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ABSTRACT

In this collection, papers with similar topics are grouped together. Topics include: remedial reading teachers, primary assessment, preprimary reading, reading comprehension, reading in the content areas, integrating reading with subject matter, teaching reading through the materials of social studies, assessment of attitude toward reading, human values and reading, meeting individual needs, helping students become thinkers, motivating students, the changing role of teachers, teachers' skills, reading teachers of the future, teacher-pupil interaction, creative self-expression, creative reading activities, organizing a classroom for reading instruction, using pupil tutors to individualize primary reading instruction, personalized reading programs, using specialized material to develop reading competency, community colleges reading programs, psycholinguistics, and behavioral objectives. (WR)

Reading for a Changing World

Jack Bagford, Editor
The University of Iowa

Proceedings of the First Plains
Regional Conference

Iowa Council
International Reading Association

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Introduction

This volume, *Reading for a Changing World*, is a collection of papers presented at the First Plains Regional Conference of the International Reading Association held in Des Moines, Iowa, on April 6, 7, and 8, 1972.

Because of the exceptional quality of the presentations, Iowa Council, the host council for the conference, decided to publish all papers which were submitted for publication.

Papers included are on such a wide variety of topics that it is virtually impossible to classify them in any simple yet useful way. An attempt has been made to group papers with similar topics close to one another. However, the reader who wishes to acquaint himself with all the ideas presented herein will probably have to follow the advice suggested by the author of the first paper "How to Eat an Elephant."

Jack Bagford

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How to Eat an Elephant

Frances Voris
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"If you had an elephant to eat, how would you do it? You could eat it all at once, of course, but that would surely produce a massive case of indigestion. Or you could throw a party and invite all your friends and relatives, but think of all those dirty dishes. Or you could slice it piece by piece, day by day, and roasting, broiling and sautéing elephant meat (keeping the rest in the freezer) slowly but surely eat your way through that elephant."(3)

When educators are faced with statistics about the number of children in our schools today who are not learning to read, they might feel that they are being faced with a problem of a magnitude similar to that of trying to eat an elephant. As one example of such statistics, Ruth Strang reports that 1 to 5 percent of the school population can be classified as non-readers, that 10 to 25 percent can be reported as moderately severe disability cases calling for more attention than the classroom can provide, and that as many as 40 to 60 percent have a mild disability in learning to read.(8)

What is believed to be the cause of this reading disability? Every journal opened, every conference attended offers a new explanation, a new method or material which promises to help eliminate all problems for all children. The causes of these disabilities are many and perhaps some are even, as yet, undiscovered; however, it is known that some have a psychological base, some an emotional base, some are neurological and some physiological in nature, while many are due to the failure on the part of untold classroom teachers to adjust instruction to the learning ability of each individual in the classroom.

The purpose of this paper is to deal with the role of the remedial

reading teacher in helping to combat reading disability. First, there should be clarification of what is meant by a remedial reading teacher, consultant, etc. Carl B. Smith, in the book, *Treating Reading Disabilities: The Specialist's Role*, presents the definitions and analyses of qualifications for each of the roles, which were developed by the International Reading Association Professional Standards and Ethics Committee and were taken from the *Journal of Reading* for October, 1968.

"A reading specialist *is that person 1) who works directly or indirectly with those pupils who have either failed to benefit from regular classroom instruction in reading or those who could benefit from advanced training in reading skills and/or 2) who works with teacher, administrators, and other professionals to improve and coordinate the total reading program of the school.*

"A special teacher of reading *has major responsibility for remedial and corrective and/or developmental reading instruction.*

"A reading consultant *works directly with teachers, administrators, and other professionals within a school to develop and implement the reading program under the direction of a supervisor with special training in reading.*

"A reading supervisor *(coordinator) provides leadership in all phases of the reading program in a school system." (7)*

None of the above titles is identical to the one assigned to this paper, that of remedial reading teacher. As the topic is developed it will become apparent that the author feels that all of these people in reading positions should be working toward one goal, that of providing all of the assistance possible to the classroom teacher in order to develop better classroom techniques and methodology so that all youngsters will be able to learn to read up to their potential *within* the classroom. For the author feels strongly that consistently good classroom teaching will avoid many and reduce most of the cases of reading disabilities in our schools today. As Doris Nason wrote in her May, 1968, *Reading Teacher* article, "With properly differentiated instruction in reading by all classroom teachers, the number of children needing special help in reading outside the classroom is small." (6)

At this point it is appropriate to mention the research which has been done in the area of remedial reading instruction and its lasting effects on the children in such programs. Bruce Balow summarizes his research article entitled "The Long-Term Effect of Remedial Reading Instruction" published

in the *Reading Teacher*, April, 1965, by saying ". . . severe reading disability is not corrected by short-term intensive courses of treatment, even though it is ameliorated by such help. Neither, it would appear, is the cure to be found in intensive treatment followed by maintenance sessions of an hour or so per week, although again such a program is far superior to no special help at all." He continues ". . . severe reading disability is probably best considered a relatively chronic illness needing long-term treatment rather than the short course typically organized in current programs." (*1*)

A study reported in the January. 1968 *Reading Teacher* done by Theodore A. Buerger, Director of Research and Pupil Personnel for the Lakewood, Ohio schools, summarizes remedial reading research by saying: ". . . a review of one hundred studies on the effects of remedial reading programs reveals only one study that shows significant gains in terms of academic achievement. Thus, a review of studies and the present study suggest there remains a great deal to learn about the nature of academic disabilities and how to promote improvement through remedial efforts." (2)

The first major decision to be made by reading personnel is one of determining priorities. Is the reading program to be preventive in nature, or is to be remedial? It seems only logical, if a program is to be preventive in nature, that the time of all special reading personnel would be devoted to being certain that the teachers of reading are competent and capable of preventing all possible problems, prior to spending time with those children needing special attention with reading. It would seem logical that those steps would be taken to assure a school system that each classroom teacher of reading has every bit of assistance possible from reading personnel in order to prevent the fact of failure. This help can be provided through such services as demonstration lessons of teaching methods, inservice training on materials and methods of reading instruction, and assistance with diagnosis of reading problems and the development of appropriate reading programs for the individual. In order to achieve this end, it would be necessary to have all available reading personnel spending a majority of their time working with classroom teachers on the improvement of instruction, for it would take all of the time and effort available in most cases to provide the necessary help.

One responsibility reading personnel should take on is that of helping provide principals with the necessary information and skills to supervise the reading program and teachers of reading. Principals should be helped to know the materials and philosophy of the reading program in use, the methods appropriate to it and how to evaluate effective teaching. One logical way to begin this is to have principals understand how to look at end-of-book test summary sheets in order to see teaching strengths and

weaknesses. Most book companies provide such material which simplifies the task of trying to determine where each child and class has particular difficulty. If test scores show a particular area to be a weakness for a whole group of youngsters, it is usually an indication that teaching is weak in that area. The principal should then be familiar enough with the manuals of the program so that he can ask the teacher to demonstrate a lesson in the particular area, so that suggestions can be made and the problem discussed. Principals should also know the program in use well enough to be able to tell if teachers are teaching the program as intended, or if they are off on some tangent. Justifiable tangents are one thing; others could be a contribution to reading failure.

A few of the activities in which reading personnel could participate in order to benefit many teachers and children would be teaching demonstration lessons, working in classrooms with teachers in a team teaching situation, freeing teachers to act as resource teachers for others, and planning in-service requested specifically by the teachers. Time can also be spent gathering materials for units, working with groups of children on specific skills, and planning units for classroom use.

In schools where much cross room and grade grouping is done, it is possible to have almost all youngsters participating in a book of appropriate reading level without burdening the teachers with too many groups. In order to achieve this, however, there has to be much coordination of activities and much communication between teachers. Buildings in highly mobile neighborhoods where many youngsters move in and out of the school area during the year present the further problem of first determining a reading level for new children and then finding an appropriate group in which they can operate.

Unfortunately for most remedial reading teachers, either their job description or the tradition of their program will not permit many of the techniques which have been described. As a result, turning to some of the more traditional questions which face remedial reading teachers working with children with remedial problems is appropriate here.

To whom is remedial help to be offered? There is a certain reason and logic for placing the emphasis on the primary grades in the hope of eventually eliminating the need for a remedial program. The research of Benjamin Bloom would support this idea with his finding that general intelligence appears to develop as much in the period from conception to age four as it does from age five to eighteen. (5)

However, many remedial reading programs don't even begin until children are in second or third grade. The argument for this seems to be something along the lines of waiting to see which children need the help the most. It would seem far more logical to start remedial practices to ac-

company the beginning of reading readiness. As soon as teaching children the beginning skills and abilities of reading is started, it can be seen that there will be problems for certain youngsters. If enough help could be provided to youngsters in the kindergarten to get them off to a good start, perhaps we would have the beginning of a situation in which we could eliminate later remedial programs.

Where is instruction to be held? The old joke about the broom closet is certainly not funny for remedial reading teachers who have tried to teach reading in a small, dark, noisy, busy corner of some school building. Beautiful facilities do not appear around every corner for reading teachers. In keeping with the priority of providing help to the classroom teacher, it would seem logical for the remedial reading teacher to work with youngsters in the classroom. The work done by the remedial reading teacher will often provide the classroom teacher with ideas on management and classroom control and new ideas on materials and methods which the classroom teacher could use later. In addition the close work of remediation within the classroom would encourage good communication which is essential if progress is to be made by the children with problems.

Looking at the problem from a different direction, we must look at the effect on children of taking them out of the classroom for special help. Children can be cruel, and too often they label their classmates as a result of the special services they participate in. Dr. William Glasser in his book *Schools Without Failure* stresses his feeling that children with educational problems must be kept in heterogeneous classrooms with specialists helping the teacher and children learn how to cope with problems *of* the classroom *in* the classroom. (*4*)

What materials are to be used? The next issue to take priority is the one of making a decision on which material to use with children who are having difficulty learning to read. It is a popular idea to put children who are suffering difficulty in one program into another for remedial help. One reason for doing this which is often given is that children who have failed in one program need a fresh start with new materials. The reasons for opposing this philosophy are many.

Most teachers have seen examples of children who have been moved from school district to school district so often that they have been in many different reading programs. Mark, a fifth grader at Jefferson School in Davenport, has moved three times in the last year. As a result he has read out of three different series—the Ginn reading program, Open Court, and Programmed Reading. No wonder the boy is confused and reading at the first-grade level!

The philosophy held by many that summer school and remedial programs should utilize different material than used during the regular school

year only presents a similar problem for youngsters having difficulty grasping concepts and skills in the first place.

Classroom teachers familiar with materials and diagnostic techniques should be able to avoid reaching the point where a child has suffered severe failure in any program. If we are truly taking children where they are and giving them the tasks with which they can be successful, no child will ever have progressed beyond his capability, thus avoiding the need to change programs. Rather the reading teacher can provide additional practice and support for the child in the classroom program.

Studying the reading programs used in the majority of today's schools provides another good reason for not transferring a child from one program to another. A good long look shows that skills, methods suggested, vocabulary, etc. of reading programs vary so completely that previous work in one program might be completely lost on the child if he were changed to another program especially where what may be needed most is greater allowance for readiness and greater intensity of practice with the skills and vocabulary of the program in use in the classroom.

As we learn more about the learning modalities of children, we learn more ways we can vary materials of a reading program to meet the learning needs of our boys and girls. Many of these multisensory techniques can be added to the methodology of any program without differing from the philosophy and intention of the program. Providing these materials and ideas can be a major contribution of reading personnel.

Perhaps the easiest way to eat an elephant would be to have a party—including all of the family and friends available. Anyone who likes elephant should certainly be in on the project. Likewise with the problem of helping the child with a reading disability, all of the help available should be where it can be used to the best advantage—right in the classroom—where it can affect the most pupils through the improvement of instruction and classroom management.

Having covered possible solutions to the problem of solving reading disability it would seem important to provide a possible solution to the problem of elephant eating. The following is an old and favorite recipe for elephant stew.

Elephant Stew

1 medium-sized elephant	*salt*
2 rabbits (optional)	*pepper*

Cut elephant into small bite-sized pieces. Add enough brown gravy to cover. Cook over kerosene for about 4 weeks at 465°. This will serve 3,800

people. If more are expected, 2 rabbits may be added. But do this only in an emergency. Most people do not like hare in their stew.

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Primary Assessment: Who Needs It?

