those who do not. Then, typically, a measure of student achievement in reading is made, and the characteristics of teacher warmth are statistically treated in relation to student achievement. If the results significantly favor the "warm" teachers, then this variable could be considered important in defining what is an effective reading teacher. Again, the logic of such a procedure has to be questioned. Would the differences have occurred even if these teachers were identified as members of the "less warm" group? Probably so, because one has to suspect that it is something the teachers are doing in their actual reading instruction that foster achievement, rather than a vacillating characteristic such as warmth. Further, even though both groups of teachers' students may have made

reading gains, how can one be assured that the gains were appropriate for the pupils associated with these teachers? Limited gains may have been achieved by some of the students that could have been tremendous gains when the factor of where they were when they began their reading instruction is considered. This consideration reemphasizes an important point for those interested in identifying effective reading instruction: minimal student achievement in reading may really be associated with effective instruction if the predicted reading achievement level of the students is taken into consideration.

As the examples indicate, identifying that which is an inappropriate method for determining what makes an effective teacher of reading may be easier than stating what is effective. However, if logic would serve as the primary factor toward solving this dilemma, then part of the solution to the puzzle may be close at hand. An agreeable consensus of what makes a reading teacher an effective one might be found in the research and writing of Saadeh (1970), Rosenshine (1970), and McNeil and Popham (1973). They are in agreement that the effective teacher should be identified in terms of pupil outcomes measures. In other words, how does the final product (modification in the learner) compare with the expected levels of achievement? Translated into terminology appropriate to identifying what constitutes effectiveness in reading instruction—the effective reading teacher is one whose students, at the end of the school year, achieve at the reading level significantly greater than that which would be expected. Although this definition is not reflective of grade level placement, measures of pre-post test differences with a given reading approach or individual student reading achievement, it deals directly with the responsibilities of the teachers—student learning.

If this definition of an effective reading teacher would be adopted by everyone concerned with the reading instruction of children, then a great deal of progress toward improving reading instruction could be initiated. Though the product is known—adjusted pupil gain—the process to reach this goal is not known or agreed upon, for students differ much in skills, attitudes and abilities as do teachers. At the present time decision-making in the teaching-learning process has to be viewed as idiosyncratic, left very much to the judgment of individual teachers. While recent research on teacher effectiveness has generated several generic behaviors associated with adjusted pupil gain, further research efforts are needed to increase our knowledge of specifics in the processes to be employed in various instructional settings. Solving this larger piece of the puzzle could eventually lead to the answers to the question of “how.” When an agreement can be reached extraneously that an effective reading teacher is one whose students make significant gains in their reading achievement as indicated by the comparison of their achievement with their end-of-year achievement then, determining what makes these teachers effective can be examined. After that is deduced, we will be able to use their methods as a guide for in-service training, pre-service education and research investigations. Then the “how” piece of the puzzle will be solved and put into its place.

## REFERENCES

- Bond, G. and Dykstra, R. "The Cooperative Research Program in First Grade Reading Instruction." *Reading Research Quarterly* 2 (1967), pp. 26-142.
- McNeil, J. and Popham, J. "The Assessment of Teacher Competence." *Second Handbook on Research in Teaching*, edited by Travers, Chicago: Rand McNally & Company, 1973, pp. 218-224.
- Rosenshine, B. "Interpretive Study of Teaching Behaviors Related to Student Achievement." Final Report. College of Education, Temple University, 1970.
- Saadeh, I. "Teacher Effectiveness or Classroom Efficiency: A New Direction in the Evaluation of Teaching." *The Journal of Teacher Education*, 21, (1970), pp. 73-91.

# PROCEDURES FOR DETERMINING CHILDREN'S BOOK CHOICES: COMPARISON AND CRITICISM

*Dr. Carol Lynch-Brown*

FLORIDA STATE UNIVERSITY

## *Introduction*

Near the end of the nineteenth century the scientific investigation into children's interests first emerged. Since then many studies have been carried out to determine children's reading interests. The procedures chosen for the collection of data have been almost as multitudinous as the studies. Equally important, the kind of information one obtains may depend to a large degree on the data collection procedure selected. The central purpose of this study was to compare results obtained from two methods of data collection used to evaluate children's reading interests.

The first method was the annotated titles approach which has been used by many researchers, first by Thorndike (6) in 1941, and by many others later. Recently, Schulte (4) and Simmons (5) chose this procedure for use in their studies. This procedure is one in which children are asked to tell whether they believe they would like or would not like to read a book after listening to (or reading) a title and a verbal description of the book. This approach has frequently been chosen by researchers due to the ease of administration of such an instrument as well as the possibility of writing titles and annotations of fictitious books, thus eliminating any interference in the results due to books being chosen which might already have been read by some of the children. The second data collection procedure was one in which children examine and react to actual books and then are asked to tell whether they believe they would like or would not like to read the book.

## *Purpose of the Study*

A comparison of these procedures was undertaken in order to discover the advantages and disadvantages of the two approaches. This is especially of interest because recent changes in society have affected the ways knowledge is disseminated to children. Never before has so much creative effort been put forth to attract the attention of the young. Television, radio, records, films present their wares in lively, colorful, inventive ways for consumption by children. Moreover, these trends have also affected the field of children's books. There are new formats available; in particular, many quality books are being presented in paperback form and many hardbound books have colorful front covers. Science books for children are being offered in formats which are more attractively illustrated or with vivid photographs; and many science books have more readable text material

than those published in the past. Thus, advances in technology have an impact both on children and what they are accustomed to experiencing and on the children's book industry regarding new presentations. One would expect that with these technological changes there would be corresponding changes in children's interests in reading and a need to choose appropriate procedures for evaluating these interests.

Children's book choices may be affected by important factors not measurable by the fictitious annotated titles procedure. In many fictitious annotated titles studies vocabulary was not controlled in the annotations since the descriptions were read aloud by teachers. While this effectively eliminates the problem of reading difficulty level, it can be questioned whether that elimination is desirable. Reading difficulty could likely be a strong factor influencing choice. In eliminating this variable, the researcher may know the topical interests of children, but not necessarily their reading interests. By the very nature of certain topics, the reading difficulty may be greater or less, thereby influencing the child's reading interests. In addition, style may affect children's choices. For example, the use of dialogue in a book may attract some children, may repel other children. Matters pertaining to style are not easily assessed by a child while listening to an annotated title. Format could be a decisive factor in choice. It is possible that children accustomed from early years to exciting visual experiences, often in living color via television, may be far more dependent on sight and thus, format may be a more important factor in determining their actual interests than in the past.

The immense numbers of studies of children's reading interests provided educators with considerable knowledge, but, at times, such an amplitude obscures the very information being sought. Critical evaluation of the studies already completed is needed; careful attention must be paid to the procedures used in data collection in order to determine whether the terms used in description are well defined. This study was undertaken to give careful consideration to two data collection procedures and to the differences in results which may be attributable mainly to these procedures.

#### NULL HYPOTHESES

1. There is no significant difference in children's choices of literature which may be attributed to sex alone. ( $H_0$ : Sex)
2. There is no significant difference in children's choices of literature attributable to data collection procedure. ( $H_0$ : Procedure)
3. There is no significant interaction of sex and data collection procedures on children's choices of literature. ( $H_0$ : Sex x Procedure)
4. There is no significant difference in children's choices of literature which may be attributed to categories of literature. ( $H_0$ : Categories)
5. There is no significant interaction of sex and category of literature on children's choices of literature. ( $H_0$ : Sex x Categories)
6. There is no significant interaction between data collection procedures and categories of literature on children's choices of literature. ( $H_0$ : Procedures x Categories)

7. There is no significant interaction between sex, data collection procedures, and categories of literature on children's choices of literature. ( $H_0$ : Sex x Procedures x Categories)

## PROCEDURES

The results received when children reacted to a reading interest inventory composed of annotated titles were compared with the results received when children examined actual books. In order to make such a comparison of these two procedures, a modification of the annotated titles procedure was required. In earlier studies the annotations were of fictitious books, a method which eliminates any chance of a child having read the book; in this study 26 actual books were chosen for examination and also for annotation. A comparison was then made between the results obtained. The books selected (and annotations) belonged to three different interest categories: realistic fiction, fanciful fiction and science. These particular categories were chosen in order to have both fiction and non-fiction represented. Moreover, science books were especially important to this study since it was thought possible that recent science books with highly attractive formats could not be adequately described by annotations. Since the major purpose for this study was not to determine the relative importance of categories of children's interest, but to determine whether the use of annotated titles accurately depicts children's book choices, the number of categories was limited to three.

A total of 161 subjects, all fifth grade children, was distributed into the two groups as follows: Group AT (annotated titles collection procedure): 83 total, 45 boys and 38 girls; and Group HB (hardbound actual books group): 78 total, 42 boys and 36 girls. The subjects ranged in age from 9 to 11 and attended the public schools of Leon County, Florida. The subjects for this study were chosen by random selection of classes from all the fifth grade classes in the county. Thereafter, a class list was obtained from each teacher; each pupil of each class was then assigned randomly to one of the groups. The first group (Group AT) listened to titles with brief annotations of twenty-six actual books. After listening to each title and annotation, the children were asked to circle on the answer sheet *yes*, *no* or *?*, depending on whether they believed they would like, would not like or could not decide whether they would like to read the book. The second group (Group HB) examined actual books in hardcover editions. These books were the same titles as those annotated for Group AT. Each book had a numbered label placed on the lower right hand corner of the cover, the numbers having been determined by the use of a random numbers table. These books were arranged in numerical order on tables of the school library. The children were asked to respond in similar fashion as in Group AT after examination of each book. The twenty-six books were new, hardcover editions with the book jackets removed. Annotations were written for all 26 of the titles. All annotations except for the science category were written by the investigator; those for science, by an experienced science teacher.



It was hoped that the children would have read none or few of the books in the study so that their responses would indicate attraction to a book rather than reaction from having read it. Certain steps were taken to reduce the number of children who might have read a book. No book of which a film had recently appeared in Leon County was chosen. The state-adopted reading texts were checked for any excerpts from full length books; these books were also eliminated from the study. Two recent studies surveyed the books teachers most frequently read to children as reported by Tom (7). Although many of the books mentioned in the two studies were appropriate to the categories, they were not selected in hopes of limiting whatever effect might result from the previous reading of the book. This was deemed essential in order to replicate as closely as possible the procedure used by Thorndike (6), Schulte (4), Simmons (5), Jefferson (1). In addition, a pilot study was carried out in one of the fifth grade classes of Leon County not selected for inclusion in this study. The purpose of this pilot study was to submit the books tentatively chosen for the study to a group of children for their statements as to whether they had read them or not. The pilot study showed very few children had read the books selected tentatively and the two books with the highest scores were deleted from the study. The pilot study did show that none of the books in the study was likely to have been read by more than one or two children. The instruments consisted of the books, annotations, and two forms of an answer sheet. The answer sheets were titled Reading Interest Inventory and requested the information—name, age, and sex on the top. The annotations were straightforward, clear descriptions of the book. No controls of vocabulary or syntax were placed on the annotations. The annotations were read aloud by the examiner to obviate any reading difficulties. Instructions differed only regarding the procedure of listening to annotations or looking at the books. In each case the children were admonished to respond as they felt, not as they felt they should or as their teacher or parents might want them to respond.

The inventory was administered during two consecutive school weeks; during this period one-half day of availability was arranged for each of the ten classes participating. When each group of children entered the library, they were invited to sit around a large table where answer sheets had been placed. The examiner explained briefly to the children why they were there, asked for their cooperation and thanked them for their help. They were then instructed to complete the top of the answer sheet. The examiner read the directions aloud asking the children to follow the reading on their answer forms. Any questions they had were thereafter answered. Next, with Group AT the children listened and marked the answer sheets while the examiner read the annotations aloud. The actual books were nowhere in sight during the administration of the inventory to this group. With Group HB the children were instructed to go over to the tables where the books were arranged numerically according to the numbers assigned them randomly. They looked at each book in order and then circled the response next to that number on the answer sheet. When an individual finished all

the books, he handed his answer sheet to the examiner and returned to his classroom. The children were encouraged to take as much time as desired and to open the books or read parts of them if they wished. The books were placed on five large tables with about six books on a table and the examiner had the children go to the tables a few at a time so they would not be able to observe the responses given by classmates. The examiner was one and the same for both groups at all schools. Whatever effect the personality of the examiner might have had on the children should have been the same for both groups. The teachers were not present while the inventory was administered in order to reduce teacher influence. Moreover, random assignment of pupils to groups should have had the effect of eliminating any imbalance between groups in the area of teacher influence. In order to reduce a possible influence due to one group always being first, the order in which the groups arrived from their classes was arranged so that each group (AT, HB) was first, and second, approximately the same number of times by varying the order with the different classes.

## RESULTS

The first step in the data analysis process was to tabulate all the responses by polling the number of *yes*, *no* and ? responses by procedure group (HB, AT), by sex, by category, by individual book.

The statistical analysis undertaken was an analysis of variance, repeated measures design. (A copy of statistical tables will be sent upon request.) This analysis was applied to the three categories (realistic fiction, fanciful fiction, science) to determine if any significant differences existed among the number of *yes* responses by category or by sex when children listen to annotated titles or examined actual books. In order to obtain equal group size for the analysis of variance, random deletion of subjects was carried out. The F-ratios were compared with the tabled F-values to determine if significant differences existed among the various mean interest scores.

1. No significant differences were found in the mean number of positive responses according to sex alone; however, the level of confidence actually found, .10, indicates that boys may tend to be somewhat more positive than girls.
2. A significant difference was found in mean number of positive responses for hardbound books as opposed to annotated titles with the direction favoring annotated titles.
3. A highly significant difference was found in the mean number of positive responses for categories of literature with realistic fiction being the most popular, science the least popular.
4. No significant interactions were found between sex and data collection procedures.
5. A highly significant interaction was found between sex and categories of literature. Girls were very positive towards realistic fiction, very negative towards science; boys were more positive in their responses to science than to the other two categories.

6. The analysis of variance indicated a highly significant interaction between procedure and categories. Realistic fiction was chosen markedly less frequently on examination than when hearing annotated titles. Fanciful tales were somewhat less popular when the actual books were examined, science more popular. However, it was found that the increase in popularity for science was due entirely to the responses of male subjects.
7. No significant interaction was found among the three variables, sex, procedure and category.

### CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The findings of this study indicate that there are significant differences between children's choices based on annotations and actual books, differences which seem important enough to make the use of annotated titles for determining children's reading choices somewhat misleading in the results obtained. For example, boys seemed frequently unable to make up their minds when listening to annotations. Boys made significantly fewer ( $p < .001$ ) undecided responses when examining books as opposed to listening to annotated titles.

In addition, annotated titles may not do justice to some forms of literature, namely science. Boys' positive responses to science were greater when they examined the actual books, than when boys listened to the descriptions of books. Certain single books were preferred much more or much less when the children looked at them than when they listened to them. The findings of this study tend to substantiate the concerns expressed by various reviewers of children's reading interest studies [King (2), Townsend (8), Weintraub (9), Zimet (10).] Briefly, their concerns centered on the validity of the instruments, the data collection procedures and whether the type of information received was adequately described and defined. Data collection procedures do appear to make significant differences in the responses received and apparently, on the interpretation which should be placed on the findings.