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"*I suppose she chose me because she knew my name; as I read the alphabet a faint line appeared between her eybrows, and after making me read most of* My First Reader *and the stock market quotations from* The Mobile Register *aloud, she discovered that I was literate and looked at me with more than faint distaste. Miss Caroline told me to tell my father not to teach me any more, it would interfere with my reading.*

"*'Teach me?' I said in surprise. 'He hasn't taught me anything, Miss Caroline. Atticus ain't got time to teach me anything,' I added, when Miss Caroline smiled and shook her head. 'Why, he's so tired at night he just sits in the livingroom and reads.'*

"*'If he didn't teach you, who did?' Miss Caroline asked good-naturedly. 'Somebody did. You weren't born reading* The Mobile Register.'" (*1*)

Too often this is the initial form of assessment—utter disbelief. Or, even worse, a teacher may be like Miss Caroline in *To Kill A Mockingbird* when "Miss Caroline caught me writing and told me to tell my father to stop teaching me. 'Besides,' she said, 'we don't write in the first grade, we paint. You won't learn to write until you're in the third grade.'" (*2*)

How often has a child been denied a skill because it isn't at the right grade level?

Primary Assessment: Who Needs It? Miss Caroline, and certainly Scout, needed it.

As more and more schools and staffs begin to realize the individual and develop a curriculum for the individual, it is necessary to assess each student. Each student's skills need to be assessed, and appropriate instruction needs to follow. At one time educators referred to this period as "readiness" at each grade level. What was really done during this period

was not to find out what the child knew or did not know, but rather to review and to re-expose the child to skills known or unknown. Teaching then proceeded in the same way or method used in the past with the "bluebirds" becoming bored by all the repetition and skills they already knew, and the "vultures" falling further and further behind.

The need for assessing students certainly becomes apparent when one begins to realize the amount of preschool education our children are receiving. In a survey of pre-kindergarten attendance conducted at Westside Community Schools in 1968, they found that 14 percent of the students had attended some type of preschool. In 1971 the same survey showed that 50 percent of the children received some form of preschool experience. Thus, children entering our schools now have already experienced much of what we would teach and have taught in our school.

Also, what effect has "Sesame Street" had on the child? He has been exposed to this type of instruction and now comes to us knowing the alphabet and perhaps some words. In addition, how will the "Electric Company" add to this child's knowledge?

With these forces acting upon children, the need to assess what the child knows becomes more critical. Why waste time teaching something he already knows?

Looking at the many tests that are on the market, one will find these problems: One, the test is too time consuming; two, it doesn't test what the teacher really wants to know; three, it is a group assessment. Also, many of the tests that a teacher can use are so technical that it takes a trained psychometrist to administer the test. Even after finding the type of test that might suit the situation, a big problem can arise. This problem is interpretation of the test results by the classroom teacher. So often these tests are so complicated that, even after testing, the teacher is still unsure of what the child knows.

If one cannot find a test that gives the information wanted or needed, why not construct one? Test construction is an art and should be concerned about reliability, validity, standard scores, and other like items. But, the teacher simply wishes to have an instrument to assess the needs and skills of the students with which he will be working. Westside Schools, Omaha, Nebraska, has been concerned about this and did construct a K-1 Survey to be used with these grade levels. In constructing this survey a decision had to be made on what should be covered in the content, how long it would take, and what information could be gained from the instrument. The items that were assessed were the alphabet, both upper and lower case and matching of both; color and color words; ability to write name; ability to copy letters; numbers, number words, number concepts; and pre-primer word lists. Certain parts of the tests were given as a group—

writing name, matching upper to lower case letters, and copying letters. Other parts of the test such as identifying alphabet letters and pre-primer word list were given individually. The teacher was given a simple graph on which to plot the child's progress for interpretation purposes. The test for an average sized room, 25 students, took about two weeks to administer. The results of this survey were tabulated by schools and then by the district. In all, 621 kindergarten children and 544 first-grade students were tested.

The results of this survey showed the school district some interesting facts and caused change to occur in regard to instruction, grouping, and skill level. Following are some of the results of the survey:

In the ability to write their names with any degree of readability at the kindergarten level, 449 students could perform this task, while 100 students could not. At the first-grade level, 493 children performed this task while 10 children could not.

From the results the teacher could also determine the ability of a student to perform a motor skill and to what degree of proficiency it could be performed.

In the ability to recognize the upper case of the alphabet, 124 kindergarten children knew all 26 letters, while 128 children did not know any of the upper case letters. At the first-grade level, 265 children recognized all 26 letters, while only 5 did not know any of the upper case letters. Other children, of course, fall in between the two extremes.

This information, of course, helped the teacher to make a decision concerning which letters needed to be taught to which children.

In their ability to read a 43-word pre-primer vocabulary, 511 kindergarten children could not accomplish this task, but 35 children could. At the first grade level, 204 children could not accomplish this task, but 59 could.

From this information the classroom teacher referred the children who needed it to a reading specialist for further testing. It was found that there were, in fact, many of these children that were already able to read and to do this task quite easily. It was also found that these children's skills were advanced. In some instances, special curriculum and programs had to be designed for them. While providing adequate reading instruction, the child must also be thought of in terms of his age and maturity. In other words, just because a kindergarten child reads at the 6th grade level, he may still be a kindergarten child in his social, motor-skill, and play level of maturity.

Teachers who have given this survey have requested that it be administered again in the fall of 1972. They have indicated that they gain a great deal of information about their students in a relatively short period

of time. This information was most valuable to them in determining the type of instruction and curriculum for the individual student.

Who needs the assessment? The child needs it and the teacher, principal, supervisor, and superintendent need it in order to provide a better and more meaningful education for the students in their schools. In this age of education, educators are being asked to do a job that holds them accountable for the education of the students under their care and rightfully so. When a parent asks about his child's education and what is being done to educate his child, teachers should have the answers and not try to evade these questions with a lot of educational jargon. Instead they must be able to tell the parent his child's strengths and weaknesses as adequately as possible. By proper assessment done at an early age, the teacher will have many answers concerning the child. With early assessment many problems can be solved before they become major deterrents to learning.

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A Fresh Look at Pre-Primary Reading

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Ten years ago a widely distributed professional publication emphasized the thought that it was questionable that even accelerated five-year-olds receive enough advantage from reading instruction to compensate for the effort on both the part of the child and the teacher, or the tension created in the five-year-old who might be able to handle the intellectual aspects of reading but cannot cope as well with the problem of attending and focusing on intellectual endeavors for a long period of time. (*12*, pp. 16-17). In the same publication, we were warned that to jeopardize the child's outlook on life and learning in order that the child acquire the beginnings of skills for which he feels no real need is a risk that the most perceptive teachers or parents are unwilling to take (*5*, p. 7). Five years later, we were told that two years is the optimum age for learning to read. In the mid-sixties also, Benjamin Bloom (*1*) published the findings of his intensive study of the growth and development of children from conception to age eighteen, and on the basis of over one thousand longitudinal studies, reached the conclusion that from the time of conception to age four, fifty percent of intelligence is developed, and from age four to eight, another thirty percent is developed. As for vocabulary development, reading comprehension, and general school achievement, thirty-three percent of whatever academic skills children have attained at age eighteen develops between birth and age six. J. McVicker Hunt (*6*) added a necessary dimension by establishing the importance of experience on the development of intelligence. Piaget, (*3*) who came to public attention in the sixties, reinforced the need for experience in his presentation of the developmental stages in the growth of logical thinking.

The debate continues and enlarges: not only is the research designed to improve reading instruction inadequate, but the question about the

best age for beginning reading instruction will no doubt continue as long as beginning reading instruction is considered the domain of the public school system. In addition, there are diverse definitions of reading readiness: some have adopted a narrow view and include only letter and sound recognition and association; others incorporate language ability, general intelligence, sound mental and physical health, social and emotional development; still others are not certain where to draw the line between reading readiness instruction and reading instruction.

Perhaps the fundamental question deals with how children learn. We honestly do not know the answer. We do not know if children learn in an orderly, sequential pattern or if each child develops his own learning pattern and sequence which may not be orderly and predictable. This means that the reading programs and kits on the market today, as well as the basal reading series, are built upon a theory of learning which has yet to be substantiated.

We do not know which goal is primary in early education: the mastery of skills and habits, with its implied extrinsic motivation, or the development of pleasure with books and its resulting intrinsic motivation to learn to read. We do not know if the mastery of perceptual-motor skills or the development of language is more basic to future achievement in reading. We need a fresh look at this whole issue of early learning and early reading.

Jerome Kagan has taken a fresh look at these problems. He states that the gnawing sense of bewilderment that surrounds the issues is attenuated a bit if one assumes that if a child attends to information presented to him he is most likely to learn something about it. If the child's attention toward the written or spoken symbol is guaranteed, some learning is likely to occur (8, p. 153). If this is true, and professional judgment as well as common sense imply its logic, how can a child's attention be captured? Kagan informs that the level of attention is determined by a variety of factors, many of which have been regarded traditionally as personality variables. These personality variables include the concepts of motives, expectancies, sources of anxiety, defenses, and standards, each of which exerts some control over the child's distribution of attention in a problem situation and governs the initiation of and persistence with mental work (8, p. 153). These forces determine attitudes toward learning; indeed, they determine if a child will ever attempt to learn. These forces are determined during the first three years of a child's life. Perhaps this is the reason that a year or two in a nursery school or Head Start classroom is not enough to guarantee achievement in the elementary school.

Our nation has entered the field of pre-primary education because it has seen the need for something before entrance into kindergarten and/or

the first grade. When the results are surveyed, it is apparent that there frequently is an immediate impact on the child. It is also apparent that as soon as a child-centered program is stopped, the child seems to stop developing, and his testable IQ seems to regress. It would appear that strategies other than Head Start, other than talking typewriters, other than a pressure cooker approach, other than day care for infants are desperately needed. In addition, there is evidence from varying studies of intellectual development that every social group seems to establish its own mean level of intellectual functioning before it reaches school, and that the school does not change that level of functioning. Schools seem relatively powerless in their influence on children. This has been clearly pinpointed by research studies; it has been clearly pinpointed in the standardization data of the Stanford-Binet, in which the differences in children between two-and-a-half and five years of age are approximately as great as they are at any age level, so that it appears that these differences emerge very early. It has been stated repeatedly that differences in intellectual functioning are fairly well established by the age of three. A study of infant mental test scores shows almost no differences between social groups at age one-and-a-half, and all sorts of differences at the age of three.

We have studies from England, Scotland and Wales involving variables relating to children's intellectual development, with the overall finding that parental interest in their child's education accounted for four times the variance in IQ test scores than any other factors, such as size of family, quality of housing, or quality of schooling (*2*). Another study in England involved observation in the home of the quantity and quality of verbal stimulation given to children at age two-and-a-half; of the toys, books, and experiences provided by the family; and the quality of the parent-child relationships. These ratings taken at age two-and-a-half were compared to the children's mental test scores at eight years and the reading test scores at seven years. There was a very high correlation between these early observations and the child's IQ and his reading success (*10*). This tends to suggest that the key to improved reading skills may not be in the classroom. It may be in the home. It might also suggest that the process should begin perhaps at birth, or at least during infancy.

During the past decade there have been numerous early stimulation and infant stimulation programs in our country. One of the programs receiving both professional and public attention is that of Burton White, Director of the Harvard University Preschool Project, who maintains the period from birth to eighteen months is crucial to the child's intellectual and social development. Both White and Kagan have observed that training and attention will produce significant differences in children's rate of intellectual development. Dr. White did ten years of research on infants

in the home environment to substantiate his belief that the beginning point for infants' meaningful play and learning is the third week of life. The commercial result of his studies is "Playtentials," a collection of toys directed at infants aged three weeks to eight months. Toys in the first kit include "discovery mitts" to help baby discover his hands; "bat and feel" toys to provide fun with shape, texture, and sound; a "faces and form" mobile; a mirror; and a soft elephant. The toys in the kit for infants aged three-and-a-half months to eight months provide experience and introduce the infant to cause and effect. Neither White nor the manufacturer (Kenner Products Company) are making long-term predictions. Another program has been issued by Sears, Roebuck and Company. Called the "Wonder of Growing Program," it contains toy kits designed for birth through thirty-six months of age, to supply mental stimulation from the very start. Still other programs are available from Learning Child, Inc., and from Edcom Systems, Inc., who supply a "hexagonal cognition crib" equipped with a variety of removable modules at a cost of $295. A necessary caution when considering these commercially produced infant programs is tendered by many pediatricians and early childhood specialists who maintain that these products have no particular advantage over the pots and pans and other objects available in most homes. In addition, there is an inherent implication in the advertisements for the programs that parents are failing their children if they do not spend money for specifically designed equipment. Some are questioning the atmosphere of urgency surrounding the infant enrichment programs.

A more professional approach to the use of toys in early education is encompassed in the Verbal Interaction Project (*9*), which capitalizes on toys and books for a structured curriculum of verbal interaction techniques. These techniques are transmitted to mothers by demonstration rather than direct teaching. A Toy Demonstrator visited the homes of two- and three-year-old children twice a week for twenty-three weeks, with the comprehensive goal of enabling the low-income mother to become an effective change agent in her own child's intellectual growth. The children enrolled in the program have been tested yearly and in follow-up studies since 1965. According to Levenstein, each year the Program children have made large cognitive gains (some as much as 40 IQ points), averaging about 17 IQ points by the end of the two-year program, laying the groundwork for coping with later school tasks. For example, in 1971, almost all the program "graduates" in first grade were up to grade level in reading, arithmetic, and spelling (*9*, p. 131).