An additional factor needs to be researched with respect to annotations, namely, the bias of annotations. Should an annotator be more favorably disposed to realistic fiction than science, it is likely that she may use vocabulary which is more appealing to describe that which she prefers. In this study the science books were made to sound as appealing as possible. In order to accomplish this, a science teacher and science buff with professional writing skills wrote the annotations. Had this not been done, the results might have been even more dramatically in favor of the actual books for the science category. An example of one of the science annotations follows:

#### The Great Whales

Do whales have hair? How deep can they dive? How fast can they swim? These and many other questions about these giant mammals,

the largest animals that have ever lived, are answered and illustrated in this book.

This annotation makes the book sound exciting through the use of rhetorical questions. Often annotations have word choices which are more or less emotionally charged. Osgood's (3) semantic profile technique is available for the study of such semantic features. This technique consists of having subjects rate individual words on a one to five scale on several factors, such as good-bad, strong-weak, light-heavy, and so forth. Words which carry ratings towards the end of the various scales can be reasonably claimed to be emotionally charged. By randomly selecting a number of nouns, verbs, and adjectives from each annotation and developing semantic profiles for them, it should be possible to do a correlational study between those annotations which have many emotionally charged words and between children's affirmative responses. Should a significant positive correlation be found a semantic profile technique could be used to balance annotations. Certainly, if reading interest researchers continue to use annotated titles as a data collection procedure, serious efforts must be made to control for potential bias in the annotations.

An interesting by-product of the study was the difference in behavior between children who listened to annotated titles and those who looked at the actual books. Those who listened to annotated titles responded to the task in a pleasant, cooperative manner; this change in normal school routine was neither threatening nor demanding. After the inventory they were asked if they had questions. Few had questions and those were mainly whether they would do this again and why it was being done. The children who examined actual books were also friendly and cooperative for the same reasons, no doubt, but, in addition, almost all of them had questions and seemed very excited about what had happened. Their questions were about the books. Could they keep this one? Could this one be put in their classroom? Where could they buy certain of these books? Will you come back to read this one to us? etc. Apparently children became more excited about books and more motivated to read by looking at books than by hearing about them. Classroom teachers could have children circle yes or no after looking at some books in order to find out class and individual children's reading choices and in order to motivate children to do some reading at the same time. The procedure is neither complex nor time consuming; it could be done within a classroom by an individual child during free moments. It appears to be a highly motivating activity.

Typically children select books by looking them over. The results of this study indicate that, on the whole, the responses from children to annotated titles are not the same as their responses to actual books. Given these results, more reading interest studies in which actual books are used in data collection are needed.

## REFERENCES

1. Jefferson, Benjamin F. "Some Relationships Between Parents' and Children's Preferences in Juvenile Literature." *Elementary School Journal*, LVIII (January, 1958), 212-218.
2. King, Ethel M. "Critical Appraisal of Research on Children's Reading Interests, Preferences and Habits." *Canadian Education and Research Digest*, VII, (December, 1967), 312-326.
3. Osgood, C. E.; Suci, G. J.; and Tannenbaum, P. H. *The Measurement of Meaning*. Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1966.
4. Schulte, Emerita S. "The Independent Reading Interests of Children Grades Four, Five and Six." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The Ohio State University, 1967.
5. Simmons, Gertrude L. "A Study of the Influence of Social Status and Race on the Reading Interests of Sixth Grade Pupils in Leon County, Florida." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The Florida State University, 1967.
6. Thorndike, Robert L. *A Comparative Study of Children's Reading Interests*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teacher's College, Columbia University, 1941.
7. Tom, Chow Loy. "What Teachers Read to Pupils in the Middle Grades." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The Ohio State University, 1969.
8. Townsend, Agatha. "What Research Says to the Reading Teacher." *The Reading Teacher*, XIII (April, 1960), 297-302.
9. Weintraub, Samuel. "Children's Reading Interests." *The Reading Teacher*, XXII (April, 1969), 655, 657, 659.
10. Zimet, Sara F. "Children's Interest and Story Preferences: A Critical Review of the Literature." *Elementary School Journal*, LXVII (December, 1966).

# READING INSTRUCTION IN THE MIDDLE 50's: WHAT TOMORROW'S TEACHERS REMEMBER TODAY

***Jerry L. Johnson and Nancy Galen***

**NORTHERN ILLINOIS UNIVERSITY READING CLINIC**

"When I try to think of my introduction to reading I keep expecting to come upon a memory of a specific instance during which I learned to read. I can remember learning to ride a bike, learning to dive off the high board, and I can even remember that time I learned what was meant by the terms *noun* and *verb*. Then why can't I remember learning to read? It's made such a dramatic difference on how I've lived each day, and I probably couldn't function without it." This is the opening paragraph of one student's recollections about learning to read. As part of the requirements for a course entitled "The Improvement of Reading in the Elementary School" at Northern Illinois University, fourteen advanced education majors were asked to record their early impressions of reading. The students recalled their concepts of the construct "reading," early instructional techniques, the development of their interest in reading, and the qualities they liked and disliked in their teachers. Most of the students could recall bits and pieces of their early reading experiences; those instances recounted precisely were special enough, in one sense or another, to remain vivid for the fifteen or more years that have passed since these students began learning to read. Here, then, is what a group of tomorrow's teachers remember about yesterday's reading instruction.

## *On The Construct Reading*

"It's amazing how every year 'reading' seemed to get farther away from something we were supposed to be enjoying. If it weren't for the good feeling I had when I first started reading, I never would have survived the rest of the progression through formal reading instruction."

## *On Early Instructional Techniques*

"My first grade groups were named 'Old Model T Ford' (low group), 'Chevy' (middle group), and 'Cadillac' (high group) . . . I was always deeply upset when I had to move my seat to the Old Model T group."

"Reading often consisted of a 'round robin' group in which each person took his turn to read aloud. You would nervously fumble with your book on your lap when it came your turn to read. When that turn did come around, you prayed that you wouldn't make any mistakes, for fear of being called 'one of the dummies' . . . You also hated to hear 'this is so easy, I don't think you're trying hard enough.' It seemed the teacher thought you enjoyed making mistakes."

"While we waited for our turns, most of us became bored and fidgety. Sometimes we'd daydream, read ahead, or whisper to the person sitting next to us. Because of this, we'd frequently lose the place where we were supposed to read."

"I would hold my place until it was my turn to read out loud. I had already finished reading the story and would flip to the back and read all the other stories, too. I was reading a story about owls when I was discovered and *ordered* not to read ahead anymore . . . So I learned to be real sneaky and feel guilty every time I got bored and started reading ahead again."

"While listening to the other kids read, I would feel impatient with them if they hesitated or stumbled over a word that was easy for me . . . In contrast, when I helped the three slower readers in a small group, I did not have the feelings of impatience that I did when I was with the entire class."

"I was always in the 'best' group, and although I easily grasped the material, I was afraid that if I made one mistake I would be placed in another group."

"We were reading the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey*. Maybe two kids in the class understood the books; the rest of us just got stuck on the names of the characters."

#### *On The Development Of Interest In Reading*

"Our house was and still is full of books—covering about everything for all ages. I was always thumbing through and looking at pictures . . . I can remember that magic moment when everything seemed to click and I started to recognize nursery rhymes by the words and not just the pictures. It was a Sunday morning and I was the first one up. I had the book and was thumbing as usual but suddenly I couldn't wait for someone else to wake up so I could ask if that's what it was to 'read.' The funny thing is I don't remember anyone's reaction except my dad smiling at me."

"My great-grandfather had books, books, and more books. I used to go to his house after school and pick out a book and try to read the words to him . . . He went to the library every week and so did I. Then we would go home and I would read those books to him."

"At home I'd see my brothers fighting for the jokes of the Sunday paper and then plopping on the floor to 'read' them. Soon I found myself fighting along with the rest and then proceeding to spend about five minutes looking at the pictures and sort of trying to ignore all those confusing things at the top of the page."

"Almost every week or two my mother would take us to the library. I was a Dr. Suess freak—each week I'd bring an old one in and trade it for another he had written . . . I didn't really think this was unusual though because my brother had been checking out Sir Lancelot continually for the last two years."

When I was four years old my mother took me to Norway to visit relatives. I can remember how my little cousin and I would fight over Donald Duck comic books. These comic books were printed in Norwegian,

so I couldn't read them but could look at the pictures and understand what the story was about."

"I can recall with pride the first time I took my reader home . . . to read to my parents. Because of the excitement they exhibited in my success, reading from first grade on was a very successful experience for me."

"One of my older brothers was a fanatic about reading. He consumed books. My parents could hardly get him to turn out the lights at night because he was always reading a book. He, probably more than anyone else, influenced my attitude toward reading."

"I found the *Bible* very hard to read and not to my liking. I would read it before bed and almost always fall asleep shortly after I started to read. Reading still puts me to sleep better than almost any other activity I can think of."

"I felt it was a great waste of time to be seated reading when I could be out actually doing something. Playing football seemed much more important than did a book."

"Well, for me just finding a good book was an act of God; then I'd finally find a series of books I really enjoyed and every time I went to get the next book it would be gone. The frustration was just too great; slowly but surely I gave up reading for pleasure."

#### *On The Qualities Of Liked And Disliked Teachers*

"My new teacher . . . was the best teacher I ever had. She used to read us a book, a little at a time, each day."

"She really wanted us to enjoy reading and would sometimes read an entire book to the class. We thoroughly enjoyed this and were entranced in the process."

"We had a current events session each day. I liked my teacher and wanted to impress her, so I tried to read and bring in the best clippings."

". . . we could read books of our own choice—for the first time not from a list compiled by the teacher. We just gave her a rundown on the book: what did it mean to us, was it a waste of time or did we enjoy it. Not the usual boring book report—she tried to get us to think about what we had read. If we needed book suggestions she would help us choose something she thought we might be interested in; but if we did not like that she understood, too."

"In first grade I had to stay after school because I was not reading the words on the flash cards correctly. It made me afraid to make a mistake. The teacher only had the bad students stay after school. No one wanted to be a 'dummy' and stay after."

"The teacher used to catch people off guard and then ask them to read. If you weren't paying attention, you were scolded or punished in some way . . . I would always get in trouble because I would be reading ahead and wouldn't be following the class."

"When a child stumbled over a word or made miscues . . . our teacher would correct him in a bored and impatient voice. When this happened to me, I became so flustered I couldn't even finish the sentence."



*Implications For Today's Teachers*

The data presented above were gathered and analyzed in an informal manner. Still, some interesting and perhaps thought-provoking conclusions can be drawn from the recollections of these students. For example, only one remembered a teacher who consciously tried to spark her students' interests in reading. The rest recall becoming interested in reading because of family influence: a great-grandfather, mother or brother whose enthusiasm for books was contagious. That interest in reading was promoted in the home is certainly laudable; but why didn't the students remember equally enthusiastic teachers? Those who now truly enjoy reading seemed to develop their interest in spite of, rather than as a result of their reading instruction.

A second point about which the students agreed was that they remembered feeling dislike for "round robin" oral reading. Most recalled being extremely anxious about making mistakes; some countered their impatience and boredom with the oral reading sessions by whispering, squirming, or reading other stories. What did these students learn from their experiences with oral reading? One admitted learning to "be real sneaky and feel guilty" every time she got bored, almost certainly not one of her teacher's objectives for the class.

This student's concluding remarks summarize the opinions of her classmates regarding teachers and teaching techniques: "By looking at what happened to me during those important years, I found that . . . the personality and manner of the teacher had great impact." Some teachers assume that the classroom syllabus is more important than the method used to teach it. Postman and Weingartner (1969), however, emphasize the impact that teaching techniques can have upon students: " 'The medium is the message' implies that the invention of a dichotomy between content and method is both naive and dangerous. It implies that the critical content of any learning experience is the method or process through which it occurs." The students' recollections seem to validate this theory. Nuances of personality and the manner in which a teacher dealt with her students were remembered easily; few had content-related memories.

Reading instruction has certainly changed in the fifteen or more years that have elapsed since these students entered the first grade. New techniques for reading improvement are advanced every year; teachers of reading are continually searching for methods that reach all students. Instructional strategies are important, but teachers also need to acknowledge the importance of students' attitudes about reading and reading class. In the year 1992, some of today's first graders will be seniors in college. If asked to recall their early impressions of reading, how will they respond?

## REFERENCE

- Postman, Neil and Charles Weingartner. *Teaching as a Subversive Activity*. New York: Delacorte Press, 1969.

# A SURVEY OF READING READINESS PRACTICE

*Marie Carducci-Bolchazy*

STATE UNIVERSITY OF NEW YORK AT ALBANY

Practices in reading readiness programs vary considerably (Spache & Spache, 1973). In some programs the emphasis is upon language development; in other programs the emphasis is upon perceptual and/or perceptual-motor training. In fact, in some programs (e.g., Kephart, 1960; Frostig, 1961), little or no attention is given to language development, and even in programs that have a language-development component, some emphasis on perceptual and/or perceptual-motor training is common.

## *Perceptual and/or Perceptual-Motor Training*

There is some theoretical support for the use of perceptual and/or perceptual-motor programs. The use of these programs stems primarily from G. Stanley Hall's (1904) recapitulation theory, the theory that an individual in his own development passes through stages similar to those the race passed through in the same order. In the 1920's lack of readiness was the accepted explanation for the lack of success of many first-graders to learn to read. Expressed in Hall's terminology, a child who lacked readiness for initial reading instruction had not yet reached the stage of development which would allow that child to be successful (Durkin, 1970).

One implication of Hall's theory is that children would have to develop perceptual-motor abilities before they developed reading ability. The attempt to apply Hall's theory to educational practice was probably the major reason for the development of perceptual-motor training programs to serve as reading readiness programs.

Robinson (1972) and Grise (1973) have reviewed the literature of the results of perceptual-motor programs on reading improvement. Both commented on the contradictory findings of the research. Grise was concerned with the poor quality of the research designs, especially of those studies that found perceptual-motor programs to be of benefit to reading improvement. Additionally, Robinson (1972) and Klesius (1972) were concerned with the unproved nature of the tests of perception.

The research on one perceptual-training program, the Frostig program, is fairly conclusive. Spache and Spache (1973) listed seven studies that found the effect of the Frostig training on reading to be insignificant. They listed only one that found the effects of the Frostig training on reading to be significant. Furthermore, one of the studies had significant findings in favor of the control group. Robinson (1972) stated that:

The Frostig program of visual-perceptual training is not effective in improving reading regardless of the school level at which it is in-

troduced, the number of periods of instruction, the socioeconomic level of the pupils, or the scores the pupils make on initial visual-perception tests. (p. 139)

Despite the lack of evidence to support perceptual, or perceptual-motor training programs for developing reading readiness or for developing reading skills, these programs have the endorsement of many authorities in the field of reading. For example, Spache and Spache (1973), whose text is used currently in many college-level reading education courses, firmly believe in the effectiveness of reading readiness programs weighted in favor of non-language components. Their recommended reading readiness program includes training in: body image, laterality and directionality, hand-eye coordination, form perception, and auditory memory in addition to the language-based activities.

### *Language-based Reading Readiness Programs*

In the past decade psycholinguists have been investigating the similarities between the processing of speech and the processing of reading and are convinced that speech and reading are closely related. There have been a number of investigations which support the theory that speech and reading are processed in similar ways. Some researchers have investigated the relationship between complexity of oral language use and reading success. At the first- and second-grade levels, Strickland (reported in Chall, 1967) and Martin (reported in Lavatelli, 1971) found no significant relationship between complexity of oral language and reading success; however, at the sixth-grade level, there was a significant relationship (Strickland, reported in Chall, 1967). Similarly Loban (reported in Lavatelli, 1971), in his six-year longitudinal study, found no significant relationship at grades one and two but an increasingly significant relationship in the next four grades. These findings underscore the importance of early development of oral language skills, as they suggest that advanced language skills are the foundation for an ever-increasing rate of reading achievement.

Some studies on differences in dialects also confirm the relationship between speech and reading. Labov (1966) found that differences due to dialect (e.g., the dropping of the "-ed" in Black English) may cause difficulty in reading comprehension. In one investigation, he had his sample of Negro children read aloud the sentence, "I looked for him when I read his name." The majority of the children in his sample failed to recognize that the "-ed" in the word "looked" signaled that the word "read" was in the past tense. This finding suggests that speech patterns can affect reading comprehension.

Some evidence, quite different from the research considered so far, provides support for the concept of a language-based reading readiness program. This evidence suggests that the developmental sequence in syntactical control continues well past the kindergarten year. Menyuk (1963) has identified some components of syntactic structure that are in the

“so” clauses, perfects, and nominalizations. Loban (reported in Ruddell, 1973), in his longitudinal study, found that the average communication unit length increased throughout the elementary grades. Harrell (reported in Ruddell, 1973) compared selected variables in the speech and writing of children from ages nine to fifteen. The following variables increased with age: length of composition and clauses, the percentage of subordinate clauses used, and the number of adverb and adjective clauses used. These data give evidence that children do continue to develop their language skills throughout the elementary and even secondary school years. These data also suggest (considering the close relationship between the processing of spoken and the processing of written language) that attention should be given to oral language development in reading or reading readiness programs.

### *Survey of Current Reading Readiness Practices*

In March and April of 1975, a survey of current reading readiness practices was conducted. This investigator had designed a survey form covering questions on reading readiness tests and reading readiness programs. In formulating the questions on the readiness programs, the activities recommended by Spache and Spache (1973) were used. The survey form was revised incorporating the suggestions of a number of reviewers. The revised survey form was sent to a stratified random sample of fifteen school districts from ten counties in New York State. The sample included districts of varying socioeconomic levels from rural, suburban, and urban areas. Respondents were reading coordinators, reading directors, reading teachers, and, in one case, a building principal. In all cases the respondent was the person assumed to have the greatest familiarity with the over-all reading program at the primary level. There was a 100% return of the survey forms.

All of the school districts reported regular or extensive use of language-based activities in their readiness programs, e.g., word and letter discrimination. However, activities that are not language-based also were used extensively or regularly. Two-thirds or more of the districts in the survey reported extensive or regular use of the following non-language-based activities specifically for the purpose of developing reading readiness: (1) auditory awareness (identifying sounds of musical instruments, animals; (2) identifying by feel, taste, smell; (3) body image (movement games, skipping rope); (4) hand-eye coordination (cutting, pasting, marbles); (5) small muscle coordination (bead stringing, tracing, dot pictures, pick-up sticks); (6) large muscle coordination (bean bags, dart games, ball throwing); (7) three dimensional form perception (puzzles, clay, pegboards); (8) two dimensional form perception (tracing, drawing, reproducing or matching forms). These findings applied to urban, suburban, and rural districts across socioeconomic level. These activities apparently have wide-spread support from teachers as reading readiness training. If these activities do not serve to develop reading readiness, then much effort is being misdirected.

In view of the wide-spread support of perceptual and perceptual-motor activities, continued efforts should be directed towards researching their effectiveness for developing reading readiness. However, priority for research in reading readiness should be placed on developing language-based reading readiness models. As previously discussed, the relationship between speech and reading is considerable. Psycholinguists theorize that both speech and reading should be viewed in the context of information processing (Smith, 1971; Kolers, 1970; Levin & Kaplan, 1970). Some researchers even suggest that speech and reading are processed in the same way (Smith, 1971), although others caution against considering the two processes to be identical (Gibson, 1972; Fleming, 1970; Conrad, 1972; and Mattingly, 1972).

Based on research done to date, it cannot be concluded that the use of non-language-based activities for developing reading readiness should be eliminated. However, in regard to developing reading readiness, the close relationship between speech and reading suggests that the use of language-based programs is more promising than the use of non-language-based programs.

#### REFERENCES

- Chall, Jeanne. *Learning to Read: The Great Debate*. New York, New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967.
- Conrad, R. "Speech and Reading." In J. Kavanaugh & I. Mattingly (Eds.), *Language by Ear and by Eye*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: M.I.T. Press, 1972, pp. 205-240.
- Durkin, Dolores. "What Does Research Say About the Time to Begin Reading Instruction?" *The Journal of Educational Research*, vol. 64, no. 2 (October 1970), pp. 51-60.
- Fleming, James T. "Learning from What Is Said and What Is Read." In F. Greene (Ed.), *Proceedings of the 20th Convention of the National Reading Conference*, 1970, pp. 67-72.
- Frostig, Marianne. *Developmental Test of Visual Perception* (3rd ed.). Palo Alto, California: Consulting Psychologists Press, 1961.
- Gibson, Eleanor. "Reading for Some Purpose." In J. Kavanaugh & I. Mattingly (Eds.), *Language by Ear and by Eye*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: M.I.T. Press, 1972, pp. 3-19.
- Grise, Philip. *Results of Sensory Motor or Perceptual Motor Programs on Beginning Reading Skills—A Review of the Literature*. Tallahassee, Florida: Florida State University, 1973. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 088 032)
- Hall, G. Stanley. *The Psychology of Adolescence*. New York, Appleton and Company, 1904.
- Kephart, Newell. *The Slow Learner in the Classroom*. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1960.
- Klesius, Stephen E. "Perceptual Motor Development and Reading—A Closer Look." In R. Aukerman (Ed.), *Some Persistent Questions on*

- Beginning Reading*. Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1972, pp. 151-159.
- Kolers, Paul. "Three Stages of Reading." In H. Levin & J. Williams (Eds.), *Basic Studies in Reading*. New York, New York: Basic Books, 1970, pp. 90-118.
- Labov, William. "Some Sources of Reading Problems for Negro Speakers of Non-standard English." In A. Frazier (Ed.), *New Directions in Elementary English*. Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1966, pp. 140-167.
- Lavatelli, Celia S. "A Systematized Approach to the Tucson Method of Language Teaching." In C. Lavatelli (Ed.), *Language Training in Early Childhood Education*. Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois Press, 1971, pp. 101-118.
- Levin, Harry and Kaplan, Eleanor. "Grammatical Structure and Reading." In H. Levin & J. Williams (Ed.), *Basic Studies in Reading*. New York, New York: Basic Books, 1970, pp. 119-133.
- Mattingly, Ignatius. "Reading, the Linguistic Process, and Linguistic Awareness." In J. Kavanaugh & I. Mattingly (Eds.), *Language by Ear and By Eye*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: M.I.T. Press, 1972, pp. 133-147.
- Menyuk, Paula. *Sentences Children Use*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: M.I.T. Press, 1969.
- Moore, Donald. "Language Research and Preschool Language Training." in C. S. Lavatelli (Ed.), *Language Training in Early Childhood Education*. Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois Press, 1971, pp. 2-48.
- Robinson, Helen M. "Perceptual Training—Does It Result in Reading Improvement?" In R. Aukerman (Ed.), *Some Persistent Questions on Beginning Reading*. Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1972, pp. 135-150.
- Ruddell, Robert. *Reading—Language Instruction: Innovative Practices*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1974.
- Smith, Frank. *Understanding Reading*. New York, New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1971.
- Spache, George and Spache, Evelyn. *Reading in the Elementary School*. Boston, Massachusetts: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1973.

# LISTENING INSTRUCTION IN COLLEGE READING PROGRAMS

*Thomas R. Schnell*

UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI-ST. LOUIS

The teaching of reading has been examined from various points of view and in great detail for many years, but a relative newcomer to the literature related to reading is the field of listening instruction. Recent estimates suggest that at least 90% of all listening research has been done since 1952 (Taylor, 1969), and that it has been done at all age and grade levels. Much of it, however, has been devoted to studies with secondary school and adult populations, particularly at the community college—college levels. At these levels, it is possible to categorize the research into four broad (and overlapping) areas, including:

1. Measures of listening ability in subjects who have received no specific instruction in listening;
2. Measures of improved listening ability in subjects receiving listening instruction;
3. Measures of the relationship among the skills of reading, listening, and note taking; and
4. "Speeded" listening.

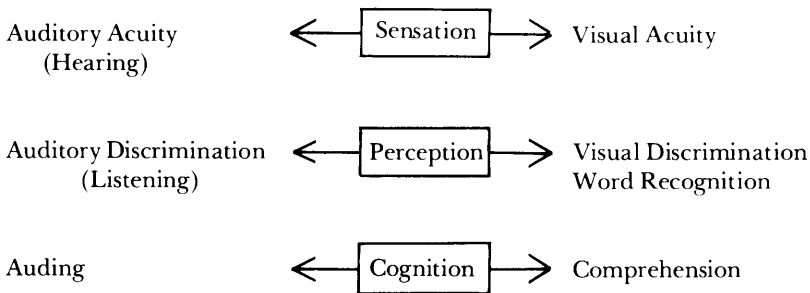
Without going into a lengthy and detailed review of the literature here, a brief summary of some major findings seems appropriate. Subjects who have not received instruction in listening skills are less successful in obtaining and retaining orally-presented information than subjects who have received specific instruction and practice in listening. Such a finding, while apparently obvious, leads directly to the conclusion that listening *can* be taught, and that improved listening ability is desirable (Dumdie, 1961; Cooper, 1967). Also of major importance is the finding that there is a positive and high correlation among listening skills, reading skills, and note taking skills (Erickson, 1964; Duker, 1968). A related finding is that instruction in listening frequently increases a subject's performance on standardized reading achievement tests (Schnell, 1975).

With the preceding information available, i.e., that listening skills can be taught and improved, the question arises as to why so little attention has been paid to development of this area. Some possibilities come to mind: Many people mistakenly confuse *hearing* with listening, leading them to believe that instruction is unnecessary. Others feel that it is not a skill worthy of time in the instructional program. Still others who might like to teach listening feel inadequately prepared to try it.

One of these ideas can be disposed of quickly; the worth of listening skill has been researched and documented in various studies. According to Taylor (1969), it was established as early as 1926 that the average adult's working day was spent largely in verbal communication (70%), with

reading taking only 16% of that time and listening taking 45% of that time. In educational settings, particularly community colleges and colleges, estimates of class listening time run as high as 90% of total class time. There is no question of the value of any skill whose use is so frequently required.

The other two topics are really the central focus of the remainder of this paper. First, let's examine the fallacy that hearing and listening are synonymous. The following diagram will perhaps help produce a more clear understanding of the hearing-listening distinction, while at the same time showing the relationship of listening and reading.



(Model modified from Burnett, "Perception in Reading," 1967.)

The most basic consideration in listening is whether or not the subject has satisfactory auditory acuity, just as satisfactory visual acuity is needed for successful reading. The human ear should be able to respond to various frequencies (pitch levels), generally described as those between 500 and 4,000 cycles per second (CPS), which are most commonly found in speech patterns. Also, there should be a response to intensity, or loudness, levels in the range of 55 to 85 decibels. Measurement of auditory acuity would normally be done with an audiometer; however, visual signals of hearing difficulty may indicate a need for screening to be done.

At the perception level, auditory discrimination and vocabulary knowledge are brought into play as the hearer becomes a listener. The subject responds to changes in stress, pace, juncture, pitch . . . he uses syntactical and grammatical knowledge to anticipate the speaker's ideas or words, and responds to the message as it is received.

As the input of oral language continues, the listener attempts to understand what is being said; he should use his own background knowledge to evaluate what the speaker is saying, in much the same way a reader would attempt to comprehend the printed page.

The second topic is that of developing a program of instruction which could be employed in improving listening skills. Some references of particular value would include:



1. Duker, Sam. *Listening Bibliography*. Metuchen, N. J.: Scarecrow Press, 1968.
2. Russell, David and Elizabeth. *Listening Aids Through the Grades*. New York: Teacher's College Press, Columbia University, 1959.
3. Taylor, Stanford. *What Research Says to the Teacher: Listening*. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1969.

In teaching the skills of listening, much value is found in the materials developed for reading, with only minor modification needed. Several basic skills can be taught rather effectively by using reading materials, only the instructor reads the items to the class members instead of the class members reading the items to themselves. The following list of suggestions is by no means intended to be exhaustive; it is, instead, a sample of things that can be done.

### I. Vocabulary Development

#### A. Study of Verbal Relationships

1. Synonyms: Name a word that means the same as: bad; happy; deceitful
2. Opposites: Give me a word that means the opposite from: correct; postpone; enjoy
3. Analogies: Complete the statement: Leg is to knee as arm is to \_\_\_\_\_.

#### B. Common Usage

In your own words, tell me what these terms mean: uptight; wasted; jive

#### C. Context

1. Supply the missing word in the sentence:  
They saw camels in the sandy (*desert*).  
That animal is not happy, and has a nasty (*disposition*).  
Marks on a bullet allow the identification of the gun which fired it through the use of (*ballistics*).

### II. Following Directions

- A. Give directions from one location to another, then draw a map from memory.
- B. Tell students how to perform a task such as tying a square knot, then have them try it.

### III. Improving Comprehension

#### A. Finding Main Ideas

1. Read a short story to the class and ask listeners to give it a reasonable title.
2. Read a passage to the class, asking them to state in one or two words what it was about.

3. Using the "About" word from (2) as the subject, have students state the point of the passage they heard.
- B. Recognizing Important Details
  1. Read several statements to the class, having them rank the statements in order of importance.
  2. Listen to a brief lecture, outlining it as it is given.
- C. Following Sequence
  1. Listen to a series of directions, then follow them in proper order.
  2. Listen to a story, then relate the events in the order given.

Materials for these activities could all be developed from such reading materials as SRA's *Reading for Understanding*, Barnell-Loft's *Specific Skills Series*, and *Reader's Digest Skill Builders*.

In summary, then, listening is probably the most used of the language arts skills and is the one least likely to be given formal instruction. In college classrooms, the listening time spent is around 90% of total class time, and students who receive formal instruction in listening tend to be more successful listeners than those who do not receive instruction. It appears that all people who teach developmental and/or corrective classes could help their students' academic performances by building some listening instruction into their reading programs. Certainly it would provide those students with a better chance for academic survival than they might have otherwise.