Other infant education programs have been developed. Earl Schaeffer, as Chief of the Section on Early Child Care Research of the National Institute of Mental Health, developed such a program (*11*) involving eight

college-educated women as tutors. Weekly home visits were made to twenty black, inner-city, male babies from the time they were fifteen months old until they were three years old. The tutor talked with the child, showed him pictures, taught him new words, sang songs, read from books, went on walks with him, helped him to color and to construct simple jigsaw puzzles. The child's mother and other family members were welcome to join in, but were not required to do so. What were the results? By age three, the mean IQ score of the experimental children had remained about the same, but the mean IQ score of the control children had steadily declined until there was a difference of seventeen points between the two groups. However, this difference has not been maintained. At a national conference during the spring of 1970, Dr. Schaeffer stated that he had started too late, and that a child's education begins at birth, when he learns to relate to other people. He contended that the positive relationship between the infant and his parents is the basis of all subsequent learning, and that the way education should start is by having parent and child, together in this positive relationship, do some activity or work with some material together, like looking at a picture book or reading a story. What does the infant learn from this? He develops language, he develops task-oriented behavior, the ability to listen, to concentrate, to persist, to attend. These are the skills we really need in order to participate in a classroom; these are the skills we need in order to learn to read.

Schaeffer's opinions have been reinforced by Jester (7) of the University of Florida, whose research was part of a larger project by Ira Gordon, initiated in 1966 for the purpose of educating mothers to interact with and teach their children specific skills from a series of exercises designed for infants age three months to three years (4). According to Jester, as the children approached three years of age, the materials included more language and vocabulary variables as well as more insistence that the adult maintain high levels of language usage when in the presence of the child. The children, during their third year, were able to do many of the kinds of activities that would be expected in preschool programs for four- and five-year-olds, and so exercises were designed around activities such as shape recognition, coloring, cutting and pasting, and other forms of perceptual-motor activities (7, p. 5). As the children reached thirty-six months of age, they were given the Stanford-Binet Intelligence Test, which was then factor analyzed to differentiate clusters of items which might be identified with later reading achievement. Those which were relatively free from overlap were then analyzed in depth. The language factors involved 1) identifying objects by use, 2) picture vocabulary, 3) comparison of balls, 4) discrimination of animal pictures, 5) response to pictures, 6) pictorial identification, and 7) identification of forms. Those children

who participated in the project for the full three years made significant gains and performed better practically, as well as statistically, than children who spent less time in the program. The memory factor, including 1) obeying simple commands, 2) picture memory, 3) sorting buttons, 4) naming objects from memory, and 5) pictorial identification, showed the same significant gain for the children who had participated for the full three years. It would appear that the performance level is sequential, and depends upon the number of years of participation. Jester concluded, as did Schaeffer and Gordon, that early and continuous programs of intellectual stimulation are of prime importance.

There are other projects investigating the possibilities of infant education, particularly the possibilities of mothers as educators. All deal with the release of potential intelligence, and all have direct or indirect implications for learning to read. Perhaps this is the fresh look we need, instead of our continued wrangling over the proper time to introduce reading readiness, reading skills, or formal reading instruction. Our perennial controversy about the best approach to the teaching of reading is becoming outdated. The young child is not waiting for us to resolve the issues; he is learning today. It is in our hands to determine what he is learning.

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Relating Rote, Rhyme, and Reason to Reading Comprehension

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In a rapidly changing world, people find it difficult to keep well informed about events affecting their lives. Reading affords an opportunity to keep informed in order to understand changes in the world, but that opportunity is available only to those who can and do read to bridge the gaps in their own experiences.

Purpose. The purpose of this paper is to support the teaching of reading skills which help to bridge gaps in comprehension. The reading skill which lends itself to the strategy of bridging the gaps, or filling in the blanks, is the use of certain context clues; the technique for teaching the use of this skill is the cloze procedure.

Simply stated, the cloze procedure involves the deletion of words from printed passages; the reader is expected to supply the word that is missing by using the surrounding context as clues to the identity of the unknown word. The reader who can bridge the gap by filling in the missing ..... demonstrates that he can use the surrounding ..... clues to comprehend the passage.

Rationale. In this section, the development of a rationale for instructional practice proceeds from 1) observations of pre-reading behaviors and an analysis of instructional practices to 2) research in support of the explicit teaching of certain context clues through the use of the cloze procedure.

Observations of pre-reading behaviors reveal learning by experience in rote, rhyme, and reason, respectively. The enjoyment of reading is initially an experience in rote learning, i.e., the child listens to a story read to him and recalls some or all of the words in the story by rote memory. He is read to and he begins to listen for the familiar words in sequence. He de-

velops an aural memory and can predict what comes next. Some children memorize whole stories word for word. The development of aural memory of a story permits the child to mimic a reader. Examples of experiences in mimicry include allowing a child to "read with" a parent, or to follow a parent with a refrain or a chorus, e.g., reciting nursery rhymes, taking turns with lines or verses.

Learning by rote and hearing rhymes often occur simultaneously. This experience develops a specific sound sense, i.e., aural discrimination of rhyming words. Examples of experiences in aural discrimination include allowing a child to say the rhyming word that a parent leaves out, e.g., Little Jack Horner sat in a .....

An additional and very significant learning beyond rote and rhyme is the experience of using reason. A child learns to use reason when he supplies missing words that make sense in a given context. Examples of experiences in the use of reason include leaving out a vital word in a sentence or in a story and allowing a child to fill in the missing word when there is sufficient context to allow a reasonable guess, e.g., People talk, dogs ....., and cats meow. The stimulation of synonymous substitutes for "bark" encourages vocabulary growth. These exercises in verbal reasoning add another dimension beyond the pre-reader's experiences with rote and rhyme. Actually, the child applies this reasoning in his early language experience whenever he hears a statement that includes words unfamiliar to him. He begins to learn how to guess at the missing word, or at its meaning by using verbal context clues.

Observations of the child's pre-reading experiences with rote, rhyme, and reason lead to an appreciation of the related factors contributing to reading with comprehension. When a child's earlier experiences have afforded him the opportunity to sense these relationships, formal reading instruction can recapitulate the experiences in rote and rhyme and extend experiences in reasoning. A gradual shift is made from the aural mode to the visual mode.

An analysis of instructional practices with respect to the teaching of comprehension skills follows. The development of decoding skills and comprehension skills are binary aspects of a developmental reading program. The two facets are of such importance that separate emphasis is given to each aspect in a program of sequential skills development. If, however, the separate emphasis results in a beginning reader's failing to gain insight into the relationship between the two equally important aspects of reading, an artificial juncture may be experienced. This artificial juncture is manifested in behaviors commonly observed by teachers: the child sounds out the words, but can make no sense out of the context; the

child is unable to substitute words with synonymous meanings for those he is unable to decode.

Overemphasis on the decoding aspects of reading without complementary emphasis on reasoning for meaning suggest that pronunciation is all that is needed to derive meaning. This is true only if the decoded word falls within the aural/oral vocabulary of the reader. When the unknown word is outside of the vocabulary of the reader, then he needs to surmise meaning, if not word identity, from context clues if they are afforded; otherwise, he needs to consult the dictionary or a resource person to gain or verify meaning.

When teaching decoding skills supersedes and obviates the teaching of reasoning for meaning, comprehension suffers. What is needed is a systematic and explicit means to enable the learner to practice the use of reasoning in reading. *The use of context clues in cloze exercises administered aurally and/or visually affords that practice.* By systematic design a teacher can afford children specific experiences in learning to relate rote, rhyme, and reason to reading comprehension. When a child has not been exposed to the series of experiences described prior to school entry, it is incumbent upon the teacher to systematically and sequentially provide those experiences to bridge the gaps.

Strategies for using context clues effectively should be made explicitly. Until recently, studies in the area of context clues were more exhortatory than definitive. McCullough (5, p. 229) stated:

"Until we begin to define this area of learning to make it a part of a continuous developmental program, until we begin to teach the techniques as well as require their use, the whole matter of comprehension must flounder."

A review of the literature on context clues substantiates the fact that there is general inability to utilize context clues at various maturity levels. Reports of glaring disregard of contextual meaning suggest that even intelligent elementary grade children are unable to use context clues as an aid to comprehension. Even at higher grade levels, research evidence suggests that there is general inability to utilize obvious clues. Dolch (3) reported that teachers were able to recognize omitted words only 30 percent of the time when context was the only clue.

For nearly half a century the use of context clues has been advocated. Only recently has attention been focused on categorization of these clues and on means of teaching children how to use them. Ames (*1*) developed a classification schema of fourteen categories of context clues based on re-

search evidence. Chang (2) used six of these categories of context clues in devising an experimental cloze test to determine the ability of elementary-grade pupils to use them in listening and in reading. Examples of the six categories of clues appear in the section of this paper on teaching techniques. In the order of their established difficulty (from easiest to most difficult), the six categories are:

1. Definitions or descriptions
2. Words connected or in series
3. Direct referrals
4. Modifying phrases/clauses
5. Familiar expressions
6. Comparisons or contrasts

Research on the cloze procedure began with the originator, Taylor (7), reporting his cloze formulation in 1953. By 1965, Rankin (6) reported on the distinction between basic types of cloze procedures and their modification: variations in rates of deletions, types of word deleted, administration and scoring of the cloze test. The basic procedure essentially involves: 1) the selection of a passage for test purposes, 2) deletion of words replaced by underlined blanks of standard length, 3) scoring the written responses of readers for words they think were deleted from the text.

Since 1953, a body of literature has grown from psycho-linguistic research with most research focused on three areas: 1) cloze as a technique for assessing reading comprehension, 2) cloze as a readability measure, and 3) cloze as a tool for investigating language variables.

Research on context clues has been urged since the turn of the century. Nearly a half century of advocacy of their use followed. Only recently, Jongsma (4) in *The Cloze Procedure as a Teaching Technique* documented studies in which cloze was used as a means of instruction in grades ranging from the first through college.

Teaching Technique. The following exercises serve as examples for lessons designed to afford practice in the use of six categories of context clues. Deleted words occur from every word form class: nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. Function words have also been deleted to provide additional information on the child's syntactic sense. The exercises serve as examples only; appropriate exercises should be developed using written discourse for various reading levels. Presentation of the exercises can be oral and/or visual in accord with the differential needs of pupils. When the exercises are taped, a standard tone should be used to signal the missing word.

Examples of cloze items from seven categories of context clues:

I. DEFINITIONS AND DESCRIPTIONS:
The boys were playing a game of ..... in the park. It was very exciting when a player caught a high pass and made a touchdown.

II. WORDS CONNECTED OR IN SERIES:
The two children never minded the three-mile walk to school. The forest always offered them something new to ..... hear, smell, or touch.

III. DIRECT REFERRALS:
Since your first year in school you have been learning to read. Now you can ..... quite well.

IV. MODIFYING PHRASES/CLAUSES:
The rowboat was drifting down the river so ..... that it seemed to be hardly moving.

V. FAMILIAR EXPRESSIONS:
John was always late to school, but he decided to turn over a ..... leaf and come on time this year.

VI. COMPARISONS OR CONTRASTS:
George was so very sure that he was right, even when everyone else knew he was .....

VII. FUNCTION WORDS:
A stone path led away .. ... the gate to the kitchen door.

Summary. The intent of this paper was to promote the use of the cloze procedure in teaching the use of context clues. A rationale for instructional practice was developed by citing 1) observations of reading behavior/practices, and 2) research on context clues and the cloze procedure. Examples of six categories of context clues were presented in modified cloze exercises where words from various word-form classes were deleted. Either the aural mode and/or the visual mode is recommended for practicing these exercises, depending on the observed needs of pupils.

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Comprehension: Problems, Purposes, and Promises

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Investigators and authors in the field of reading frequently refer to problems students have in reading comprehension and purposes for reading. Are these skills unique or are they closely interrelated? If they are interrelated, as some people claim, can improvement in reading comprehension be achieved through teaching specific purposes for reading? If so, how? Answers to these questions currently are being sought by this writer and others.

Early Investigations

It is apparent that many educators and scholars working in the field of reading agree that the reading act itself and, more especially, reading comprehension is very complex. (*20, 13*) Several attempts have been made to develop constructs, theories, or taxonomies dealing with reading comprehension with some disagreement as to what constitutes the specific skills involved. (*14, 3, 4*) However, there is agreement that reading comprehension is composed of literal comprehension and inferential comprehension at the very least. Most educators also would agree that reading is an elaborate procedure with reading comprehension being perhaps the most important part of the nature of reading. Reading comprehension, then, is composed of many subskills; it is multidimensional and not one single skill. (*5, 6*)

Although a positive correlation can be found between specific skills in reading or skills in any of the language arts, there is evidence to indicate that reading comprehension skills are somewhat unique. (*6*) Teaching one skill cannot assure improvement in others. It is necessary to teach all the specific skills of reading comprehension without reliance on transfer of learning between skills.

Gray (*12*) and Fay (*8*) have suggested that purposes for reading affect the different processes used in reading. In fact, it would be difficult to locate a text designed for a college reading methods course that did *not* include opinions on purposes for reading. "Intelligent reading presupposes a purpose on the part of the reader—a purpose which governs the character of his approach to what he reads." (*18*) Other reading authorities (*2, 17, 15, 7*) have stated that the depth of comprehension and accuracy of interpretation are partially dependent on the purpose for reading.

Teaching Problems

It would seem that purposes for reading and achievement in reading comprehension are so closely interrelated as to be almost inseparable. Classroom teachers demonstrate concerns about reading comprehension in their search for diagnostic tests of reading comprehension. Teachers also demonstrate concern for reading purposes when they provide pre-reading questions.

Teachers' problems are twofold. The first problem concerns two common assumptions often made by classroom teachers. It is assumed either that reading comprehension is one skill whereby students understand or they don't or that reading comprehension is composed of so many skills that it is virtually impossible to teach them all. The second problem deals with the variety and quantity of teachers' questions used to teach skills in reading comprehension. Recent research (*9, 11*) raises a caution signal as to the value of teachers' questions as aids to purpose-setting for increasing reading comprehension. One recent study (*1*) examined and categorized the questions posed by teachers in relation to their objectives for their classes. Results of this study showed that Application and Evaluation questions are rarely used in primary reading classes. It is interesting to note that while objectives stated often involved application, questions in the same category were seldom asked. Other studies (*9, 10*) found position of questions and frequency of questions to be important factors in learning reading behaviors.

Improvement in purpose-setting behaviors seems crucial to improvement in reading comprehension skills. Purposes must be specific. Therefore, it is essential to identify the specific skills involved in reading comprehension. Further, assessment of success with these specific skills seems desirable.

Recent Investigations

One recent study by the author (*16*) investigated the effects of direct instruction to read for a given purpose on literal and inferential reading comprehension of sixth-grade students. For purposes of this study, experi-

mental tests to measure literal and inferential reading comprehension were developed. The *Test of Inferential Comprehension* was designed to measure students' ability to read for implied meanings. These original measurement instruments were checked for clarity, analyzed for reading difficulty, then examined for validity by a panel of evaluators, and finally, tested for reliability.

Two hundred and forty-one children who were average or above average in general reading achievement were selected from the sixth-grade population in a large suburban school in Kansas to participate in this study. Students were randomly assigned to the experimental and control groups. The choice of sixth graders was based on the assumption that they had received some instruction in "reading for different purposes" as well as instruction in "reading for comprehension." The choice of criteria for selection of the subjects was based on the assumption that a very low reading ability would complicate measurement since the experimental tests were specifically designed for reading at the sixth-grade level.

Both the *Test of Literal Comprehension* and the *Test of Inferential Comprehension* were administered to all students in the study sample. The setting of purpose for reading was provided for the experimental group by instructions to read in order to find answers to questions calling for stated or implied meanings and with three practice exercises. The control group received no purpose-setting instructions.

Comparisons between experimental and control groups by means of the *t* statistic and relationships determined by coefficients of correlations between the two tests were obtained from the test data. Analysis of the data showed that the experimental group did not achieve significantly better than the control group on the *Test of Literal Comprehension* when asked to recognize details, main ideas, sequence, comparisons, cause and effect or character traits. Additionally, even though the control group received no purpose-setting instruction on the *Test of Inferential Comprehension* they scored as high as the experimental group when asked to infer supporting details, main ideas, word meanings, character traits, comparisons or outcomes.

In an analysis of the grouped dispersion of the students' levels of achievement on the *Test of Literal Comprehension* as compared to their level of achievement on the *Test of Inferential Comprehension*, it was found that a greater percentage of those students in the control group remained at the same level of achievement on both tests than did the students in the experimental group. There was a greater tendency for experimental students scoring in the bottom group on the *Test of Literal Comprehension* to score in a higher group on the *Test of Inferential Comprehension* than students in the control group.

In other words, purpose-setting instructions did seem to be of value to students achieving on the lower end of the continuum in general reading ability. It would seem that average or above average achievers at the sixth-grade level may have learned to set some of their own purposes for reading while lower achieving students need help in setting purposes for literal and inferential reading comprehension.

It would seem logical that students would score better on reading comprehension tests when they were, in fact, given directed instruction as to purposes for reading. Why, then, does the purpose-setting only seem to influence the achievement of the lower achieving students? Why is it that average and superior readers comprehend as well without teacher help prior to reading?

Interpretation of Study Findings

A possible first impression derived from the Pettit study is that the findings and conclusions are in conflict with those generally held with regard to the value of reading purposes. Establishing purposes for reading has generally been regarded as an important prerequisite to effective comprehension at all levels from beginning to mature reading. This study found that instruction to read for stated and implied meanings did not, in fact, substantially affect achievement of sixth-grade students in literal and inferential comprehension. Therefore, some of the possible reasons for the apparent conflict between these conclusions and the findings of other studies needed to be considered.

First, it was postulated that by the time students reach the sixth grade they may have already developed the ability to set their own purposes for literal and inferential reading comprehension. Thus, if students have learned to establish their own purposes, then directing them to read for a given purpose which they have already learned to set for themselves might have little measurable effect.

Second, the fact that students achieved in similar ways on both a test of literal and a test of inferential reading comprehension regardless of whether or not they received purpose-setting instructions might be the result of a practice commonly observed in teachers, that of instructing students to read for one purpose but asking questions having little relation to the purpose established. That is to say, given a particular reading selection, a teacher may set a rather pointed purpose for reading; yet, after the material has been read by the students, the teacher may have forgotten her own instructions and may ask her students questions which have no relation to the original purpose for reading. For whatever reason, they may soon learn to pay little attention to purpose-setting instructions from the

teacher. Consequently, when students were directed to read for a given purpose, it may be that their habit pattern of listening to such reading instructions caused them to achieve in a similar manner on both tests of reading comprehension.

Coupled with the above is the further observation that teachers frequently set reading purposes in a very casual manner. Even the tone of voice sometimes does not indicate the importance of the instructions being given. Consequently, students again may tend to read all material in the same way, giving little thought to the fact that there may be meaning between the lines which is as important as the meaning contained on the lines.

Finally, though studies demonstrate the value of purpose in contributing to reading comprehension, an effective mental set may be created by more than merely directing students to read for stated ideas or inferences. Perhaps purposes for reading should be directed much more specifically. In other words, purposes directed toward specific abilities, such as perceiving cause and effect relations, main ideas, or sequence of ideas, may provide more effective help for students than purposes directed toward types of comprehension abilities. To provide maximal help with reading comprehension and extensive training in purpose-setting, the need for identification of strengths and weaknesses in specific skills of reading comprehension is essential.

Test Refinement

To this end, the two experimental tests previously mentioned have been revised to balance the types of items in the tests and to create subscales within each test. The new *Literal Comprehension Test for Reading* contains six subskills: recognition of details, main ideas, sequence, comparisons, cause and effect, and character traits. The new *Inferential Comprehension Test for Reading* contains five subskills: recognition of inferred details, main ideas, word meanings, outcomes, and character traits.

The revised tests have been administered this year to three new populations. Sixth-grade students from a small rural school in Missouri made up one subgroup; sixth-grade students from a relatively large urban school in Missouri constituted another subgroup; and sixth-grade students from a small suburban school outside a major city in Missouri served as a subgroup. The validation study is not yet completed. However, analysis of test scores, using the Kuder-Richardson formula for reliability, produced reliability results ranging from .916 to .940. Additionally, initial examination of test results indicates that in certain cases low scores on literal or inferential reading comprehension are reflected in low scores on only one or two of the subscales.

Conclusions

Teachers, provided with diagnostic data which might be obtained from these or similar tests, could then direct their attentions and concerns to those specific skills in which a weakness is indicated. It is obvious that teaching general reading comprehension will not, in fact, lead to achievement in all the skills of reading comprehension. In one investigation of instruction in purposeful reading at the high school level (*19*), it was found that students who had planned systematic instruction in reading for different purposes read and comprehended significantly better than students taught by general procedures.

Diagnostic measurements designed to reveal strengths and weaknesses in reading comprehension skills, and thereby to indicate the type of corrective teaching needed, may hold promise for dealing with problems in reading comprehension. The role of purpose-setting behaviors could at that time be re-examined and re-evaluated. Only by solving the problem of purpose-setting can the goal of real reading comprehension be achieved. Then teachers can move ahead to meet individual needs and growth in reading behaviors of students.

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Building a Program of Effective Reading in the Content Areas

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There is little question about the value of being able to read for information and enjoyment. A student who is unable to achieve in reading finds himself in a difficult position with respect to general school achievement and may ultimately become a high school dropout. The findings from the classic study which was completed by Ruth Penty (5) in the Battle Creek, Michigan school system document the significant relationship which appears to exist between reading ability and school performance. She found that approximately one-half of the students who scored in the lowest quarter of reading ability scores left school before graduation whereas only one-seventh of the students in the upper quarter left before graduation.

The previous statistics clearly indicate that all secondary teachers and administrators need to continue a well devised program of developmental, remedial, and corrective reading. Reading instruction is not the sole responsibility of the English teacher and/or the remedial reading teacher. One must also remember that reading *is not* a subject but rather a body of skills or competencies which must be promoted by all members of the faculty who use reading materials as an instructional tool. Despite the fact that many secondary teachers have not completed a formal reading methods course, there are a number of practical guidelines which can be followed for aiding the growth of reading skills. Several of these are described in the next section.

Guiding Principles for Building Reading Skills

1. At the beginning of the school year each teacher needs to find the reading interests of his or her students. This information can be obtained through the use of an interest inventory. Suggested inventories which might be used can be found in volumes by Cushenbery (*1*), (2), (3), and

Karlin (4). Questions should be used which relate to such aspects as amount of reading done, source of books, and kinds of books read. A careful study of the data obtained from such inventories can be of tremendous help to the teacher in planning meaningful assignments and establishing student rapport and motivation.

2. Since teachers are reading "physicians" in the total learning environment, a careful analysis of each student's reading abilities must be made. Standardized survey reading tests should be given to all students to determine general reading achievement in the important areas of vocabulary and comprehension. Generally speaking, those persons who score in the lowest quartile on such tests should be given diagnostic tests by reading specialists in order to determine precise reading strengths and limitations. The data (and interpretation) from both survey and diagnostic tests should be delivered to all teachers for the students who are listed on their class rolls. This information should be of much help in instructional planning.

3. Since there may be many students who are reading much below (and above) grade level in a secondary class, a large number of resource books must be made available. If the teacher is to be effective in building an increasingly large vocabulary and a meaningful level of comprehension, the use of a single textbook cannot be justified. The severely retarded reader will not be able to read *the* book and the gifted reader will not find the volume to be challenging. At the present time there are many reputable publishers who are producing large numbers of multilevel texts and accompanying media aids for meeting the individual reading needs of a heterogeneous class.

4. All teachers should be careful to introduce resource books in a proper manner. A discussion concerning the author's background and why he or she wrote the volume(s) may be helpful as a matter of readiness. The mechanical aspects of the source such as the table of contents, index, glossary, and the unique arrangement of charts, tables, maps, and/or graphs should be carefully explained at the very beginning of a semester in order that the student can use the material with maximum benefit. Many authors include such items as pronounciation keys to aid the student in unlocking words. There is a clear indication that far too many teachers fail to introduce books properly since they presume that most students understand and can use all of these features. Unfortunately, this notion has little, if any, validity.

5. To ensure steady growth of vocabulary and comprehension skills on the part of each student, each teacher in each content area must use a systematic approach for the reading tasks to be accomplished. The five-step approach which follows should be followed for meeting this objective.

Step 1. Readiness and Vocabulary Development

Build readiness for the selection or topic by discussing with students what they know about the subject, what they wish to know about the topic, and how the facts and concepts are related to the *current* needs of the students. Further interest may be obtained through the use of media aids such as a film or filmstrip or by having a resource speaker come to the class to discuss the subject. Depending on the subject and the number of students, a total of one to three class periods may be used for these purposes.

Enlarging each student's vocabulary should be accomplished as a part of Step 1. Specific words which may be new to the class members should be "culled" from texts. These words should be used in sentences or phrases (never in lists) and placed on the blackboard or on a transparency. The words in question should be carefully pronounced as a joint endeavor by both the teacher and the students. Frequent reviews of these words should be undertaken from time to time to insure that the pronunciation and meanings have been mastered.