## REFERENCES

- Burnett, Richard W., "Perception in Reading," *Journal of the Association for the Study of Perception*, (Spring 1967), 2: 3-6.
- Cooper, Louis J., "The Effect of Training in Listening on Reading Achievement," *Vistas In Reading*, International Reading Association Conference Proceedings (1967), Part I.
- Duker, Sam, "Listening and Reading," *Remedial Reading: An Anthology of Sources*, eds. Shell and Burns. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1968. Pp. 268-270.
- Dumdie, Milton F., "The Effects of a Listening Program and a Reading Program Upon Listening and Reading Comprehension." (Unpublished master's thesis, University of Wisconsin, 1961.)
- Erickson, Allen G., "Can Listening Efficiency Be Improved?" *Journal of Communication*, (Winter 1954), 4: 116-121.
- Russell, David and Elizabeth, *Listening Aids Through the Grades*. New York: Teachers College Press, 1959.
- Schnell, Thomas R., "Improving Standardized Reading Test Scores Through Listening Instruction," *Forum For Reading*, (April 1975), 4: 19-23.
- Taylor, Stanford E., *What Research Says to the Teacher: Listening*. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1969.

# READING VIEWED AS THE RESULT OF WRITING

*Michael McKenna*

UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI, COLUMBIA

In its typical circumstances, the process of silent reading is essentially an individual endeavor. It is individual, however, only in the sense that a single person, functioning alone, attempts to “decode,” or “reconstruct,” meaning from written language. While this view is in itself an accurate one, it is not altogether adequate. A much fuller, and certainly a more realistic, perspective becomes possible when reading is seen as the inevitable result of writing.

The importance of such an overview is most apparent in the distinction between good and bad, correct and incorrect, acceptable and unacceptable, reading. In the former categories, the difference between that meaning which is expressed by the writer (both implicitly and explicitly) and that which is afterward reconstructed by the reader is small. Indeed, the primary goal of all reading teachers should be to make it as small as possible. But in focusing their concern on the expression and reconstruction of meaning, they seldom recognize that meaning originates in a form which is distinct from either of these. It begins with the writer, as intended meaning. His task in writing is to convert his intentions into expressions, and it is from the latter alone that the reader must infer the former.

From writer to reader, then, there are three regions, or “sets,” of meaning, all of which interact. One is intended, one is expressed, one is reconstructed. And if the difference in the last two is a measure of effective reading, the difference in the first two is a measure of effective writing. This relationship is depicted in Figure 1.

The overlapping of these areas makes it possible to classify meaning in seven specific ways. Region *a*, the mutual intersection of the three areas, represents the ideal for readers and writers alike. Here, meaning is both intended and expressed by the writer and in turn is successfully reconstructed by the reader. The single objective of the writer is met: to express what is intended in the hope it will be reconstructed. Similarly, the single objective of the reader is attained: to reconstruct what has been expressed in the hope it has been intended. Put mathematically, both objectives reduce to a single formula:

$$M_i = M_e = M_r.$$

If region *a* is the ideal, however, then each of the other six regions must indicate some manner of error, some malfunctioning of the process. Region *b*, for example, represents meaning which is neither intended nor expressed but which is nonetheless gathered by the reader. In this case, the reader is

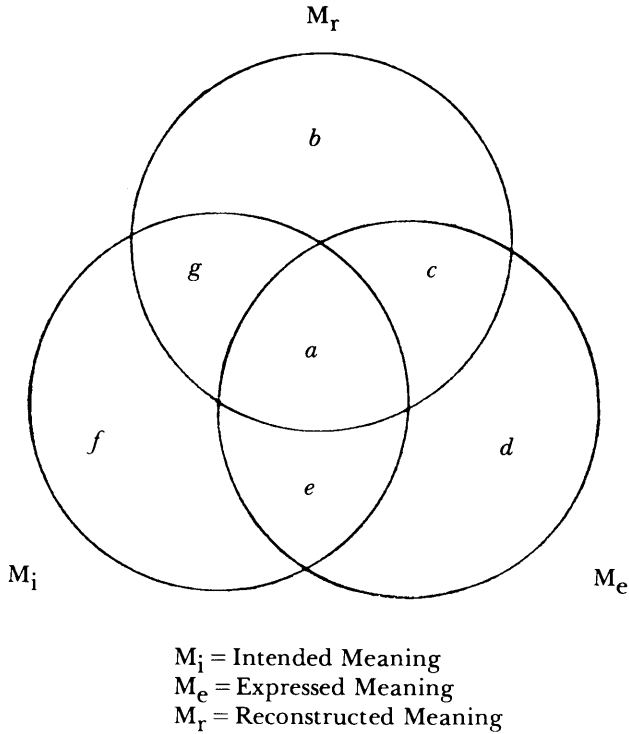


Figure 1. Regions of Meaning in Reading and Writing

exclusively at fault. Region *c* represents that meaning which is expressed and reconstructed but which somehow has not been intended by the writer. Accordingly, it is the writer who is to blame. Region *d* stands for meaning which, while expressed, is neither intended by the writer nor reconstructed by the reader. The writer, then, is in error here for having expressed what he did not intend, but the reader is also at fault for having failed to read what has been expressed. In a sense, this joint culpability may operate for the best in that unintended information does not pass to the reader. Region *e* depicts meaning both intended and expressed but which has been missed by the reader. Here, then, the mistake is the reader's. Region *f* represents that portion of the writer's intended meaning which he fails either to express or to convey, and, accordingly, the failure is exclusively his. Region *g*, on the other hand, also depicts meaning which was intended but not expressed. Here, however, the reader has somehow stumbled onto the writer's unexpressed intent. Even though the result is good, the reader has erred in arriving at such meaning because it has not been expressed. There is a

difference between speculating as to the author's thoughts on the basis of the text and erroneously "perceiving" them in language which does not contain them. Like region *d*, therefore, region *g* is a source of error jointly attributable to reader and writer.

The similarity of regions *d* and *g* regarding error is not an accident. The sources of mistakes in the writer-to-reader sequence comprise a systematic pattern which can best be emphasized by reproducing Figure 1 so that each region reflects the responsibility for its presence outside the intersection.

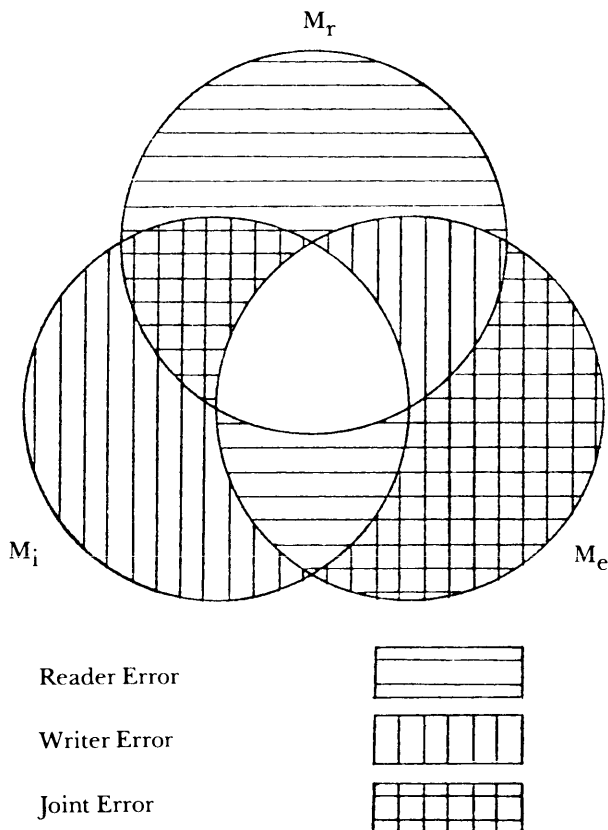


Figure 2. Sources of Error in the Writer-to-Reader Sequence

So far, consideration has been given only to the individual sectors created by the overlapping of the three major meaning areas. Further analysis is possible when these regions are thought of collectively as comprising larger sets. Regions *b* and *c* together represent all meaning which is reconstructed but unintended. Regions *b*, *c*, and *d* represent all meaning

which is expressed and/or reconstructed but which is unintended by the writer. This process of forming groups of twos and threes can be continued until region *a* has been circled and one arrives again at *b*. Additional groupings of interest are regions *a* and *g*, *a* and *c*, and *a* and *e* in that they constitute the simple intersections of the three main areas. Lastly, the collection of all regions except *a* represents the totality of error in the writer-to-reader sequence—a suggestion previously made.

A basic strength of envisioning the reading process as part of a more encompassing operation lies in the clear analysis of problem situations. For example, it is tempting to say that region *b* can involve writer as well as reader error in the case of ambiguous expression. That is, the reader may be misled into reconstructing unexpressed meaning. But if the reader is aware of the ambiguity as he reads (as he should be) and infers properly (i.e., according to the author's intent), the situation falls in region *a*. If, on the other hand, he infers improperly, the situation falls in region *c*. Ambiguous language involves a choice of expressions. The fact of the expression limits the regions to *a*, *c*, *e*, and *d*. The fact of the choice limits these to *a* and *c*. Region *b* is reserved for meaning which is reconstructed by the reader but which is not expressed, not even ambiguously.

A further strength of the model lies in its generality. As it is presented, error may seem to fall rather regularly into each of the satellite regions. This is a practical convention, however, for while actual circumstances may reduce some areas and increase others, no such changes can be generalized to all situations. The works of a great writer, more than for other writers, should virtually eliminate regions, *c*, *d*, *g*, and *f*. He expresses what he intends to express. Moreover, the good reader, unlike the poor one, compels the reduction of regions *e*, *d*, *g*, and *b*. That is, he intends to reconstruct what has been expressed.

The goals of both reading and writing, then, are most profitably viewed in conjunction. In this way only does the relationship of one to the other become both comprehensive and comprehensible.

# TOWARD A MORE POSITIVE CONCEPT IN READING

*Marcia Lynne Pennington*

MAGNOLIA JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL, CHINO, CALIFORNIA

"Hi!" I greeted George as he lazily ambled across the threshold into my classroom.

"Oh, hello. Here I am again," he blurted as he sank reluctantly into his chair.

I could see that it was going to be one of those days. George was a student who had very little interest in school and no interest in reading. At least he showed up today. He usually cuts class whenever possible.

There are students like George in classrooms all around the country. Why are so many unmotivated to learn good reading skills? What can teachers of reading do on a daily ongoing basis to improve the self-concept of students and thereby stimulate motivation in the reading situation? What activities can build self-concept? How can the teacher be ready for a student like George?

There are no clear-cut answers to these questions. However, there are things that the teacher can and should do to promote a positive self-concept.

## PROVIDING THE ENVIRONMENT

The first step in providing a good, positive environment in the reading class is the establishment of a good working relationship between the teacher and student. The student should be made to feel that although he may be but one member of a class, his interests, thoughts, and feelings are important. This self-worth should be built up through continuous positive feedback from the teacher to the student. There should be materials in the room at the student's independent reading level and free reading time should be encouraged. There should be at least three books, magazines, or periodicals of interest to each individual in the class. It is not difficult to take an interest inventory (one can either be self-made by the teacher, or borrowed from the library) at the very beginning of the school year to find out what these various interests might be. Free reading and recreational reading should be encouraged as much as possible. The student will then tend to see that reading can be an enjoyment as well as a task. Wilson gives a good definition of reading for enjoyment which is as follows:

Free reading in this case implies reading which is not followed by question and answer periods and reading in which the child is relatively free to choose the desired materials. As the child understands that free reading can be fun and is important enough to

take school time, gradual change in attitudes are likely to be noted (Wilson, 1972).

The teacher must be sure to create an interesting and meaningful environment in reading materials for each student. The student must see that the teacher is on his side and willing to help.

### AFFECTIVE GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT

The teacher needs to assess not only the student's academic strengths and weaknesses, but also be attentive of the affective area of growth and development. The task of learning to read begins in the affective domain. The student must feel good about himself and his environment in order to be positive toward the act of reading. If the student's feelings about himself are negative, it becomes the teacher's job to turn those feelings into positive ones. One way to do this is through assessment of the student and his actions.

Any of the following indications may show that there is a self-concept problem:

Does the student often make negative comments about himself? Does he avoid working with peers, or do his peers avoid him? Is he made fun of by others in the class? Does he crave constant attention, or does he seldom volunteer for anything? Does the student manifest negative non-verbal behavior such as sulking in his chair or making negative social expressions? Any of these symptoms alone or as a combination may indicate self-concept problems. The perceptive teacher will spot these problems and deal with them according to the needs of the student.

### CLASSROOM MATERIALS FOR AFFECTIVE GROWTH

When the problem has definitely been identified, how does the teacher relate to this person and try to create a better situation?

Many things can be done in the classroom to build attitude and self-concept. The first of these is the use of appropriate activities and materials. The reading teacher should start a folder on each student at the beginning of the year or whenever the student enters class. Strengths and weaknesses in the academic area should be assessed through individualized informal inventory as well as standardized tests. In using the Informal Inventory, the teacher can more easily pinpoint specific skill deficiency or problem areas on a one-to-one basis with the student. An informal inventory gives the more personal relationship needed to promote good feeling and show that the teacher is concerned and interested. Follow-up conferences should be set up to discuss the test results, as well as individual strengths and the reasons for studying certain specific skill areas. Interests and student feelings about school and outside activities should also be discussed so that the teacher will not only know what level of reading materials to provide, but also what types of books each person will enjoy.



When setting up individual conferences, the positive points of the student's work should be emphasized. It is a good opportunity to show the student all the good papers he has done and give a sample of that work to the student for review and reference. The conference is a time to plan activities that will remediate weaknesses and be meaningful to the student as well. The conference is especially important in a larger class or lab situation, so that the student will see that the teacher is interested in him as an individual.

### THE USE OF BIBLIOTHERAPY

Another way to stimulate positive attitudes is through Bibliotherapy. Bibliotherapy is giving students books to read that will help them to think about people in various life situations which may be similar to their own. The stories usually concern people with problems trying to work things out for themselves. The problem reader can learn from reading about problems and personalities of others. These problems may relate to problems the student himself has had to face in his own life situation. In using Bibliotherapy and giving students a chance to read and pick out books at individual independent levels, Joseph Sanacore suggests that the teacher "organize parts of the classroom into small libraries containing books and materials at various interest and reading levels. Include at least five books per student, magazines, newspapers, film strips, and creative bulletin boards." (Sanacore, 1975)

It is important that the teacher arrange the room appropriately to meet the various needs of each individual student. The reading material should always include stories about people and situations that the pupils can learn from and identify with. Materials should always stimulate positive student growth in the affective domain as well as the cognitive skill areas.

### OBJECTIVES AND ASSESSMENT OF GOALS

Once the classroom has been set up with appropriate materials and the teacher has had several conferences with each student, the next step toward positive self-concept is assessment and reassessment of teacher objectives. The teacher must continually chart and re-evaluate the progress of each individual on an on-going basis. The affective domain has been too often neglected in these evaluations. If the student is to be motivated, then objectives must be set towards that goal as well. The student should be encouraged to do tasks that have a high probability of success. When students are apathetic towards reading (especially at the Secondary Level) it may be that they have failed for so many years previous that they do not feel they can succeed at anything. If their reading is poor, they will have trouble in other areas of schoolwork. The failure will increase and the attitude will become more negative. There may also be a bad home environment negative toward or not conducive to learning.

It is the reading class which really takes the most responsibility for

building self-concept and attitude. If the student learns to read, he can begin to use these skills to success in other academic pursuits.

### WORKING WITH FUNCTIONAL SKILLS

There should be a time set aside in the reading class to work on functional skills and to help build self-confidence in the content areas. Specific units dealing with practical tools and skills the student needs in Math, Science, and Social Studies will show the individual that reading is a practical tool needed in all academic areas.

If the reader has a negative attitude about other subjects and using reading as a practical tool, then the best way to begin work is through interest and enjoyment factors. In the article, "The Case of The Reluctant Readers," an English teacher, Gloria Chantland suggests that using mystery stories and books to intrigue will stimulate interest.

"They were read to orally until a crucial moment in the story and then told that if they wanted to know what happened they would have to read the ending of the story from the ditto sheets on my desk. There was a race to the front of the room and then silence as they read—reading because they wanted to find out what happened."  
(Chantland, 1976, p. 32)

Mrs. Chantland further suggests getting students interested in observation of detail, figuring out clues to mysteries, and then having students write their own mystery stories. It is important to be sure that the students find success with these types of stories. Most secondary students (although they may be disinterested in learning good reading skills) are interested in good mystery stories and adventure books. Therefore, a generous supply of high interest, low level materials of this sort would be a good asset to the reading class.

Since individualized instruction is highly recommended in building attitude and self-concept, tutors and teacher aides should ideally be incorporated in the program whenever possible to create the one-to-one situation the teacher cannot always provide on a daily basis. Students with significant self-concept and attitude problems should have someone continually there to build on their self-esteem through Language Experience as well as the regular skill activities.

### USE OF THE LANGUAGE EXPERIENCE GROWTH

Through the Language Experience Approach the student is made to feel good about himself and to see that what he knows about is important. The teacher or aide has the student tell about an experience or interest and they compose a story about it together. The teacher writes the story in the student's own words, and then the student is asked to read it back at his own pace. Since the story has been written in the student's own words, and using

his own language system, it should not be difficult for him to do. Most students enjoy Language Experience and it helps them to build confidence in their ideas and what they know about. This approach can also be used with pictures. The student can pick out a picture to write about and discuss. The use of a picture file by the teacher or aide can help stimulate interest for the students who are not sure what they like or don't like to write about. Language Experience can help a reader develop hobbies and interests as well as realize the fact that he is projecting original knowledge and ideas to compose the story.

### OTHER MATERIALS TO AID LANGUAGE SKILLS

Along with Language Experience, tape recorders, video-tape, and books with tape dialogue to follow along (such as the Reader's Digest series) can be used with several students and an aide, or by individual students. It gives the student added confidence to hear himself on tape, or be able to work the recorder and attachments by himself.

Some helpful hints for teachers in building self-concept are outlined by Bernard Kingsley when he states, "Directions should be simple enough so that work can proceed independently. Techniques are not to be used as whole class drills, but instead should be of high interest and used to fill a specific need of a group or individual. Activity should be of high interest level, questions thought provoking, and paragraphs worth reading." (Kingsley, 1973, p. 30)

### SELF-CONCEPT AND BEHAVIOR

Dechant describes self-image or concept as "that organization of qualities that the individual attributes to himself. Self-esteem is the degree of similarity between the self you are and the self you would like to be." (Dechant, 1973)

The individual's self-concept then has a direct influence on the behavior of that individual. Responses of others towards that person are very important to how the individual will see himself. This will influence his self-concept and guide his behavior.

Dechant points out that "Educators believe that good education generally (and reading instruction particularly) should enhance the personal and social adjustment of the student." (Dechant, 1973)

In secondary schools especially, adolescents are going through many physical and emotional changes. The reading teacher needs to understand that these changes are also being complicated by pressure to do well in school as well as being accepted by one's peer group. If the teacher can set up an environment where hobbies and interests are stimulated for the teenager through reading, this will promote a more positive self-concept. It is of ultimate importance that the student succeed in reading, even at the simplest levels. A little bit of success will restore confidence and self-worth to the individual.

“Reading failure will always be with us. Failure of any kind makes the satisfaction of the student’s needs rather difficult. Failure in reading is a continual block to normal development. For the poor reader, self-esteem and self-actualization rarely become a reality.” (Dechant, 1973)

The poor reader has not compared well with his peers. He is often made fun of and looked down on. He has failed to meet the competition. It could just be that he has not been taught what his modalities of strength are and how to use these strengths fully. Perhaps no teacher has really taken the time to help that person. Whatever the cause the teacher is responsible to make a positive atmosphere for the student. If the student has been previously programmed and pegged by parents and teacher to be “slow,” this effect will remain with the student even though he may well have the ability to achieve. Dechant stated that “most emotional reactions in reading disability can be explained as the learner’s frustrated reactions to a task that is compatible perhaps to others but not compatible to that student. One of the really great rationalizations in the classroom for doing nothing is that the student is emotionally disturbed.” (Dechant, 1973)

Emotional problems retard reading growth and the pupils will have more difficulties in the other academic areas as time goes on. If the reading ability improves through careful programming and direction, self-concept will build and reflect positively onto other subject areas as well.

### STUDENT MOTIVATION AND ATTITUDE

To achieve in reading the student must want to learn. The teacher should find out what the student’s interests are, and build upon these interests to provide not only interesting and readable material, but to perhaps broaden and enrich the lives of the pupils. The stories and magazines should be lively and involve people in real life situations which students can identify with. Provide class time for recreational reading and book clubs or hobby clubs based on readings of appropriate material. The classroom atmosphere should be flexible, but organized. The attitude should be positive and tolerant of others. Students should be able to confer with the teacher on an individual basis to assess progress in goals and objectives, as well as share interests and feelings.

The perceptive teacher, who is organized and interested in the students cannot help but improve general self-concept in each student. The teacher must try to broaden and stimulate student interest by introducing new varieties of taste and thought through reading. Since motivation flows through interest, without motivation there is no will to do, and no drive to learn. The student will never develop into a mature reader without the will to do so.

After thinking, planning, and using the techniques that will build motivation, perhaps a scene with a student like George and the reading teacher next year will go something like this:

"Hi Mrs. Smith. I'm taping a story today about bikes."

"Bikes, George," she said. "That's great. It should be interesting to read. Will you write it for us when you are finished taping?"

"Sure I will. That is, if I can get the recorder to myself so that I can copy down what I've said when I'm done."

She had reflected on the change in student attitude and hoped that she had helped it to come about.

"George," she said, "I'd really like to read that when you're done. It sounds like a good story."

## REFERENCES

- Bond, Guy L., and Tinker, Miles A., *Reading Difficulties: Their Diagnosis and Correction*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1973.
- Bloomer, Richard L., *Skill Games to Teach Reading*. Dansville, New York. The Instructor Publications, Inc. 1973.
- Chantland, Gloria, "The Case of the Reluctant Readers" from *Today's Education* (November-December Issue, 1976). The National Education Association, pp. 32-34.
- Dechant, Emerald, *Reading Improvement in the Secondary Schools*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1973.
- Miller, Wilma H., *Diagnosis and Correction of Reading Difficulties in Secondary Schools*. New York, The Center for Applied Research in Education, 1973.
- Sanacore, Joseph, "Reading Self-Concept: Assessment and Enhancement" from *The Reading Teacher* (November, 1975) pp. 165-166.
- Smith, Frank, *Understanding Reading: A Psycholinguistic Analysis of Reading and Learning to Read*. New York: Holt, Rinehart.
- Wilson, Robert M., *Diagnostic and Remedial Reading for Classroom and Clinic*. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1972.

# PERSONALITY AND BEHAVIOR TRAITS IN BASAL READERS

*Patricia K. Smith*

WEST VIRGINIA UNIVERSITY, MORGANTOWN, WEST VIRGINIA

The reading of stories provides a way of living vicariously in a multitude of social and emotional situations. A reader can identify with the problems encountered by characters in stories but greater consequence results from identification with the characters. Children and adolescents, who identify with another individual whose personal and vocational life they hope to emulate, may function at significantly higher levels than those who have no ideal.

Data from past research has indicated that "cultural attitudes and values are conveyed through the content of stories" (Blom, 1968). This study was generated to determine whether males and females in basal reading textbooks have the same treatment concerning personality traits and representation. A conceptual scheme of characteristics, i.e., the sex role assignment and the personality behaviors was constructed.

Validated traits, inherent in the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (16PF, Cattell, 1970) were used in the scheme for personality behaviors. Each behavior trait in Cattell's questionnaire was suitable for use in the analysis of the behaviors in basal reading stories. Because human males and females were not used, the personality traits were used, not as a questionnaire, but as personality behaviors to analyze male and female characters. Each main character was assigned the predominant personality behaviors which the character appeared to demonstrate. The main characters were classified according to their sex role assignment and had his/her predominant personality behaviors tallied. Supportive characters were tallied by sex, the number of occurrences of males and females, and by occupation.

Six basal reading series were analyzed: *Sheldon Reading Series*, Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1973; *The Bookmark Reading Program*, Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1974; *Harper and Row Basic Reading*, Harper and Row, 1972; *The Holt Basic Reading System*, Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1973; *The Young America Basic Reading Program*, Lyons and Carnahan, 1974; and *Macmillan Reading Program*, The Macmillan Company, 1974. Each of the reading series consisted of approximately twelve reading levels. A total of 516 stories from the six basal reading series was analyzed.

## *Analysis of Sex Role Assignment*

The sex role assignment was examined in all basal reading series according to total main and supportive characters, analysis of sex role assignment in each basal series, and the analysis of sex role assignment by grade level.

A total of 792 main characters were portrayed in 516 stories randomly selected for analysis. In thirty-four stories no main characters were portrayed but several characters shared supportive roles equally. An overall frequency and percentage distribution indicated that main male characters outnumbered main female characters at a ratio of 2.6 to 1. A total of 1,484 supportive characters were portrayed in the basal reading series. Female supportive characters were outnumbered by male supportive characters 1.9:1. When main and supportive characters were totaled, there was an overall average of 2.3 males to 1 female. The comparisons of the total occurrences of male and female supportive characters were comparable to the male and female main characters. This analysis indicated that males and females do not occur equally in basal reading series.

Each basal reading series illustrated the main male character as the dominant personality over the main female character with ratios beginning at 2.9:1 for Harcourt Brace Jovanovich and diminishing to 2.2:1 for Macmillan. For supportive characters the ratio for male and female characters narrowed although not noticeably.

All companies were combined by grade levels beginning with the preprimer level and concluding with the sixth grade level. This analysis gave a horizontal description to indicate whether or not there was a grade level trend among companies concerning the treatment of males and females. At the preprimer level male main characters outnumbered female main characters 1.7:1. With the exception of the second grade level, the ratios increased for each successive level. However, since total male main characters outnumbered total female main characters 2.6:1, the ratio from the preprimer level through fourth level would indicate a decrease in the ratio of males to females in basal reading series. The contrast among grade levels for main characters indicated that only the preprimer level with a critical ratio of 2.42 was significant at the .05 level but all other levels from one to six were significant at the .01 level. As the grade level increased, the critical ratio increased with the exception of grade one which had a high critical ratio of 4.50.

Portrayal of supportive males and females for each grade level indicated some inconsistencies in the grade level ascent for supportive characters. No pattern became evident even though there was a minimal increase of supportive male characters. Critical ratios of sex role assignment for supportive characters in each grade level indicated a trend similar to that of main characters.

#### *Analysis of Personality Behaviors*

Since main male characters outnumbered main female characters 2.6:1, it would appear logical that the personality traits exhibited by main males and main females should continue at a ratio of 2.6:1. However, twelve behaviors had a closer balance between males and females indicating that both sexes exhibit similar personality behaviors. The twelve personality traits were experimenting, shrewd, venturesome, expedient, emotionally stable, undisciplined self-conflict, imaginative, more intelligent, self-sufficient, reserved, assertive and sober.

The results of the analysis of personality behaviors indicated that males in current basal reading series were portrayed more frequently as emotionally stable, venturesome, and experimenting in significantly higher numbers than females who were depicted as shy, conservative, and easily affected by feelings ("female" behaviors).

The Allyn and Bacon series demonstrated that males were more assertive, emotionally stable, self-sufficient, and relaxed than were females. In the Harcourt Brace Jovanovich series, males demonstrated more intelligent behavior and portrayed imaginative rather than practical personalities in this series. Two personality traits significant in the Harper and Row series were happy-go-lucky and tough-minded. The Holt, Rinehart and Winston series demonstrated males vs. females as emotionally stable. No significant differences were noted in the Lyons and Carnahan and Macmillan series.

In the six basal reading programs, nine personalities from a total of ninety-six pairs were significant. All basal reading programs treated males and females equally with the exception of the nine significant personalities which were "male" behaviors. The male behaviors were: assertive, emotionally stable (two occurrences), self-sufficient, relaxed, more intelligent, imaginative, tough-minded and happy-go-lucky.

The basal reading programs were combined so each grade level could be examined to determine whether a grade level trend existed. The analysis indicated that males and females behaved in similar manners in the preprimer, first and third grade books. One personality trait, forthrightness, was typically male for the fourth grade books. Two traits, venturesome and forthrightness, were "male behaviors" for fifth grade books. Sixth grade books portrayed three personality traits, emotionally stable, controlled, and relaxed as male traits.

In the primary grades all of the textbooks indicated an equality concerning the personalities of males and females. Only one personality from a total of fifty-one indicated that males were forthright while females were not. A small increase was noted for the intermediate grades with males being venturesome, shrewd, emotionally stable, controlled and relaxed.

### *Occupations and Role Models*

The occupation indicated in the total of 516 stories included main and supportive adult characters. Some of the listed occupations were actually role models but were included with occupations. Most occupational or role model observations occurred separately for men and women. In eleven instances men and women shared the same occupation or role model. In the traditionally male breadwinner role, two females in two different stories (in first and fifth grade books) were shown as working mothers or the heads of their families. In the traditional role of homemaker, there was one occasion, in a first grade book, in which a man character was portrayed in a homemaker role. He was drying dishes as the mother washed them. A total of 137 males were portrayed in 85 occupations or role models while 174 females were portrayed in 27 occupations or roles.



Biographical personalities and folk fantasy stories indicated that males were again over-represented. Analyzed were 39 biographies of which 34 were male-oriented and 5 were female-oriented. In fantasy stories there were 47 male stories, 8 female, and 21 male/female combinations.

### *Conclusions*

The analysis of sex role assignment and personality traits produced data which led to the following conclusions:

- a. None of the basal reading series or grade levels have begun to demonstrate equality concerning the number of occurrences of male and female characters.
- b. The basal reading series were statistically but not numerically equating the behaviors of males and females within their textbooks. Although females were significantly under-represented as characters, the behaviors applied to males and females were egalitarian with both sexes portraying each of the thirty-two personalities equally.
- c. The personalities of males and females by grade levels were depicted as statistically equal despite the increase in over-representation of "male" behaviors.
- d. The majority of stories in basal reading series portrayed males as the dominant sex.
- e. Sex stereotyping, dependent upon the personalities and behaviors exhibited by males and females, was not prevalent in each reading series since each sex was treated equally eliminating any prejudices or biases favoring either sex. There was no trend of sex stereotyping from grade to grade despite the occurrences of five stereotypical "male" personalities.
- f. Males and females were not treated equally among series concerning the diversity and number of occupations and the role model images which were presented in basal reading series.
- g. All basal reading series were egalitarian concerning personality traits indicating no trend from one basal reading program to another.