Step 2. Formation of Guiding Questions

Since one of the chief causes of poor comprehension is lack of purpose for reading, the construction of guiding questions *before* silent reading is an absolute must. Some of the questions should originate with the teacher, others with the students, and still others may be selected from those which are sometimes provided by the author of text materials. In a typical secondary class, a total of five to seven questions may be developed. These questions should be well understood by the students since they serve as the purposes for reading.

Step 3. Silent Reading Activities

After reading purposes have been established, all students should pursue silent reading to find the answers in books which represent their respective *instructional* reading levels. (The instructional level is that point in a graded list of books where the student can pronounce at least 95 percent of the words orally and can demonstrate at least 75 percent accuracy on silent reading comprehension.)

Hopefully, a given grade level text may be used successfully with the majority of the students in a particular class. However, for perhaps 15 to 25 percent of the class members, the use of easier materials must be employed. The teacher should not be overly concerned about *where* the student finds the answers to the questions described in Step 2. The important thing is to place the *right* book in the hands of the *right* student so maximum understanding can take place. Needless frustration is evident in situ-

ations when a teacher tries to force students to read *a* text, regardless of the fact that a significant number of them cannot read such difficult material.

A part of the silent reading should take place under the supervision of the teacher. During this period of time he or she can observe various students and perhaps notice manifestations of reading problems as displayed by finger pointing or vocalizing.

Step 4. Discussion of Questions

When all silent reading activities have been completed, a discussion of the questions which were listed in Step 2 should take place. Possible silent rereading may be necessary to clarify certain points, and oral reading activities may be incorporated to pinpoint certain facts which have been found. Further silent reading may be necessary if satisfactory answers to the questions could not be found.

Step 5. Culminating Activities

At this stage various projects may be undertaken to reinforce the facts and concepts discovered during the silent reading. Some teachers have employed the use of guest speakers, films, filmstrips, video tapes, and various art projects for this purpose. Some students will want to read additional resource books in the library to "clinch" meaning.

6. One of the keys to effective reading in the content areas is the ability to adjust reading speed to various kinds of reading material. In an informal study relating to the mean reading speed of 200 university freshmen, the author discovered that nearly 80 percent of the subjects read all social studies books at approximately 250 words per minute without any regard to the subject or content of the books. Inevitably, in this type of situation, difficult concepts are not fully understood when technical volumes are read and a tragic waste of time is spent on easy reading matter such as fiction material. Students need to be taught to grasp significant details in a mathematics or science book using .. reading speed of perhaps 25 to 100 words per minute; however, they should also realize that a speed of 500 to 700 words per minute might be entirely proper for a novel which is read for a literature class.

In addition to the six points just discussed, all teachers at the secondary level need to join efforts in developing a sound, ongoing reading skills program to help each student develop to his maximum level in the following areas:

a. various word attack skills such as phonetic analysis, structural analysis, and context clues

b. vocabulary enlargement including new and unusual words which are relevant to a given content field

c. proper use of advanced level dictionaries, encyclopedias, and other resource books

d. construction and utilization of class notes obtained from lectures and reference books

e. identification and knowledge of the use of figurative language in both fictional and nonfictional reading materials

f. the value of maps, charts, and graphs in conveying important facts to the reader

In summary, one can say that all secondary teachers have a role in helping each student gain effective reading skills in the content areas. The key to skill development is adjusting instructional patterns which will ensure that given reading materials are used only by those students whose instructional reading levels are commensurate with the difficulty levels of the printed aids.

The sequential development of vocabulary and comprehension skills should take place in every class through the use of the five-step approach which has been outlined in this paper. Every teacher, regardless of past academic training, can use these techniques with demonstrable success and thus aid each student to realize maximum reading skill development.

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Integrating Reading Needs with Subject Matter

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As the elementary school child becomes more and more efficient at decoding the written symbols, he is called upon to give more consideration to the ideas behind those symbols. At this point it is common to refer to the instruction he is receiving as "learning how to read-to-learn." It is also at this point in his reading instruction that we need to broaden our definition of reading to include more than decoding of symbols and include recognition of the reaction to, and use of the meaning behind, the printed symbols.

Where can this kind of instruction best take place? It can best take place in the classes which require regular reading of factual materials for ideas. All too frequently when the child realizes *the need* for these higher level reading skills, he is already past the school age which offers regular and systematic reading instruction in reading classes. It is at this point that the student gets caught in the bind; he can't deal with the written material at any higher level of thought than the literal interpretation level, and there seems to be little interest in giving him any assistance in doing so.

When can this kind of instruction best take place? One of the best times for such instruction to take place is at the time of need—right at the time the student needs to deal with ideas which have been symbolized on the printed page. This also brings the instruction into the social studies, science, and mathematics classes which require regular reading of factual materials for ideas.

Frequently when teachers tell of their plans for helping children who cannot read the material for their social studies or science sessions they include having someone else read it to the slow reader or having the whole group read it aloud. This practice, although reasonably sound for master-

ing the content, bypasses the reading problem. This only provides a detour around the problem area and does nothing to repair or remedy the problem area—learning to read-to-learn.

Who is best prepared to teach the student to read factual material, the reading teacher or the subject matter specialist? Both have special skills which give them advantages over the other on different counts. The reading teacher, of course, has his expertise for recognizing the reading difficulties (defined as "skills"), but the content teacher has the expertise to help the student with the background of experience necessary to deal with the difficult and/or foreign concepts which are a regular part of his subject matter.

What are some of the problems the reader of factual material regularly encounters? What is the nature of the material and assignments encountered while reading int he content areas? Frequently what is assumed is not true. For example:

It is assumed that . . .	When in reality . . .
1. Children study content to solve problems.	1. Children read pages to meet assignments and pass quizzes.
2. Authors present factual material in logical, well-rounded thoughts that are easily understood by the reader.	2. Material may seem logical to the writer, yes, but not to the reader. The reader is most likely to be trying to see how it checks out with his own past experiences rather than looking for the author's line of logic.
3. Precise and authentic terms are used so there will be no confusion, e.g., hacienda, adobe, polder, exponent.	3. Many of the terms used are strange and unfamiliar to the reader—he has little or no experiences to connect them to.
4. Everything is well explained and accompanied by meaningful commentary.	4. This may be true; however, this leaves very little higher level (interpretation and application) thinking for the reader. All the comparing, contrasting, summarizing, etc., has been done *for him*. What the reader needs in order to develop higher level thinking and reading skills is

	more "raw data" (data presented without the writer's comments and interpretations).
5. No purpose needs to be suggested—this purpose-setting can be left to the instructor.	5. Instructors too frequently assume that the reader will find "something" from the material so nothing more than page numbers are given as an introduction to the assignment. There are very few times when a reader of factual material should begin to read without a definite purpose—this purpose is best understood when it is in the form of a question.
6. Topics of interest to the expert in the field are the things that the student should learn.	6. Many of the topics presented are unrelated to the child's everyday experiences. They are frequently far removed from the child in both time and space.

When you put this all together, it adds up to a very high concept load with very little built-in help for the student to deal with it.

What can the content (or reading) teacher do to overcome some of these problems? They can 1) improve assignments, 2) use a variety of study materials, 3) provide study guides, and 4) involve children in higher level thinking tasks.

Assignments can be improved by helping each reader clearly define not only what he will read but also the purpose for which he will read. The teacher should arrange the reading tasks in the class assignments so that they actually help children study content to solve problems and to answer questions. Students should learn to *depend* on their interpretation of the reading material. There isn't much need for a student to develop his critical thinking or reading skills in a classroom where his ideas are not required or used in solving problems. Teachers should reapportion the time spent on a given reading assignment so that more time and effort are spent *before* the child reads even if it means using some of the time that would otherwise be spent in follow-up discussion. Raising appropriate questions in the minds of the readers before reading the selection can do much to enhance the search for answers during the first reading of the material when interest is still high. Teachers should let the readers know

how the information which is found will be used. They should also help them determine an appropriate way to read the material; they might skim, read cursorily, or use a study-type method of reading. Do students study in the same manner for a multiple choice test as they do for an essay test? Does a reader look for the same ideas and relationships if he is going to use the information in discussion as if he is going to use it in an oral report? Hardly! Students need to be involved in developing the questions and in choosing and determining what material might be appropriate for answering the questions which have been posed. Any reading task is much more interesting when one has been involved in establishing the need for it. In this way the chances of setting up an assignment which has some relevance to the child's own experiences are greatly increased.

Secondly, teachers should use a *variety* of suitable reading and study material. They should choose materials which fit the child's reading level. If a child is having any difficulty with reading his regular basal reading material, it is certain that the teacher will need to provide him with even easier reading material in the content areas. Needless to say, this is probably the most frustrating area for concerned content teachers—there just does not seem to be enough appropriate reading material available which is at lower reading levels of difficulty. Therefore, content teachers may need to consider rewriting small portions of existing material to provide a minimum amount of reading material for the weak readers and also consider using other forms of media such as films and filmstrips to help provide greater understanding of the content. Filmstrips frequently require some reading ability but have sufficient picture clues to make the reading less difficult.

One of the best ways a teacher can force himself to put a variety of reading material to use in his classroom is to refrain from the adoption of a single text and begin operating with a problem solving approach. This, of necessity, requires a multiple materials approach. The term multiple text has not been used here because having two "text books" has most of the same shortcomings that a single text adoption has, and reading the same facts in two different places doesn't add much to the reader's understanding. In addition, having a few copies of two different texts has the added difficulty of not having the opportunity for each class member to have in his hands a copy of the reading selection being used in the lesson.

When alternatives in reading material are not available and a rewriting of the material does not seem feasible, study guides may need to be constructed. Study guides are frequently of two types: process guides and content guides. Process guides aid the reader by being his "silent teacher," offering him suggestions about how he might best read the material and apply those reading skills he has. It calls his attention to skills which will

help him overcome the organizational and mechanical difficulties of the selection. For example, the student might be reminded to use the topic headings, the pictures, charts, etc.

Unlike the process guide which focuses on the help which can be gained by understanding the way the material has been presented, the content guide focuses its attention on the *information* which the child will be reading. For example it might help the child establish a purpose without the direct aid of the teacher. It might call for responses at any or all levels of comprehension. It might even be used as the tool for requiring application of the understanding by having the reader respond on the study guide rather than in a discussion session to be held later.

One word of caution seems in order here. Since the student who requires the aid of a study guide is usually a weak reader and lacks motivation, every effort must be made to guarantee that the study guide used is one which adds motivation, interest, and meaning to the reading task rather tnan making it more time-consuming, more dull, and more burdensome. The guides should not be allowed to become a source of frustration in the way that the questions at the end of the chapter have become for many poor readers.

A variation of the study guide technique which is helpful to the content teacher is the choice of a small number of textbooks (about six for most classrooms) and "write-in" helps and guides to the reader similar to those which are provided in a study guide. Children who are having difficulty reading the assignments independently in the regular manner should use these copies of the text (or trade book). These copies could be used in subsequent years also.

Dealing with the content at all levels of understanding is another way to overcome the problems the reader of factual materials regularly encounters. Teachers must avoid being caught in the trap of continuously asking questions which call for low-level responses based upon simple recall of facts and literal interpretation of the selection read. Instead they must encourage higher levels of thought by asking questions which require students to interpret what the author meant as well as to use the ideas contained in the reading in real or contrived situations.

Here are some sample questions which illustrate three commonly used levels of understanding—recall, inference, and application:

Level 1 (recall): What did the author say? Choose those which were directly stated by the author.

a. An insect scared little Miss Muffet.
b. Little Miss Muffet was sitting on a tuffet.
c. It was a spider that scared little Miss Muffet.

d. Little Miss Muffet was eating cookies and milk.

Level 2 (inference): What did the author mean? Choose those which you infer the author meant.

a. Every small girl should eat dairy products.
b. Some girls are afraid of even tiny things.
c. Small girls should not eat dairy products.
d. Miss Muffet was afraid of the spider.

Level 3 (application): How can we use the meanings? Choose those statements which you judge to be appropriate uses of the author's statements and/or meanings.

a. Always be alert to the things around you—they might be dangerous.
b. Boys, be brave; it may help win the love of the maiden.
c. Stay away from tuffets because there are always spiders near tuffets.
d. Eat dairy products only indoors.

One of the greatest hindrances to higher level thinking exists in the material itself. Many of the selections prepared for the social studies and other content subjects are written in such a way that the author has already made all the inferences and suggested the possible uses of the data he has given. Since students need practice in using their inference skills, every effort needs to be made to find reading selections which provide raw data from which students can make comparisons, see contrasts, make hypotheses, test hypotheses, draw conclusions, and form generalizations. In addition to drawing their own conclusions, students should be encouraged to rely upon those conclusions in determining future behavior. In these situations the teacher must exercise restraint; he should not summarize the discussion, but let the students do so. He should refrain from making decisions and choices for the students; he should, instead, encourage them to do so. Learning to choose, decide, and summarize are necessary inference skills and they are best improved through continued practice.

In summary the content teacher can best help the reader by providing opportunities for students to utilize and extend the reading skills they have already learned. Considerations for the teacher and learner include helping the student become familiar with the aids provided in the reading material he has been assigned, helping him discover the general nature of the content of each book he will be using, and helping him discover how the content is organized.

Teachers must encourage children to approach new reading material independently and in such a way that the special features of the book will be utilized. The general aids which students should be able to use inde-

pendently include: title, cover, index, table of contents, maps, glossary, chapter titles, and summaries. Guiding children through a survey of these special features is a minimum requirement for every student in a content course; however, knowing about these aids is of no benefit unless it becomes a regular procedure while doing independent reading tasks.

Teaching Reading Skills Through the Materials of Social Studies

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At least 90 percent of dropouts have reading problems. Other students not achieving well in high school are inefficient students mainly due to their lack of reading ability. It should not be assumed that students can read by the time they reach high school. Secondary teachers have an obligation to teach reading as they teach subject matter.

American youth read in varied amounts in numerous places, using varied kinds of reading materials. But many are unable to read except for sports stories, racing forms, comic books, and other easy-to-understand materials. Because they have not learned to read easily and efficiently, they find reading difficult. Their purposes for reading are quite different from those of students who find reading easy. Yet in many classrooms, both types of students can be found, using the same textbooks and expected to learn the same subject matter.

In present times almost every pupil continues into high school, for various reasons. Law forbids leaving school before the age of sixteen. A high school education is demanded by many employers. High school graduation is considered a minimal educational goal according to general cultural acceptance. The result is a high school population which is extremely heterogeneous.

Many studies have shown that a range of six to nine grade levels of reading ability exists between the best and poorest readers in most high school classrooms, and that range may be as wide as fourteen levels. It is quite probable that at least forty to fifty percent of high school students are being asked to learn subject matter from books that are beyond their instructional level in reading.

In addition to a wide range of differences in general reading ability, differences also exist in proficiency in various reading skills. Some students

may be high in comprehension, low in rate, and average in vocabulary, while others will have these skills in varying combinations of proficiency.

In order that the secondary social studies teacher may become aware of the role of reading and the skills needed by students for successful work in his content area, the following information is provided. Space did not permit extensive suggestions for teaching these skills, but many worthwhile techniques and activities may be found in the sources listed as references.

The Textbook

Students need instruction in the use of the textbook(*s*) for the course since each book usually has particular kinds of study aids and may have a unique style of writing and/or organization. The purposes and distinguishing features can be explained for the title page; table of contents; preface or introduction; lists of maps, tables, and illustrations; index; glossary; and any other special sections of the book. Practice should be given in finding specific information from each of these in order to ensure that each student has sufficient familiarity with each feature to effectively use it during his study. Explanations are needed concerning the use of the chapter title, section headings, marginal notations, subheadings, footnotes, introduction and summary, and concluding questions. Instruction and practice in reading maps, diagrams, tables, and illustrations should be given.

Some discussion of the overall organization of the book may help the student sense relationships between the ideas presented in various chapters. If chapters are read in an order other than that presented by the author, the instructor may need to point out relationships of the newly assigned material to previously studied information. If the style of writing used by an author is somewhat unique and/or difficult to understand, explanation of its particular characteristics and their purposes may aid the student's comprehension.

A Study Method

When a reading assignment is given, a period of introduction will better prepare the students for benefiting from the reading. The assigned material can be related to previously learned concepts. Difficult ideas can be explained in any of various ways, and related vocabulary can be developed. Problems and questions may be raised to be answered through the reading. Some discussion should concern the purpose for which the material is to be read, some specific reading skills to be employed, and an appropriate rate of reading to be used.

Students need to be taught a method for studying an assigned reading selection such as the SQ3R technique. Briefly described, SQ3R consists

of five steps: 1) Survey—The student skims the entire selection to find main ideas of the information and note a few of the supporting details. He should also attempt to determine the relationships of the various subsections in order to obtain an overall picture of the material's organization. 2) Question—The student becomes actively involved in the reading and develops a questioning attitude toward the material to be read. This can sometimes be accomplished by turning the section headings and subheadings into questions and then reading to find the answers to those questions. 3) Read—The student uses his previously formed questions to guide his reading of the material. 4) Recite—The student recalls, without the aid of his book, the main ideas he learned from the reading and the answers to his questions. Rereading may be necessary in some parts if recall is unclear. Notes may be made after the recitation, including personalized "shorthand" cues for recalling key facts and important ideas. 5) Review—Notes are reviewed frequently. As notes from several separate readings become available, the student may be able to gain new insights, recognize the total structure of a topic, and develop relationships which were not evident during the separate assignments.

In addition to reading the text of a book, the student needs to be able to gain information from other printed forms. For instance, illustrations, maps, charts, and other graphic aids often contain information basic to understanding the text material. If students omit or incorrectly interpret these, they may not obtain an accurate understanding of the material. Information given in footnotes, the glossary, or appendices may also aid understanding. Attention given to these types of communication, when relevant to the assignment, will prepare the student for making maximum use of them during his study.

Location of Information

The textbook is frequently considered only one source of knowledge, and students may be expected to go beyond this basic source to obtain additional information on a topic. After deciding what he wants to know, the student must be able to select the most appropriate sources to use for obtaining that information. He also needs the skills to most effectively use each kind of resource. Direct instruction should be provided in the distinguishing characteristics of each, and opportunities provided for functional practice experiences in using these resources. Knowing how to correctly and effectively use encyclopedias, dictionaries, atlases, globes, graphs, tables, diagrams, guides to periodical literature, the card catalog, magazine files, etc. requires many different skills, all of which need to be directly taught and should not be assumed to be incidentally picked up by students.

Organization of Information

Once information is located, the student needs to know how to retain this information for future use. Notes may be taken in grammatically incorrect and abbreviated form, or in a formal outline. Charts, tables, or diagrams may be constructed to express information in a more graphic form. A brief summary of the information may be written, including the main ideas and their relationships. The amount of information recorded and the form used will be determined by the student's purposes. Again, it must not be assumed all students have the ability to use these skills proficiently. Planned instruction may be necessary.

Vocabulary

A student may be able to locate information but then find he cannot read it. Social studies materials are difficult for many students. The vocabulary itself may be a stumbling block. Many technical terms are used, words found only in social studies. Other words may be already familiar in other contexts but have specialized meanings as used in social studies. There are a number of abstract words whose meanings can be developed only through many contacts in varied contexts. Proper names, foreign words, coined words, and figurative language all add to the vocabulary load of a piece of writing, making comprehension difficult. Antecedents may be unclear. Unfamiliar abbreviations, symbols, alphabet titles (UNESCO, NATO), and punctuation may lead to misunderstandings. Unless the student is able to decode correctly the printed material, he will be unable to comprehend its meaning and to learn from his reading.

Instruction in decoding includes teaching the recognition of root words, suffixes and prefixes and their meanings, related words, phonograms, syllabication, the use of context, and the use of a glossary or dictionary. Many types of exercises may be employed to give practice on the decoding skills.

Comprehension

Comprehension of written materials is very complex. It is mainly a thinking process, an ability to make use of what has been decoded. The most basic comprehension skill is a literal understanding of what the printed words represent. Such literal comprehension is seldom sufficient, however, for most printed materials represent many ideas which are not directly stated but only implied. Inferential reading is difficult to teach since it often deals with abstract relationships among words, sentences, and paragraphs. Discussion is a valuable teaching aid, during which students are asked to explain how they arrived at certain conclusions, and to cite parts of the printed matter which led to particular interpretations.

By far the most important level of comprehension, and also the most difficult to teach, is critical reading. So much material is published today, and for so many different purposes. Students must learn to judge and evaluate what they read rather than accepting all printed matter as accurate and important. Relevancy of the information must be determined according to the reader's purpose. Authenticity of the information may be judged by examining the author's qualifications and biases, and his sources of information. Propaganda techniques must be recognized and taken into account. The reader needs to be aware of his own opinions and biases, and recognize their influence on his comprehension. Direction and practice may be required to develop proficiency in critical reading and thinking.

Conclusions

No one student will lack ability in all these above-mentioned skills. Diagnostic teaching is the key to helping each student find success in his reading. The teacher's role is to determine which skills each student has and which he lacks proficiency in applying. Then instruction and practice must be provided for remediating those weaknesses noted.

Most of the skills discussed in this paper are probably introduced in elementary school, but it must not be assumed that introduction leads to mastery. Repeated exposures are required, with application at an ever-increasing level of difficulty. An elementary school child does not read a map or interpret a dictionary entry, for example, with the same level of sophistication that a high school student does. But if each teacher identifies the student's level of ability in a particular skill and then attempts to build on the knowledge the student already has and develop a higher proficiency in the skill, the student will be on the road toward mastery.

Reading is a tool. Being able to read is not an end in itself, but only a means to learning. It is the process by which social studies students will obtain much of the content which they are expected to learn. The social studies content may be uppermost in the teacher's mind as he meets his students each day, but unless he helps them obtain proficiency in these various reading skills, they may fall short of the mark he has set for them.

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The Informal Reading Inventory: Diagnostic Tool

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Teachers and clinicians are familiar with the use of Informal Reading Inventories to identify pupils' functional reading levels. Beyond those levels, pupil performance on a complete IRI, including oral and silent word recognition, comprehension, and rate provides evidence about the nature of reading difficulties not available from many diagnostic instruments. Employment of the IRI represents the first step in a total diagnosis, assisting the clinician in selection of the balance of instruments to complete the evaluation. Evidence from a complete IRI also aids the teacher's identification of each pupil's case type of reading disability, providing information used later to develop an instructional program.

The Instrument

The Informal Reading Inventory is a non-standardized instrument in which children read orally and silently from carefully selected basal reader passages or other graded materials. The percent of pronunciation and comprehension success, and a record of reading rate indicates the degree of ease or difficulty children meet as they read in progressively more advanced reading passages.

The IRI has been presumed to hold excellent validity since it has the advantage of assessing actual reading performance, in contrast to inferred reading ability derived from standardized tests whose norms represent reading ability. The instrument is widely used to identify independent, instructional, and frustration reading levels. Criteria for establishing those levels have been reported extensively in the literature. An additional use may be made of IRI data: to assess from among eight proposed models of reading disability which case type best fits any child.

Case Types of Reading Disability

Eight case types of reading difficulty are described, with each proposed to serve as a model for looking at reading behavior, as a structure for diagnostic processes, and as the basis for plotting a corrective program. As a model, though, the case type must be assumed inexact; it is a guided structure for looking at behavior, rather than a clear-cut, errorless process. There is not a distinct separation between one case type and another; instead, pupils often manifest difficulties described in two or more types. Pupils who do fit clearly into any one case type pattern usually would have mastered skills at lower case type levels, and would have deficiencies in the succeeding, more advanced case types. The writer is indebted to Cooper's introduction of case types of reading disabilities.

The Remedial Non-Reader. Remedial non-readers are virtually unable to read; those pupils are referred to as dyslexics or learning disabilities cases in the literature. Inability to learn to read through a usual visual-auditory or whole-word method may be caused by brain damage, minimal brain dysfunction, or other, non-neurologically-based causes. Of the eight case types of reading disabilities described, only the remedial non-reader is assumed to have a learning disability-based reading problem; other case types are assumed to have received inappropriate previous instruction. Average or higher-than-average intelligence is often found in remedial non-readers.

Inability to learn words as presented, or inability to retain words after instruction has been completed, is common. Directional orientation, including reversals of letters and words, likewise, interferes with learning to read. Those pupils deficient in visual and auditory discrimination skills often are unable to use phonics as an aid to beginning reading, compounding the difficulty of learning. The key factor is that remedial non-readers may be expected to learn to read only through systems more complex than usual instructional programs.

Instructional reading levels for remedial non-readers are nonexistent on an IRI, resulting in reading levels less than pre-primer. To ascertain whether pupils truly are remedial non-readers, tests administered in learning disabilities programs, such as learning rate, visual memory, and perceptual development tests, are employed.

The Corrective Non-Reader. The corrective non-reader, also, is a total or near non-reader. The distinction made between the two types is that the corrective case is capable of learning through conventional processes, but has failed to develop an initial reading vocabulary, whereas the remedial non-reader is unable to learn to read through classroom instructional procedures. The corrective case may have been caused by emotional, readiness, or instructional deficiencies. Once an accurate diagnosis is made and

an appropriate instructional program undertaken, the corrective non-reader may be expected to gain reading ability rapidly through a visual-auditory program initiated at his precise instructional reading level.

Evidence from an IRI assists little in identification of the corrective non-reader; however, the instrument points the way toward appropriate, specific diagnostic tests. Performance on an IRI is limited between pre-reading and the primer level. Oral reading is characterized by insecurity, guessing and miscalled words, and word-by-word interpretation. Subsequent tests to identify possible learning disabilities are administered to establish whether pupils are truly corrective or are remedial non-readers.