Since children are exposed to textbooks during their formative years, they will perpetuate the role models and personality traits which textbooks portray. An equality between males and females must be exhibited in basal reading series to provide boys and girls the exposure of observing vicariously a variety of opportunities to fulfill their human potentials. Because of an over-representation of males in textbooks, girls may begin to believe and internalize the idea that the male role in society is more important than the female role.

Role models in textbooks must be variable and change with society rather than remain stereotypical or traditional. Otherwise, the role models depicted in basal reading series will constrict or repress self-development of children. Narrowly defined role models will contribute to a negative self-image and emotional dependence, damaging to boys and girls.

Inspirational and aspirational material is available in biographies. An increased number of women portrayed in aspirational roles must be presented so girls will know that many professions are open to women.

Writers of textbook stories must portray women on an equal basis and offer boys and girls equally positive role images of physical, emotional and intellectual potential. Undoubtedly, the attitudes of writers are influenced by society which has exerted a powerful control on its members by placing certain restrictions on each of the sexes.

#### REFERENCES

- Blom, Gaston E. and others, "Content of First Grade Reading Books." *Reading Teacher*, January 1968, pp. 317-323.
- Bell, Alan P., "Role Models in Young Adulthood: The Relationship to Occupational Behaviors." *The Vocational Guidance Quarterly*, 18: 280+, June 1970.
- Cattell, Raymond B., Herbert W. Eber and Maurice M. Tatsusks. *Handbook for the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire*. Champaign, Ill.: Institute for Personality and Ability Testing, 1970, Used by Permission.
- Early, Margaret and others, *The Bookmark Reading Program*, New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc., 1974.
- Everetts, Eldonna L. and others, *The Harper and Row Design for Reading*, New York: Harper and Row Publisher, 1973.
- Everetts, Eldonna L. and others, *The Holt Basic Reading System*, New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1973.
- Foy, Leo and others, *The Young America Basic Reading Program*, Chicago: Lyons and Carnahan, Inc., 1974.
- Harris, Albert J. and others, *The Macmillan Reading Program*, New York: Macmillan Publishing Co., Inc., 1974.
- Sheldon, William D. and others, *Sheldon Reading Series*, Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1973.
- Smith, Patricia K., "An Analysis of the Treatment of Males and Females in Basal Reading Textbooks." Unpublished Doctor's Dissertation, West Virginia University, 1975.

# SUPPLYING THE MISSING LINKS FROM CONSONANT SUBSTITUTION TO "REAL READING"

*Patricia M. Cunningham*

*ALAMANCE COUNTY SCHOOLS, GRAHAM, NORTH CAROLINA*

Consonant substitution exercises are a common sight in most primary classrooms. Teachers find that beginning readers are quite successful at reading new words when these words are aligned under a rhyming stimulus:

cat  
mat  
brat  
slat.

Unfortunately this facility does not generally transfer when these same words appear in their reading material.

Railsback (1970) questioned the efficiency of consonant substitution as a method of word identification:

The reader must look at the word and decide whether he knows a word from which he changes the beginning or the ending sound. He then must mentally "remove" the sound and substitute the one from the strange word. For no other reason than the excessive amount of time it takes to think of a word that is similar and then to make the substitution, the process cannot be recommended as a word attack procedure. A far more serious weakness in this process, however, is the matter of determining the "known" word that is similar to the "unknown" word. (433)

Railsback also suggested that there is very little commonality between the consonant substitution exercises in which a word is written on the board to serve as the basis of substitution, with the other words written directly under it, and actual reading situations. In actual reading situations, there is no "known" word conveniently placed above the unknown word. The reader must somehow conjure up a mental image of a similar known word.

Griffin (1972) investigated the ability of children to employ initial and final consonant substitution. She stated that in order to employ consonant substitution techniques one must be able to: (1) recall from memory the form of a known word; (2) note similarity in form between the known and unfamiliar word; (3) associate sounds with a few consonant letters; and (4) blend an initial or final consonant sound with the remaining sounds in a word and identify the unfamiliar word.

Ninety second graders were randomly selected and presented with one

syllable simulated words. They were then asked to think of a real word that looked just like the simulated word except for the first letter or to think of a word that looked just like the simulated word except for the last letter. Finally, the subjects were asked to pronounce the simulated word. Griffin concluded that the ability to recall a known word visually similar to a simulated word was significantly associated with the ability to correctly identify one syllable simulated words.

Both Railsback and Griffin concluded that the difficult and crucial task in using consonant substitution as a word identification technique is in recalling a known word visually similar to the unknown word. In the remainder of this article a five-step teaching strategy will be outlined which will help beginning readers to use the words they know to figure out the words they don't know.

Step one: Do consonant substitution exercises as they have traditionally been done. The teacher or students think of a word and then change the initial or final consonant or consonants to produce new words. Students at this stage should develop facility with the consonant letter-sound associations and should verbalize that words which end alike generally rhyme and words that begin alike generally sound alike at the beginning.

Step two: Once the students have developed proficiency at consonant substitution begin to help them move toward recalling a known word visually similar to an unknown word. Give each student three index cards on which they will print three known words (e.g. cat, jump, hop). Whatever words are chosen, each student should have cards containing these same three words. Next, present them with words they are not likely to know and which differ from the three words on their cards in their initial or final consonant or consonants (e.g. bat, brat, chat, cap, cast, bump, stump, jug, chop, crop, hog, hot). Ask the students to find their word which looks most like the displayed word. At a signal from you, have them show their look-alike word. Next, have students compare and contrast the two words. How are they alike? How are they different? Where are they alike? Where are they different? Will they rhyme or begin alike? Finally, have a volunteer pronounce both the word on his card and the displayed word.

Continue with this process of choosing a match for an unknown word from a store of known words by increasing the number of words on index cards each day. Two or three words should be added each day until students have a store of from 15 to 20 known words. Practice in matching, comparing, contrasting and pronouncing the known word and the unknown word should be continued until students can accurately and consistently find their look-alike word and pronounce both words.

Step three: By now, students should be able to select from a tangible store of words a match which will help them decode an unknown word. Step three is to move them from a tangible store to a memory store. During this stage, instruction should proceed exactly as described in step two EXCEPT students should be asked to *think* of the word from their store of 15 or 20 which looks most like the unknown word. Students should have their store of 15 or 20 words available but should look through that store only when no

student can think of which word from his store looks most like the presented word. A volunteer should then pronounce the word he has thought of and the unknown word.

Step four: Your students are now almost to the goal of being able to recall a known word visually similar to an unknown word. They can already do this with the 15 or 20 words. Now, challenge them to use all the words they know to figure out words they don't know. Present words in the context of a sentence and ask the students to tell you any words they know which look similar to an unknown word. Be sure they understand at this point that they can use any known words not just the 15 or 20 they have been using. At this stage students should realize that not all visually similar words are pronounced alike and should use the information given by the other words in the sentence to check on the appropriateness of their match. If the look-alike word they have chosen does not result in a word which makes sense in the sentence, another look-alike word should be selected.

Step five: This step is easy but also easily overlooked! Provide for transfer from the practice to "real reading." As children are reading and come upon a word they don't recognize, say, "Do you know a word that looks like that word?" Give children time to read silently during which they write down any unknown words and a look-alike word. After the silent reading, these words can be shared with the entire group. Help children verbalize that in reading you can use what you know to figure out what you don't know and that you can check this process by seeing if the resulting message makes sense.

An adaptation of the above procedure was used by the author with a small group of second graders (Cunningham, 1975). The results supported the theory that students' ability to pronounce unknown words increased after practice in comparing the unknown to the known. An investigation is now underway with third and fourth graders in which the strategy described is extended to include polysyllabic words.

## REFERENCES

- Cunningham, Patricia M. Investigating A Synthesized Theory of Mediated Word Identification. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 1975-76, 11, 127-143.
- Griffin, M. Consonant Substitution—A Diagnostic Technique in Word Identification. In Harris, L. A., and Smith, C. B. (eds.), *Individualizing Reading Instruction, A Reader*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1972, 187-194.
- Railsback, C. E. Consonant Substitution in Word Attack. *The Reading Teacher*, 1970, 23, 432-435.

# WE SUGGEST

*Eleanor Buelke*

Fromm, Erich

*To Have Or To Be?*

New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1976. Pp. xxiv + 216.

For the third time, a book by Erick Fromm has been selected to be a part of the *World Perspectives* series. This is a series of books dedicated to the thesis that man is constantly in the process of developing a consciousness that can lift the human race above its present fears, ignorance, and feelings of isolation. It attempts to promote deeper understandings of interrelationships between mankind and the universe, the individual and society, and among values shared by all peoples. In this volume, Fromm is responding to a challenge given to the world by Albert Schweitzer when he accepted the Nobel Prize for Peace in 1952. It was then he dared the world to face the situation that:

... Man has become a superman ... But the superman with the superhuman power has not risen to the level of superhuman reason. To the degree to which his power grows he becomes more and more a poor man ...

In an attempt to develop an awareness in his readers of the debilitating destruction of individual well-being and dehumanizing deprivation in the world's socio-economic development and structure, this author discusses and analyzes two basic modes of existence: the mode of *having* and the mode of *being*.

He proceeds on the premise that the respective strengths of these two modes, *having* and *being*, determine the differences between characters of persons, and, also, among types of social character. In persons, the *having* mode is characterized by consideration of everybody and everything, including themselves, as property. In societies, this mode is evident in their orientation toward greed and the importance attached to the possession of things. Contrastingly, the *being* mode means aliveness, relatedness to the world, and change and growth as inherent qualities of the life process, whether experienced by whole societies, or by one person, alone.

Some would argue that alternative life modes are mere differences in philosophy, religious tenets, or sociological beliefs. Fromm has concluded that the hypothesis that life can be better or worse for both individuals and societies, depending upon which mode of existence it is based, is supported by empirical data. In individuals and society today, some observable evidences of the having mode are idiomatic changes in our language, with the growing use of nouns and decreasing use of verbs to express activities;

personal and societal relationships burdened with conflicts and jealousies, antagonism, and strife; increased concern with satisfaction of desires through pleasure-seeking and excitement, rather than through the experience of joy in the process of productive activity; and submission of our work and leisure activities to the rule of "maximal use of time," where time determines the rhythm of life, rather than the rhythm of life determining the use of time.

The author recognizes that both the having and being modes are potentialities of the nature of man, but does not hold that the having mode is unchangeable just by virtue of its being rooted in human nature. Although this dogma appears to determine methods of education and of work in the world of today, this writer claims that human beings also have "an inherent and deeply rooted desire to be; to express our faculties, to be active, to be related to others, to escape the prison cell of selfishness." As evidence for this belief, he cites data collected in experimentation and research in the following areas: animal behavior, neurophysiological activity in nerve cells, infantile behavior, learning behavior, work behavior, and social and political life. Further, he maintains that only a fundamental change from the having mode to the being mode can prevent psychological and economic catastrophe for mankind. Such a change can occur if:

1. People are suffering, and recognize that this is so;
2. People are aware of what is making them suffer;
3. People can see alternative ways to overcome this suffering; and
4. People accept and follow certain norms for living and changes in present life practices.

What does this kind of change mean to the character structure of the individual? It means giving up all forms of having; security and identity of self based on faith in what one is; accepting that life's meaning comes from within; joy through giving and sharing; love and respect for all forms of life; reducing hate and greed; living without idols and illusions; accepting limitation of human existence; being innocent, but not naive; knowing what one knows, and also what one does not know; freedom to be oneself; understanding and cooperating with nature; and happiness in one's ever-growing aliveness, regardless of the stage of one's life.

What are the implications of this kind of fundamental change for society? Continuance of industrial production, without total centralization or technological facism; abandonment of the "free-market" economy; replacement of unlimited growth goals for a selective growth concept; establishment of psychic satisfactions, rather than material gains, as work motivators; simultaneous furtherance of scientific progress and reduction in danger from its practical application; substitution of experience of well-being and joy for the maximum-pleasure drive; provision for individual security, avoiding dependency upon a bureaucracy; and restoration of individual initiation in living, rather than in business.

Such vast changes on a sweeping national and international level are no less staggering in their impact upon life priorities in all countries, for all ages, for both sexes, and in all areas of human existence, than they are

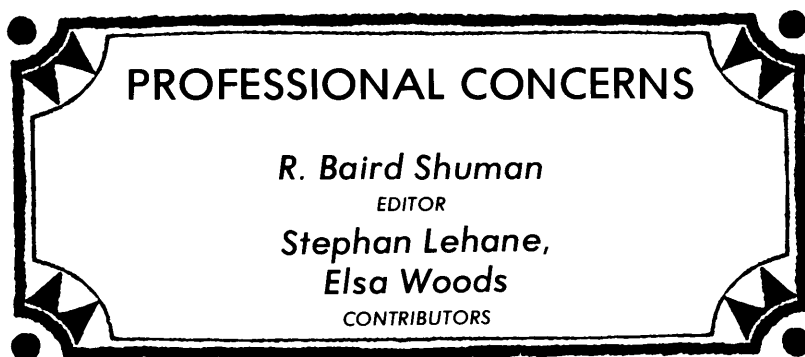
challenging to the minds of caring men and women everywhere. Anything short of the concerted efforts of the best minds of the world to achieve “a new humanistic science of Man” will inevitably lead to inability to sustain a viable society. At present, there seems reasonable chance that monumental changes appropriate to this goal will be implemented. But, when it becomes a matter of life and death, this “reasonable chance” *must* become a “real possibility.”

From discussion in this book, educators may make some inferences which are meaningful in their teaching and learning. In the being mode, the certainty and security of absolute truth give way to the process of human reason as self-affirmation. *To know more deeply* becomes more important than *to have more knowledge*. And, in the classroom, the “instructor” who *has* a curriculum is replaced by the “teacher” who *is* in a daily relationship with students. This significant difference has been noted recently by a well-known speaker and writer who says, “An instructor is only as large as the curriculum; a teacher is as large as life itself.”\*

---

\*Dr. Paul Brandwein, in an address, Second General Session, M.R.A.; Grand Rapids, Michigan; March 28, 1977.





## PROFESSIONAL CONCERNS

**R. Baird Shuman**

EDITOR

**Stephan Lehane,**

**Elsa Woods**

CONTRIBUTORS

*Professional Concerns is a regular column devoted to the interchange of ideas among those interested in reading instruction. Send your comments and contributions to the editor. If you have questions about reading that you wish to have answered, the editor will find respondents to answer them. Address correspondence to R. Baird Shuman, Department of English, 100 English Building, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois 61801.*

Have you ever wished that you could introduce your young kids to the classics in an exciting way? Have you ever wished that you could do a better job in merging writing and reading activities? Have you ever wished that you could do more to individualize reading instruction for your students? Stephan Lehane, who teaches Elementary Education at Duke University, and Elsa Woods, who is Reading Supervisor for the Durham County Schools of North Carolina, have devised an intriguing plan by which students are quickly motivated both to reading and to composition in the broadest sense of the word.

Capitalizing fully on the imagination of young students, the authors have succeeded in getting students to provide exciting outcomes for stories of high adventure. These outcomes are read by other students in the class; however, they are put to a number of other uses as well, all of them having to do basically with improving the student's ability to read.

## CLIFF HANGERS AN APPROACH FOR STIMULATING CREATIVE WRITING IN YOUNG CHILDREN

**Stephan Lehane and Elsa Woods**

"Will Bettye Buckle survive? Will Captain Stonefoot prevail over evil?"

Will the Windship be destroyed? Stay right where you are for the exciting conclusion. But first . . .”

For most of us this may have a familiar ring to it. Either an old-time radio thriller if not one of the closing scenes right out of those classic vintage serials that kept us glued to the silver screen every Saturday afternoon as kids. Yet in this case it's neither a radio show nor a movie. Rather it's a reading program for young children entitled, “The Amazing Adventures of Erik Stonefoot.” The program is based on stories that cover the exploits of Stonefoot as he locks horns with giants, staves off monsters or unearths great lost treasures. Each adventure finds Erik pinned to the wall, in some perilous situation, with the young reader being handed the challenge of writing a creative ending to extricate our hero. One cliff hanger may find Stonefoot about to be attacked by some elephant-size rats while another may have him sealed in a trunk far beneath the ocean. These two episodes are taken from *Gulliver's Travels*. For that matter all the Stonefoot plots are derived from the classics be it *Gulliver's Travels*, the *Odyssey*, or *Beowulf*. Such adventures are encountered by Erik as he voyages to far and forgotten lands by flying his magic cloud, the Windship.

Erik wasn't always this grand soldier of fortune. Initially the story pictures him as being rejected by his chums because he's so inept: hence the name Stonefoot. But our boy wins back his friends with a clever ruse. He gathers all the bits and pieces of string he can find and knots them together into a mile long cord which is then tied to a little white balloon filled with the magic gas, helium. As Erik walks into the playground he lets the little balloon dart up into the sky until it blends right into one of those big white puffy clouds floating overhead. It's not long before someone spots Erik holding a string leading up to a big cloud and yells, “Hey, look at Stonefoot. He's flying a cloud.” Erik is now an instant hero as he lets his friends fly the magic cloud. But all good things must come to an end. With the afternoon's shadows lengthening and the clouds fading into the dusk, Erik muses, “Let the cloud drift away, we can fly them any day.”

This sets the stage for the “Amazing Adventures . . .” Every night Stonefoot recruits a crew of friends and together they are carried off to some far flung adventure by his magic cloud, the Windship.

Invariably Stonefoot and his crew find themselves in some perilous predicament. It is only the imagination of the child which can save them from this horrendous situation.

Very young children, preschool through first grade, may dictate the final chapter in the continuing saga of Stonefoot. Initially this could be done by a small group of children each stimulating the other as the rescue is achieved. By the time the entire class had rescued our heroes there would be several different—but all creative—endings to the drama. Some children might prefer dramatizing their solutions, the teacher taking down their role playing as it proceeds.

Does the rescue need to make sense to adults? Definitely not. In the mind of a child anything is possible. The important issue is for the child to see that he has the power, through his imagination, to save Stonefoot and

his crew—that his thoughts may be expressed, heard, accepted and written for him, or for someone else, to read or hear.

After determining the fate of Stonefoot the story may be read to and/or with the children and they may then illustrate their stories. As pictures are being completed, the teacher may circulate among the students writing a key word, such as *Stonefoot*, on each child's drawing. If desired, the child may select his own word to have printed, or he may print it himself.

With students who are ready for reading instruction the second day may be spent rereading the story individually with the teacher. Words the child can read should be underlined. Words recognized on two successive days may be added to the child's word box to be used later in creating sentences or stories. Other children may use their mimeographed copies of the story as a worksheet on which to find all the words that begin with the sound of *sun*, or *ball*, or *monkey*, etc. Children who need language development may work with the teacher on expanding sentences or substituting vocabulary. Some children may be involved in preparing a dramatization or puppet show of their story. A few children may be matching individual word cards with words in the story. The list for possible follow-up activities is almost endless.

Children who have reached the stage of doing their own writing may create their own conclusions for our heroes. In doing the first one the teacher may want to let them work in pairs or small groups. Once their stories are written, students should read or have read their rescue of Stonefoot and his crew. This reading by others will help students to conceptualize the idea that others can enjoy their thoughts, as well as to realize the necessity for effective communication.

Students may then select words for their word boxes, prepare a book of Stonefoot's latest adventure, write questions to accompany their stories, prepare radio programs, read their adventures to other children or just enjoy the fruits of their creative labors privately.

# PHONICS . . . LEARNING TO READ AND ALL THAT STUFF

*J. Lloyd Eldredge*

(Editor's note—Dr. J. Lloyd Eldredge, Coordinator of Elementary Education for the State of Utah, recently presented a week-long conference for the Reading Institute at Western Michigan University. *Horizons* is pleased to publish the following article by Dr. Eldredge, who is well known for his work with learning cycles.)

In May of 1975, a representative sample of Utah students in grades six, nine, and eleven were tested to obtain answers to the following questions related to the state objectives:

1. To what extent can the students in Utah's schools identify words they don't initially recognize in print? (Word Attack Skills Components)
2. To what extent can the students in Utah's schools decode and comprehend written messages at the literal, interpretive, analytical, and critical reading levels? (Comprehension Components)
3. To what extent can the students in Utah's schools use the tools of reading to function; i.e. locate and understand information? (Study Skills Components)
4. To what extent do the students in Utah's schools enjoy reading? (Affective Components)

The reading committee organized to give direction to the reading status study identified forty objectives (learner behaviors) that they considered valid indicators for questions one, two, and three from a bank of reading objectives developed by the Center for the Study of Evaluation (CSE) at the University of California, Los Angeles. The center is one of eight educational research and development centers sponsored by the U.S. Office of Health, Education, and Welfare. Established at UCLA in 1966 under the provisions of the Cooperative Research Act, the center is devoted exclusively to the area of educational evaluation. The publication rights to SOBAR (System for Objective-Based Assessment-Reading) were purchased from the center by SRA (Science Research Associates).

From the forty objectives selected, test items were generated to produce the custom-made objective-referenced tests used in the study. The objectives and corresponding test items were extensively reviewed by CSE and SRA professional staff, by teachers, by curriculum specialists, and by testing experts for clarity, brevity, validity, and completeness, as well as for freedom from racial and sexual bias.

Three test items were used to measure mastery of each objective. If a student answered all three of the items correctly, it was presumed that the objective had been mastered by that student. If the student answered fewer

than three items correctly, it was presumed that the learning objective had not been mastered. An essential feature of this approach is that the probability of attaining a mastery score by chance is low (.016 or 1.6 per cent).

### *SOBAR TEST RESULTS*

There were 1,931 sixth grade students tested. On the average, these students mastered 25% of the reading objectives (10 out of 40). There were 871 ninth grade students and 770 eleventh grade students tested. On the average, these students mastered 37% of the objectives (15 out of 40). The objectives tested are listed on the next page.

#### *Objectives\**

1. Given a word orally that contains a short vowel sound, the learner will identify a written word that contains the same vowel sound.
2. Given a word orally that contains a diphthong sound, the learner will identify a written word that contains the same diphthong sound.
3. Given a word orally that contains a controlled vowel sound, the learner will identify a written word that contains the same vowel sound.
4. Given a written word, the learner will identify its syllabication.
5. Given a written word, the learner will identify its primary accented syllable.
6. Given a list of words, the learner will identify the word that has a prefix.
7. Given a list of words, the learner will identify the word that has a suffix.
8. Given a homograph in the context of a sentence, the learner will identify its meaning.
9. Given a sentence with a homograph that has different pronunciations, the learner will identify the appropriate pronunciation.
10. The learner will identify an example of non-literal language in a passage.
11. The learner will identify a specified figure of speech in a passage.
12. The learner will identify a paraphrase of a given sentence.
13. The learner will identify the main idea of a passage in which the main idea is explicit.
14. Given a passage and a question about a significant detail explicitly stated in the passage, the learner will identify the answer to the question.
15. The learner will identify the proper sequence of the main events in a passage.
16. The learner will identify the proper sequence of the major concepts in a passage.
17. The learner will identify the main idea of a passage where the main idea must be inferred.
18. The learner will identify a title for a passage where the main idea must be inferred.

19. Given a passage and a question about an event, action, or statement where the answer must be inferred from the passage, the learner will identify the answer to the question.
20. Given a passage in which the author's conclusions are implied, the learner will identify the conclusions.
21. The learner will identify statements of fact or opinion.
22. Given several passages offering different points of view concerning the same issues, the learner will identify the differences in points of view.
23. The learner will identify the author's opinions in an article or editorial.
24. Given a statement such as an advertisement that contains a propaganda technique, the learner will identify the type of technique used.
25. Given a passage, the learner will identify evidence of illogical thinking such as inconsistencies in data, false assumptions, and fallacies.
26. Given a passage, the learner will identify how well the author substantiated his opinion with facts and references.
27. Given a word problem, the learner will identify if sufficient information is given to solve the problem.
28. The learner will identify the function of the table of contents and lists of illustrations or charts.
29. The learner will identify the function of the back matter in a booklet (appendix, bibliography, glossary, and index).
30. The learner will identify the function of learning aids within a text (headings, chapter summaries, and overviews).
31. The learner will identify which guides and sections can be found in a dictionary.
32. The learner will use sample dictionary entries to find a definition, synonym, or antonym, for a word.
33. The learner will use a sample dictionary entry to identify the pronunciation of an unfamiliar word.
34. The learner will identify the encyclopedia volume that contains information about a topic.
35. Given a sample library catalog card, the learner will identify the author, title, subject, and call number of the book.
36. Given a question and a list of specialized reference materials, the learner will identify the reference that would provide the answer to the question.
37. Given a topic or problem, the learner will identify an appropriate source of information on that topic or problem.
38. Given a graph, table, or diagram, the learner will identify the best summary of the information it provides.
39. The learner will identify the use of map symbols, keys, and other devices used in map reading.
40. The learner will identify the kinds of information an atlas contains.

The graphs on the last page show the percentage of students, by grade level, mastering each of the objectives.

## FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

The first question to be answered by the study was: TO WHAT EXTENT CAN THE STUDENTS IN UTAH'S SCHOOLS IDENTIFY WORDS THEY DON'T INITIALLY RECOGNIZE IN PRINT? This question was aimed at a major goal of reading instruction: "breaking the code" or reconstructing speech. Other questions in the study were aimed at the goals of comprehension, appreciation, and application.

Regardless of the reading programs used by teachers, there are only four tools (strategies) available to learners to help them decode words that are initially unfamiliar to them in print: (1) phonics skills, (2) structural analysis skills, (3) context clues, and (4) the dictionary. Objectives one through nine and thirty-three were selected by the committee because the behaviors specified in those objectives provided indicators of students' abilities to use these four tools. Objectives one, two, and three were selected as phonics indicators; objectives four, five, six, and seven were selected as structural analysis indicators; objective eight was selected as an indicator for contextual usage; and objectives nine and thirty-three were selected as indicators of dictionary usage.

In summary, the following conclusions were made:

(1) The students tested in all grade areas showed greater mastery of phonics objectives than any of the other objectives tested. It appears that the students in the state are learning their phonics skills. These skills are particularly helpful in identifying words of one syllable.

(2) Although the students are learning phonics skills, it appears that they are not learning, as well, certain attendance skills necessary for identifying words of more than one syllable.

(3) Most of the students tested have not mastered dictionary pronunciation skills.

The second question to be answered by the study was: TO WHAT EXTENT CAN THE STUDENTS IN UTAH'S SCHOOLS DECODE AND COMPREHEND WRITTEN MESSAGES AT THE LITERAL, INTERPRETIVE, ANALYTICAL, AND CRITICAL READING LEVELS. This question is aimed at the "heart" of reading—reading comprehension. Because the question is so critical, most of the objectives selected for the study dealt with reading comprehension.

The behaviors selected as indicators of *literal comprehension* were: 21, 12, 16, 15, 13, and 14. The objectives selected as indicators of *interpretive reading* were: 19, 20, and 11. Objective 24 deals with the identification of *propaganda techniques* and objectives 27, 26, 25, 22, 23, 18, 17, and 38 deal with *analytical reading*.

The following conclusions were made:

(1) The students tested showed greater mastery in word identification skills, generally speaking, than in reading comprehension. In other words, the students are doing least well in those areas that are at the very "heart" of reading.

(2) The students tested showed greater mastery of literally reading skills

than interpretive and analytical reading skills. However, they did extremely poor in even the literal reading skills.

(3) There is an obvious need for schools to do a better job of helping students identify propaganda techniques that are essential to the development of critical reading skills.

(4) There is an obvious need for schools to provide instructional programs for students that will help them read and comprehend written messages at the literal, interpretive, analytical, and critical reading levels.

The third question to be answered by the study was: TO WHAT EXTENT CAN THE STUDENTS IN UTAH'S SCHOOLS USE THE TOOLS OF READING TO FUNCTION; i.e. LOCATE AND UNDERSTAND INFORMATION? This question is aimed at the functional component of a reading program. Objectives 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 34, 35, 36, 37, 39, and 40 were selected as indicators for this component.

The following conclusions were made:

(1) The findings of the study skills assessment indicates a basic need to improve instruction in the study skills area of reading in Utah. Students cannot be expected to pursue learning on their own if they do not possess the tools to enable them to do so.

(2) Students at all age levels did poorest when asked to make use of a card catalog and other critical reference materials. This seems to indicate a need to upgrade the instruction children are receiving in how to make use of the library as a resource for learning and enjoyment.

The fourth question to be answered by the study was: TO WHAT EXTENT DO THE STUDENTS IN UTAH'S SCHOOLS ENJOY READING?

To get an answer to this question, the Office of the Utah State Board of Education commissioned Dr. Al Wight to design instruments to measure reading attitudes. He did so, and in the Spring of 1974 these instruments were administered to students in the Granite School District for the purposes of testing reliability and validity. After this process was completed, the revised instruments were administered to the same students who took the objective-based tests.

For a long time teachers have suspected that a relationship existed between how a student felt about himself, the subject and his achievement in that subject. This study gave support to that premise. Correlations were drawn between the student's attitude and his achievement in reading as measured by the SOBAR test.

Below is a summary of the attitudinal correlation findings:

(1) There was a significant positive relationship at all grade levels tested between the student's perception that teachers like good readers and dislike poor readers and his/her score on SOBAR.

(2) At all grade levels tested, student's self-confidence related more to his achievement on SOBAR (.938) than any other affective component. (.969)

(3) There was a significant negative relationship at all grade levels tested



(.891) between a student's dislike of reading and his  
(.851) achievement on SOBAR.

(4) There was a significant positive relationship at all levels tested  
between a student's *valuing* (commitment) and *enjoying* reading and his  
achievement on SOBAR. (.755)

(.447)

The data suggests that the students who perceived that they would be  
classified as a good reader by the teacher did well on the SOBAR test.  
Although correlations are not indication of a cause and effect relationship,  
it is interesting to speculate over the data. A theory has long been stated  
that students will achieve teacher expectations. The data supports the  
theory that a strong relationship exists between student perceived teacher  
expectations and student achievement.

Educators have long believed that a student's self-concept has an effect  
upon his achievement. The data here indicates that a strong relationship  
exists. It, in essence, says that a student who thinks well of himself can also  
produce academically.