The Pupil Deficient in Service Words. Poor mastery of service words creates an insecurity in word identification and an inability to read smoothly which hamper comprehension success. Often, the most frequently recurring core of phonetically irregular service words simply has not been mastered. Absence of mastery creates confusion as children meet new, similarly appearing words. Instruction devoid of appropriate methods, skills introduced at too rapid a rate, and insufficient reinforcement may cause the deficiency. Although phonetic analysis skills may have been learned, the core of phonetically irregular words creates confusion and interferes with accurate reading.

The IRI identifies pupils with service word deficiencies at instructional reading levels between pre-primer and upper elementary levels. Oral reading is characterized by miscalled or corrected words, heavily employed context clues, frequent hesitations and repetitions, and inappropriately applied phonic skills. Analysis of oral reading errors, then, serves as the basis for identification of pupils with service word deficiencies. Data from the IRI point toward diagnostic tests to be employed in confirming the case type.

The Pupil Deficient in Phonetic Analysis. Phonetic difficulty is manifested by inability to apply phonic skills to words which are phonetically regular, guessing to identify words, or applying inappropriate skills. Phonetic skills which assist in the accurate identification of unfamiliar words simply have not been mastered. Words are attempted by pupils' relying on existing sight word mastery, aid of teachers, guessing, and halting, word-by-word, insecure reading. Silent reading may be characterized by slow rate, lip movements, and inner-vocalization.

Word pronunciation assessment on an IRI assists in the identification of children whose difficulty is phonetic analysis. The instructional level ordinarily lies between primer and middle elementary reader levels. Oral reading errors are common, increasing markedly as the frustration level is approached. The identifying evidence on an IRI is inability to deal with one-syllable, phonetically regular words, regardless of reading level.

The Pupil Deficient in Structural Analysis. Children who have difficulty with structural analysis skills ordinarily are unable to identify correctly strange words of two or more syllables. Unfamiliar words are identified as known sight words by applying context or by guessing. Such pupils may have failed to receive appropriate instruction or have failed to master skills as presented. Difficulty with service words and phonics may exist; however, intensive instruction in structural analysis should not have been undertaken until these more basic word analysis skills were mastered. Structural analysis ability is based upon other, prerequisite word analysis skills; syllabication involves first breaking multisyllable words into segments, then applying phonetic analysis to the segments.

Identification of pupils whose basic disability is application of structural analysis skills may be assisted through studying oral reading errors on an IRI. Pupils ordinarily attain instructional reading levels of third reader or higher, manifesting little difficulty with service words or phonetic analysis of one-syllable, phonetically regular words, but considerable difficulty with those words of more than one syllable. Should this pattern occur, the clinician would next administer a comprehensive test of structural analysis.

The Verbalizer. The verbalizer might be described as one who has difficulty with comprehension as he reads. He usually pronounces words readily, performing well in oral reading, yet he does not comprehend what he reads. The chronic verbalizer, i.e., the child who never comprehends, is easily overlooked in instructional programs emphasizing oral reading at sight. In those settings, where purposes are not set prior to silent reading and checked upon completion of reading, children fail to build habits of reading to communicate with authors. Verbalism, then, may be caused by faulty instruction.

Identification of verbalizers is made readily, based on the IRI performance. Oral reading continues to be satisfactory through advancing reading passages, but comprehension drops off sharply at some point substantially below the successful word pronunciation level. Silent reading comprehension ability may be more poorly developed than oral reading comprehension.

The Pupil Deficient in Study Skills. Pupils with study skills deficiencies, like verbalizers, may be able to pronounce words fluently, and may manifest difficulty with understanding. The verbalizer does not comprehend as he reads narrative material; the study skills deficiency case type does not retain information after he has finished reading expository material and, because he is unable to deal with study-type content, he cannot organize mentally the information he has read. Instruction in study skills, particularly the SQ3R technique, assists in ability to deal with expository

material. The cause of the study skills reading disability is absence of appropriate instruction.

Identification of pupils with study skills deficiencies is facilitated, not through administration of an IRI, but through pupils' reading expository material taken from content subject textbooks. A process much like that involved with the IRI, i.e., having pupils read silently from content-based graded passages, provides evidence to identify the deficiency. Analysis of comprehension scores at every reading level, together with an interview of pupil study processes, assists in the diagnosis. Evidence of ability to employ the SQ3R technique would be missing from the skills of most study skills deficiency students.

The Slow-Rate Reader. The slow-rate reader might better be described as the one-rate reader, essentially unable to alter rate to the nature of the task and the type of material. An inflexible rate leads to plodding, slow, laborious reading of content, and thus, inefficiency. The mature reader functions with a rate fitting his purpose for reading and is not held back by the mechanics of reading. The immature reader, in contrast, evidences lip movements or inner vocalization as he reads, essentially using the same mechanics for silent as oral reading, and so, about the same rate. The rate at which various materials are read differs in type of content and purposes for reading to the extent that it is impossible to define a single, satisfactory rate for each pupil; therefore, a standard rate is not available as a basis for measurement.

Diagnosis of the slow-rate reader meets several limitations, yet evidence is available from an IRI. Clinicians would be concerned with whether pupil rate differs at the independent, instructional, and frustration reading levels; comprehension success is retained as rate is increased; rate is appropriate to ability and grade levels; and silent is more rapid than oral reading. IRI data would be supplemented by timed reading of a variety of graded passages, with the clinician setting differing purposes for reading various passages.

Summary

The IRI is valuable as an instrument to assess pupil reading levels and to survey types of reading difficulties through oral and silent reading. Its validity is based on employment of diagnostic techniques similar to instructional processes. Evaluation of oral and silent reading at all appropriate levels leads to clinicians' gaining information beyond service word and phonetic analysis skills, those deficiencies most troublesome to classroom teachers and most consistently examined by diagnosticians. Identification of eight proposed case types of reading disability stretches the scope of behavior clinicians might consider in conducting diagnoses. Recognizing

that disabled readers may be of any case type facilitates a balanced, more exact diagnosis, recommendations for appropriate corrective programs, and benefits to children.

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The Assessment of Attitude Toward Reading

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Introduction

Once upon a time there lived a first-year teacher whose assigned task was the "education" of 45 inquisitive first graders. One of her most cherished ideals was to cultivate in these urchins a joy in reading. She had always loved to read and wished to share this enjoyment with others. Alas, by the time January drew to a close, our heroine sensed that both she and the children were less than enthusiastic about their reading group experiences. She wondered somewhat frantically what had gone awry. Did she not enjoy reading? Were not her children initially very enthusiastic about learning how to read? Was she not following many of the suggested activities in her basal manual? Where had she failed? Our young teacher in this sad tale is not an isolated case. She represents a sea of professionals who wish to guide children's development of positive attitudes toward learning.

Background

The body of literature concerning reading attitude consists largely of two types of research:

1. Does a child's attitude toward some particular object change after having read about that object? For example, will John change his attitude about the Civil War after he has read a book dealing with slavery?
2. Does a child change his attitude toward reading following exposure to a new reading method or to new reading material? Does John feel differently about the act of reading after an individualized reading program in the fourth grade?

Purpose

Whereas the above two questions do have intrinsic merit, it seems that some other types of information might be useful for our novice educator. Two of the questions are:

1. What behaviors are perceived by children, teachers, and parents as indicative of reading attitude?
2. What factors significantly influence a child's attitude toward reading?

Behavioral Manifestations of Reading Attitude

Sixty children, fifth and sixth graders, their parents, and their classroom teachers were asked to describe the reading behaviors of one person who apparently enjoyed reading as well as the behaviors of one person who did not seem to like to read. The responses to this request were categorized by the researcher as well as by two independent judges. The categories were accepted as:

Source of Response

1. Teacher
2. Parent
3. Student

Relationship to Reading

A. Reading Frequency
B. Diversity of Material
C. Verbal Statements About Reading
D. Possession of Reading Materials
E. Reading Related to Other Activities
F. Library Use
G. Intellectual Evidence of Readership

Table I
Behaviors Indicative of Reading Attitude

Source of Response	Reading Frequency	Diversity of Material	Verbal Statements	Possession of Materials	Reading Related to Other Activities	Library Use	Intellectual Evidence of Readership
Teacher	12/93	4/36	11/45	6/46	5/51	9/34	16/30
	13%	11%	24%	13%	10%	26%	53%
Parent	42/93	26/36	10/45	8/46	15/51	6/34	6/30
	45%	72%	22%	18%	30%	18%	20%
Student	39/93	6/36	24/45	32/46	31/51	19/34	8/30
	42%	17%	54%	69%	60%	56%	27%
Total Number of Responses	93	36	45	46	51	34	30
Percent Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Table I depicts the percentage of response obtained from each source of response concerning reading attitude.

Perusal of Table I indicates which of the sources of response, parents, teachers, or students, contributed most heavily to each category. A summary of this information shows:

Category	Percent of Response	Source of Response
A. Reading Frequency	45	Parents
B. Diversity of Material	72	Parents
C. Verbal Statements	54	Students
D. Possession of Materials	69	Students
E. Reading Related to Other Activities	60	Students
F. Library Use	56	Students
G. Intellectual Evidence of Readership	53	Teachers

These percentages as well as many other more complex statistical interventions led to the discovery that teachers, students, and parents do not select similar behaviors as indicative of attitude toward reading. The children associated attitude with verbal statements about the merits of reading, with the number of reading materials possessed, and the coupling of reading with other activities. The children made comments such as, "He says he likes to read," or "He has his own library at home," or "He reads while he is in the bathroom."

Parents, however, contend that the frequency of reading and the diversity in types of materials read are indicative of attitude toward reading. Parents stated, "He reads whenever he has a free moment," or "He reads newspapers, magazines, and library books."

Classroom teachers, on the other hand, associate a child's reading attitude most strongly with that child's intelligence. Teachers' comments included such statements as, "He finishes all his assignments efficiently and correctly; therefore, he enjoys reading," or "He is very bright; he likes to read," or even "He is from a poor and uneducated home and lives in a trailer; he does not like to read."

An interesting conjecture that one might deduce from these results is that when the teacher is discussing improving a child's reading attitude he might actually be considering the child's attitude in relation to reading skill development. However, the child might suggest that his reading attitude

development should not depend on more and better skill drills but rather on exposure to a wide variety of materials that would elicit from him more enthusiastic statements about reading and stimulate his desire to read. Thus, the educator seems to be concerned primarily with the cognitive aspects of reading, whereas the child thinks in terms of the affective domain of choice and desire.

The question to ponder becomes, "Why do we, as classroom teachers, feel that an intelligent child who exhibits a behavior pattern which could be labeled 'teacher pleasing' consider that child to have a positive reading attitude?" Would it not be possible for a child to be a "good student" and still not enjoy reading in his leisure time? Perhaps one reason for this association of intelligence with attitude is that prospective teachers are trained to make intelligent choices concerning the best approach for implanting the skills of reading into the cognitive structure of their students. Therefore, when the prospective teacher becomes the classroom teacher, her choices are limited to techniques for skill grouping and the mechanics of developing "competent readers" rather than producing "avid readers."

Factors Influencing Reading Attitude

Another aspect of attitude toward reading is the relationship of experiences in a child's life to his feelings about reading. In this case, the same 60 fifth and sixth grade children, their parents and teachers, were asked to state any factors which had influenced the child's reading attitude. Again two independent judges and the researcher categorized the responses and established the following schema:

Source of Response	Type of Influence
1. Student	A. Reading Ability
2. Parent	B. Teacher Influence
3. Teacher	C. Teacher Expectation
	D. Parental Example
	E. Availability of Materials
	F. Quality of Materials
	G. Library Use
	H. Personal Feeling and Interest

Table II suggests some very interesting possibilities. Children attribute their own reading attitude primarily to their reading ability. They make such statements as, "Reading has always been hard for me." Children also contend that the example set for them by their parents as well as their own ability to pursue personal interests through reading has affected their reading attitude. Isn't it unusual that when children are viewing the be-

Table II
Factors Influencing Reading Attitude

Factor Category	Source of Response	Raw Score	Percent of Total Responses
A. Reading Ability	1. Student	24	7.3
	2. Parent	19	5.8
	3. Teacher	22	6.8
B. Teacher Influence	1. Student	14	4.2
	2. Parent	12	3.7
	3. Teacher	0	.0
C. Teacher Expectation	1. Student	3	.9
	2. Parent	0	.0
	3. Teacher	2	.6
D. Parental Example	1. Student	18	5.5
	2. Parent	29	8.9
	3. Teacher	19	5.8
E. Availability of Materials	1. Student	7	2.1
	2. Parent	19	5.8
	3. Teacher	10	3.0
F. Quality of Materials	1. Student	14	4.2
	2. Parent	9	2.7
	3. Teacher	1	.2
G. Library Use	1. Student	9	2.7
	2. Parent	7	2.1
	3. Teacher	1	.2
H. Personal Feeling and Interest	1. Student	23	7.7
	2. Parent	35	10.7
	3. Teacher	28	8.6

Table II describes the number of responses for each factor category as well as the percent of response from parent, student, and teacher.

haviors of others and assessing reading attitude intelligence is unimportant? Yet when a child discusses his own feelings about reading he speaks about the degree of difficulty learning to read has held for him. Could it be that the primary feedback children receive concerning their reading endeavors is either a report card grade or a checkmark in a workbook? If this is the case, it might then seem logical for the child to evaluate his feelings about reading in terms of the signs of success or failure which he has received in school.