Another long standing educational theory is that a student's attitude  
toward a subject has a strong bearing on his achievement in that subject. If  
a student liked a subject, he would do well. The data indicated that there is  
a strong relationship between attitude and achievement. Those who liked  
reading did well on the SOBAR, and those who did not like reading did  
poorly. Students who valued and enjoyed reading seemed to do better.  
Some intercorrelations would also suggest students may value reading and  
yet not achieve nor like reading. That is, the students value reading even  
though they may not like it.

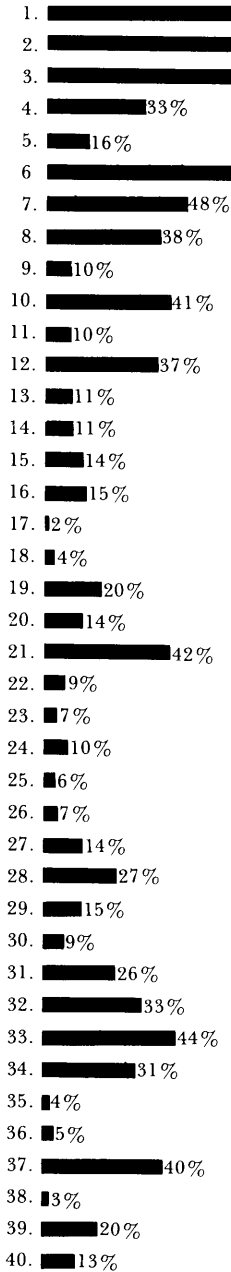
The data support long standing premises of education that:

(1) Teacher attitude toward a student as perceived as the student is  
related to his achievement.

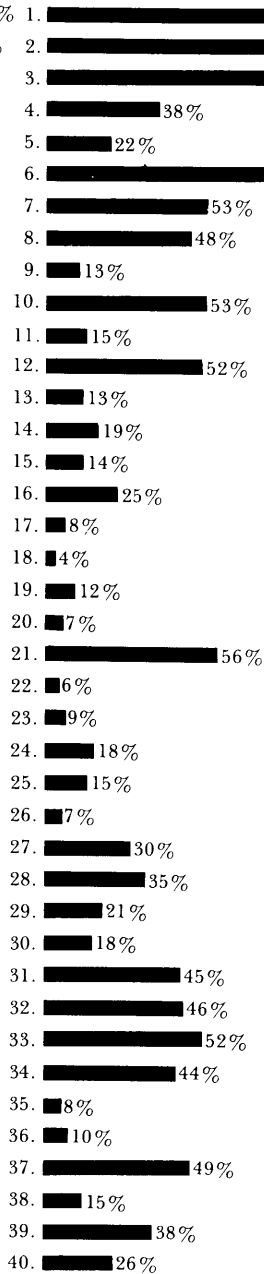
(2) The student's self-concept is related to his achievement.

(3) The student's attitude toward a subject is related to his achievement  
in that subject.

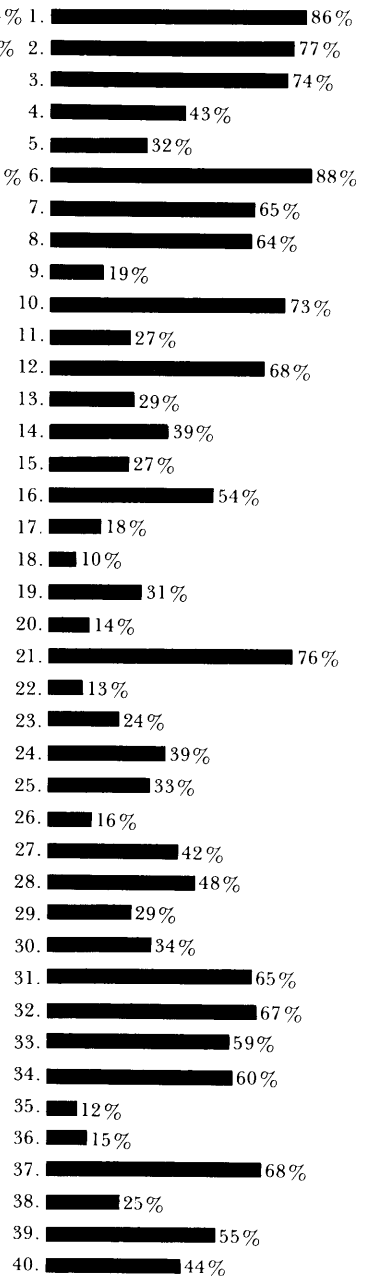
Sixth Grade  
Percent of Mastery



Ninth Grade  
Percent of Mastery



Eleventh Grade  
Percent of Mastery



# QUICK REVIEWS

## *Homer Carter Reading Council*

Beil, Drake, "The Emperor's New Cloze," *Journal of Reading*, (April 1977) 20:601-604.

In a humorous style Beil attempts to present six new variations on the cloze procedure. However, only two appear to be new. The first is to apply the cloze procedure to other instructional areas such as music. After providing students an opportunity to use the cloze test on popular lyrics assigned by the teacher, students can begin to design their own. The second was to provide a chance to express language development by using the cloze approach with famous poetry, haiku, cinquain, or limericks.

Billig, Edith, "Children's Literature as a Springboard to Content Areas," *The Reading Teacher*, (May 1977) 30:855-859.

Why not use *Julie of the Wolves* and *Island of the Blue Dolphins* to teach social studies and science? Billig presents a convincing argument for getting away from the original textbooks when kids aren't turned on. Let them live a little while they read. Nothing wrong with finding content reading pleasurable.

Cole, William, "Children's Books: The Best of the Season," *Saturday Review*, May 28, 1977, pp. 31-33.

Because he is also a writer of children's books, Cole adeptly chooses fifty of the best books, describes them in a most charming way, and gives reading levels and interest areas. The range of book types is incredibly wide, from nature study to comic verse, from sports biography to Indian art.

Criscuolo, Nicholas P., "Book Reports: Twelve Creative Alternatives," *The Reading Teacher*, (May 1977) 30:893-895.

When a steady diet of written book reports induces the "ughs" try a Criscuolo remedy: "Academy Awards, Lost and Found, Reading Mobilizers, Book-A-Trip, Dress Up Day, Computerized Dating, Rebuses, Quiz Shows, It's in the Headlines, Book Friends, Collage Posters, or Shape It, Scrape It, Drape It." Reporting will be exciting.

Davis, Jerry B., "Improving Reading and the Teaching of Science," *The Clearing House*, (May 1977) 50:390-392.

In a series of rather general statements, this author seeks to show how science teachers may help students become more effective in the study of science. The article is unique in that there is an attempt to use non-print materials to provide background for improving reading. The trend has been to substitute non-print materials for reading assignments.

Hawkins, Joseph A. Jr., "How Should Reading and Study Skills Test Scores Correlate?", *Journal of Reading*, (April 1977) 20:570-572.

Reading achievement and study achievement failed to correlate significantly in a study conducted at Howard University's Center for Academic Reinforcement. However, the belief that reading and study skills should be taught together was not disproven by the limited findings of the study. Since the scope of both study skills and reading skills is very diverse, it was indicated that further research was needed.

Hildreth, Gertrude, "One Alphabet for Reading and Writing English," *Spelling Progress Bulletin*, (Spring 1977) XVII: 10-11.

The history of teaching reading and writing in America is marked by obstacles unwittingly put in the path of progress. Hildreth narrates the story of one aspect of our difficulties with teaching writing, showing convincingly how much simpler it would be if we would adopt a single model that has proven best. Her recommendation is an italic handwriting, brought into close alignment with the sans-serif printing press letters.

Johns, Jerry L., et al, "Assessing Reading Behavior," *Informal Reading Inventories*, International Reading Association, 36 pages, 1977.

The author and his helpers have performed a valuable service for all teachers who are interested in the hows and whys of informal inventories; having packed into this small booklet information ranging from history and construction to names and locations of informal test publishers. Included also is a carefully done summary of each article listed as dealing with the subject.

Kozol, Jonathan, "How Cuba Fought Illiteracy," *Learning*, (May/June 1977) 5:26-29.

The most outstanding thing about this article is the blithe manner in which this astonishing story is told. UNESCO officially

described what many people called a miracle as “a difficult conquest obtained through work, technique and organization.” Facts defy acceptance—100,000 teenagers went out and taught three-quarters of a million adults to read in less than a year.

Peck, Cynthia Van Norden and Martin Kling, “Adult Literacy in the Seventies: Its Definition and Measurement,” *Journal of Reading*, (May 1977) 20:677-682.

It became evident in the early 1970's that the definition and assessment of adult literacy was relevant only to a given population rather than a nation as a whole. Through a number of key studies and the re-examination of the “criteria of literacy,” a new definition evolved. Instead of grade level designations, the definition emphasizes functional reading: “. . . reading as a tool and as a measure to apply life skills in the context of the learner. At present a single standard of measurement for all populations has not been found.”

Pikulski, John J. and Pikulski, Edna C., “Cloze, Maze and Teacher Judgment,” *The Reading Teacher*, (April 1977) 30:766-770.

Use caution on the cloze if you're using it exclusively to determine a student's instructional level. The Pikulskies found in their study that the cloze and maze when compared with teacher judgment overestimated a child's independent, instruction and frustration reading levels.

Piper, Terrence and Rosemary Hahn Powe, “Motivating the Slow Reader,” *Academic Therapy*, (Spring 1977) 12:357-360.

This article outlines a means of motivating slow readers without employing the behavior modification techniques, which are seen as too closely related to bribery by some. The description includes the use of smiling face rewards on short term goals and development of a mural for long term goals.

Rieck, Billie Jo, “How Content Teachers Telegraph Messages Against Reading,” *Journal of Reading*, (May 1977) 20:646-648.

A survey of thirty-four high school content area teachers indicated that although they assigned students a certain number of pages to read, their non-verbal attitude told the students that there was no real reason to do so. A series of questions were presented to stimulate the readers to look at their own attitude toward reading.

Rigg, Par, “Getting the Message, Decoding the Message,” *The Reading Teacher*, (April 1977) 30:745-749.

The consultant-author found some real eye-openers about

prejudice and definitions of the reading process as reflected through the attitudes of two teachers and two Chaldean students labeled with “severe language impairment” and “inability to comprehend.” Worth noting that one boy read words beautifully with no regard for meaning; the other read for meaning with little concern for word accuracy.

Sawyer, Diane J., “Developing Articulated Reading Programs,” *The Clearing House*, (December 1976) 50:174-177.

Using quotes and the philosophical support of many experts, Sawyer arrives at the invincible position that “if we are to promote reading attainment” we must first lay out precise courses of action which all reading teachers must accept and adhere to. Her logic is flawless and her reasoning excellent. It is tragic that teaching reading cannot be like using a recipe; having all the ingredients in proper proportion *should* (but does not) result in perfection.

Venezky, Richard L., “NAEP—Should We Kill the Messenger Who Brings Bad News?” *The Reading Teacher*, (April 1977) 30:750-755.

Shame on the National Assessment of Educational Progress for coloring the results of their 1971 and 1975 surveys “to make them appear more like what the general population wants to hear.” Venezky decides “we should neither kill nor embrace the messenger who comes with news from such a group; instead we should send him back to work in his own garden.”

Wyatt, Flora, “The CB Reading Center—a Big 10-4,” *The Reading Teacher*, (May 1977) 30:887-892.

Flora Wyatt gets a big 10-4 for capitalizing on the current CB craze by setting up a CB station learning center. Students get a “handle,” get tasks from the CB Station, use *Break, The CBers Handbook* to decipher a code. The author makes it easy for anyone to set up this center by supplying a list of resources, materials, physical plans of the center, and instructions for the tasks.

---

“The Learning Center: Reading Success,” *Learning*, (March 1977) 5:66-67.

To teach the use of a dictionary for spelling one must provide the student with a background in the possible spellings of each of the sounds of the language (phonics). With this the student has experience on which to base an “educated guess” as to what spelling should be applied.

# NEW MATERIALS

**Sandra Ahern**

READING CONSULTANT, COMSTOCK, MICHIGAN

New books reviewed here are published by: Albert Whitman & Company, 560 W. Lake Street, Chicago, Illinois 60606.

*Oh Riddlesticks!* by Ann Bishop. Pictures by Jerry Warshaw, Grades 2-up/40 pp/1976.

"Why do Eskimos wash their clothes in Tide? It's too cold to wash outside." or "What do you get when you cross an insect and a rabbit? Bugs Bunny." Such riddles are just a sample of the fun in store for children as they laugh their way through a collection of 118 contemporary animal riddles, funny questions and jokes.

*Printcrafts for Fun and Profit* by Seymour Fleishman, Grades 3-up/48 pp/1977.

This artist/designer shows how to design, publish and print newspapers, booklists, greeting cards, posters, notices, and advertisements by using various methods such as copying machines, gelatin duplicators, stencil duplicators, and offset printing. Although the illustrations give step-by-step examples, the details could be plainer and clearer for the young artist. The book gives excellent ideas for use in the classroom, club, or home.

*Mystery at Keyhole Carnival* by Florence Parry Heide and Roxanne Heide, Grades 3-8 and remedial/128 pp/1977. Illustrated by Seymour Fleishman.

In this attention-holding mystery, the Spotlight Club detectives discover a plot to keep the carnival from staying in their town. Dexter, Jay, and Cindy help the police catch the crooks at Keyhole Carnival.

*Brillstone Break-In* by Florence Parry Heide and Roxanne Heide, Grades 4-8 and remedial/127 pp/1977. Illustrated by Joe Beth Krush.

A good mystery story that revolves around two teen-age neighbors who live in the same apartment building. They become involved in the theft of some money meant to be used as a bribe for a public official and prove his disappearance to be a hoax.

Because a number of details in this book make it a more sophisticated story-line, the work may prove too difficult for the young or remedial reader.

*A-Haunting We Will Go*, selected by Lee Bennett Hopkins, Grades 3-6/128 pp/1977. Illustrated by Vera Rosenberry.

"When you think of ghosts, do you feel a little creepy and ready to look carefully over your shoulder? Are ghosts for real? Do you believe in them?" Girls and boys are sure to be captivated by stories and tales that may change their minds about some friendly and some not so friendly ghouls and ghosts.

These haunting tales are suspenseful, happy, scary, and just the right balance of realism and fantasy.

*The Mice Came In Early This Year* by Eleanor J. Lapp, Preschool-grade 2/32 pp/1976. Pictures by David Cunningham.

In the Fall, a young child watches his family and the wild creatures in nature prepare for the seasonal changes. The book is full of color and very attractive. The type is large but some of the vocabulary may be too difficult for the listed grade levels to read independently. The book would be excellent enrichment in an early elementary science lesson and discussion.

*Snow On Bear's Nose* by Jennifer Bartoli, Grades K-7/24 pp/1977. Illustrated by Takeo Ishida.

A richly colored storybook, this is a wonderful tale about a mischievous, curious Asiatic Black Bear cub, also known as a Moon Bear because of a white crescent on its chest. The cub sets out to investigate the forest while his mother sleeps. He finds out about the winter and also finds it is better to stay with his mother in the den.

*Grandparents Around the World*, Author/Photographer Dorka Raynor, Grades K-Up/48 pp/1977.

A collection of sensitive, reflective, and moving photographs from twenty countries is offered in this technically fine book. The book brings out the tender bond of love between grandparent and grandchild that exists around the world.