It did not seem to occur to either the children, parents, or teachers in this study to enumerate factors such as poor teaching methods or inappropriate materials when discussing reading attitude development. No one

said, "I don't like to read because school readers are boring." This could be due to the fact that these particular children had been exposed only to excellent teaching and stimulating materials. On the other hand, perhaps there is a basic assumption here that any failure to develop positive attitudes toward school learning rests squarely on the shoulders of the child. In other words, no matter what the caliber of instruction or materials, positive attitude development is the responsibility of the child.

Another insight which seems to be reflected in Table II is that the influence of parents is perceived by teachers, children, and parents as greatly affecting a child's reading attitude. However, in contrast to the perceived strong effect of parental influence, teacher influence is considered by parents, teachers, and children as an inconsequential factor contributing to reading attitude development. Could it be that school is thought of by parents, teachers, and children as a place in which to "learn reading" and to "read learning" whereas, extracurricular forces, such as home environment, are perceived as providing the impetus to learn to "want to read."

Conclusions

Let us now return for a moment to our young classroom teacher. How could she assess and improve her students' attitudes toward reading?

A. She must decide for herself if she believes classroom performance is equivalent to reading attitude. Does she assume that an "A" student has a positive reading attitude? Is this a valid assumption, or is attitude more than performance? Is attitude influenced by the student's readiness to perform? If this is the case, does the classroom program match the student's readiness?

B. How interested is the child in the materials that comprise the classroom reading program? Is this not reflective of the child's readiness?

C. What provisions have been made for the child to pursue his own personal interests within the classroom reading program? Is this facet an integral part of the program or is it an activity allowed only during the child's "free time?"

D. Do parents understand the classroom reading program? What attempts have been made to elicit parental cooperation in targeting in on children's reading interests? Have parents been approached about the possibility of supplementing school reading experiences with similar, extended home reading experiences?

E. Are children aware of the variety of sources of information available concerning any one topic? Are newspapers, magazines, paperback

books, and audio-tapes an integral part of the school reading program?

F. What time has been set aside for the children to learn to use the library as a tool for extending their own personal reading interests?

G. Is the child afforded the opportunity of honestly evaluating and restructuring his classroom reading experiences to meet his own interests and needs?

H. Does the child understand that his attitude toward reading is not necessarily a result of some personal intellectual inadequacy?

I. Does the child realize that it is his prerogative to develop his own expectations about a suitable reading program for him?

J. Does the teacher know that the child might well be seeking guidance in terms of developing a meaningful link between the school reading experience and reading in the real world? Does she seek to structure a reading environment which approximates reality, i.e.:
   —avoidance of "Bluebird" grouping techniques
   —content which is meaningful to the child
   —reading material which is appropriate for the child's reading ability
   —a comfortable place to read
   —a group or another single person that the child really enjoys sharing his reading with when *he* wishes to share

Hopefully, if we as educators begin to deal with some of these concepts, we will not only improve our students' attitudes toward reading but also our own attitudes toward the teaching of reading.

Caught, Not Taught

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Have you had mumps? A high percentage of the population has had them in some form during childhood; or, at least, they thought they had them. Many mothers, grandmothers, and elderly aunts have diagnosed a swollen lymph node as "mumps" and thereby started the old wives' tales about having mumps on one side, then the other, or having them several times. Doctors state that if a person really has mumps he has them all the way and that there is a 95 percent chance that he'll never have them again.

Wouldn't it be wonderful if 95 percent of the children in today's classrooms who are exposed to the infectious germs of literature could be so thoroughly exposed to the joy of reading that they would be immune to the frustrations of mis-diagnosis in so many of our reading programs? Unfortunately the percentages are not that high. Most of today's schools fail to offer the kind of exposure that brings on a real case of "reading." We may call it that, just as the grandmother insists that little Johnny has mumps when all he has is a sore throat and a swollen gland. In the classroom just because Johnny displays the symptoms of reading, it does not mean he is a reader. Educators have become so concerned with the skill of reading—with the mechanical manipulation of symbols, both written and verbal—that they have sorely neglected the real purpose for teaching those skills. As teachers, we have become so obsessed with the disease that we have forgotten the patient.

The real concern should be motivating students to want to read, to enjoy reading, not just guiding them to the prescribed level of competency for their grade. Symptoms have become the major concern in the reading class, and a majority of the time is devoted to simply treating these. Many classrooms assign 60 to 180 minutes a day to teaching reading skills and only 30 minutes a week to enjoying literature. It's true that this pattern is

changing in many schools and that a large number of children gain a good exposure to reading in spite of this program. Possibly other contagious factors are involved, but this important part of the curriculum should not be left to chance.

Skills vs. Exposure

Consider the student who seems to have some difficulty. It may be a skill problem, or it may be that he can read but just doesn't. We look at him, we see a disability, and just as grandmother makes a diagnosis and starts applying the home remedies, we start or maintain our own "remedial treatment."

Grandmother says, "Keep him warm; don't let him get a chill." We smother him in worksheets, drills, and dull book reports.

Grandmother says, "Don't let him move around. Complications will develop." We keep him locked in his basal reader, moving slowly from dull story to dull story and from page to page in the workbook.

Grandmother says, "Feed him only liquids and a soft diet." We give him watered-down stories with middle class characters and unreal happy endings.

Grandmother says, "Don't let him do anything strenuous." We keep him away from challenging literature, real characters, and stories similar to the events he watches each night on television.

Grandmother says, "Now, he's got to stay in at least 10 days or he might have a relapse." We make sure that he stays with his reading group, that he reads all the stories and does all the workbook pages. To skip one exercise might jeopardize his whole reading career. We make sure that he hands in ten uniform, uncreative, written book reports.

And so the "treatment" for little Johnny continues in classroom after classroom. The swelling goes down and Johnny seems well. Grandmother says, "I told you so," and the teacher says, "I did the best I could in one year; now it's up to next year's teacher." So Johnny grows up and unsuspectingly gets mumps at the age of 30. He also leads a dull, unfruitful life because the printed page was just something he had to study during a period called "Reading Time."

The indictment may seem harsh, but many reading problems in our schools come not from a lack of teaching necessary decoding skills, but from an overemphasis of skill development and a lack of time for "just reading." It's true that children do need some guidance in arriving at some basic understandings about the reading process; but how much do they need, and when do they need it?

Kenneth Goodman points out in his recent article in "The Reading Teacher" that reading is a language process very similar to listening. (*1*)

He states that, ". . . it appears clearly that our failures in reading instruction result as much from what we have been doing as from what we haven't. We have been teaching reading as a set of skills to be learned rather than as a language process to be mastered. . . . What has saved us from even greater failure, considering how unsound our instructional programs have been, has been the remarkable language learning ability of the children we teach. They have been able to surmount obstacles we have placed in their way. They have been able to unlearn unsound strategies and to ignore or delimit questionable generalizations. No method of instruction, no matter how absurd, has ever succeeded in preventing even half the learners from learning. As long as they get some exposure to written language, most learners will acquire at least a modicum of literacy." (*1*, p. 506)

It is disconcerting to think that many of our reading practices are obstacles, that children learn to read in spite of us. Dr. Goodman says they learn due to exposure to the written language. There is that word "exposure" again. It should become the key word in the teaching of reading, especially when educators are so uncertain of what, how much, and when to teach the complex relationships between oral and written language. It is the nature of this exposure that is so vital. The child at the age of six is highly interested in books, but by the age of twelve many have to be bribed or threatened into reading. What has happened during this six-year period? What can teachers do to alleviate this situation and provide the necessary exposure?

Role of Children's Literature

It is at this point that the role of children's literature in our curriculum must be considered. Studies have established that in programs where literature plays a vital role in the curriculum, significant growth has been made in reading ability. Dewey Chambers surveyed current research in this area and reported in his book, *Children's Literature in the Curriculum* (*2*), ". . . professional literature reports on studies that have proven the value of children's literature in the reading program. These studies, done at some of our finest universities under the guidance of the best reading authorities in the nation, have given us real evidence that children's literature does play an important role in the development of skills and attitudes of reading. These studies have investigated reading and language development from preschool level and Head Start projects to primary grade levels, intermediate grade levels, and upward. They have shown that the role of children's literature is a significant factor in a good reading program. The studies have also shown us time and again that the basal program, or the pure developmental reading program, is a limiting factor in helping chil-

dren to learn to read. . . . They clearly show that skill development and test scores are higher when the developmental reading program provides children with the opportunity to read for recreation and information through trade books." (2, p. 11)

The increasing trend toward individualized reading programs in our schools is an outgrowth of this type of research. Individualized reading has many merits and should be used where staff, student load, and facilities make it feasible. However, many of the elements of the individualized approach can be combined with any basal program and utilized as the foundation of a good literature program. The important thing is for the teacher to decide that a literature period is an essential part of the day's curriculum and give it the time and stature it deserves.

When the time devoted to literature is a 30 to 45 minute period on Friday afternoon for "Book Reports" and the time left over after all other work is completed each day, its position in the overall curriculum does not seem very high. When the teacher says, "If you have finished all your other work, then you can read," she is saying that textbooks, workbooks, worksheets, art projects, number facts, and spelling words are all more important than the fascinating world of literature. This concept must be changed, and literature must be placed at the heart of the curriculum.

Role of the Teacher

If children are going to discover and appreciate the delightful treasure trove that awaits them on the printed page, we must not only teach them to read, we must not only let them read, we must foster genuine reading habits based upon present purpose and enjoyment. The most contagious element in developing a lasting interest in literature and in the whole reading process is the attitude of the teacher toward these areas of the curriculum. The teacher makes or breaks the reading system and contributes the greatest influence upon future reading habits.

It's true that a home in which reading plays a dominant role gives the teacher immense support, but the core of reading development is centered in the school. A dedicated teacher can stimulate reading without home support and an unmotivated teacher can negate the influence of a reading home. The contagious spirit of a teacher can infect the lives of her pupils with permanent reading practices.

Some Suggestions

The elementary teacher conveys much to the children in her room about her attitude toward reading just by the room arrangement. The library corner should be an attractive area that reflects the wonder and excitement of reading. Bulletin boards on reading should be challenging and prominent.

Interest centers in other subject areas should always include related informational books. Books regarding seasons and holidays should be incorporated as a part of a seasonal emphasis. The general environment should be one where the trade book is more focal than the textbook.

The daily schedule should include not only time for reading skills and time for reading aloud to the class, but time for just reading. It must be a specific time set aside just like time for math, art, spelling, or any other subject. And it must be for everyone, including the teacher. A teacher can communicate more about the joy of reading by actually reading in the presence of the class than by any lengthy exhortation on its merits. The teacher who says, "Now everyone take out your books and discover how much fun it is to read," and then sits at her desk and proceeds to grade papers is not contributing to a very thorough exposure to the world of literature. The teacher should also share her reading experiences. She should tell them about the current book she is reading, or about something she read in a magazine or journal. The children should know that the teacher reads something other than textbooks and worksheets and that she enjoys it.

Another thing the teacher should do is develop a positive approach toward book reports. More interest in reading has been killed by the uniform, written book report than any other single practice in common usage. Many suggestions for creative book reports and proper use of sharing time can be found in all the latest books on children's literature. Teachers should introduce as much variety into this process as possible. The reason for reporting is not to check up on the child, but to help him in developing an appreciation for what he has read and to let others share in his reaction. The teacher's approach to this sharing experience will determine whether the child will eagerly select another book and continue down the path to good reading.

The teacher's attitude toward what is read by the student is also a factor in reading growth. The teacher cannot be so permissive as to accept anything that the child wants to read, but it is better to accept material of questionable quality than it is to establish such rigid standards that the child does not feel a personal involvement in the selection. Modified acceptance followed by constructive guidance should be the pattern whether the child is reading overly simple material, comic books, or adult fiction. Peer group evaluation can also be utilized to guide children in proper reading selection. Variety in choice and discrimination in taste can be developed through this same process. Rigid requirements do not contribute to future reading habits.

Much more could be said about the multitude of motivational experiences which the teacher can create in the classroom to stimulate reading.

The list is limited only by the imagination of the teacher. However, many teachers may say they don't have time or that the time spent doesn't seem worth the effort. The value in the time spent on such activities is equated to the attitude of the teacher toward developing lasting reading habits on the part of her students. If the teacher loves reading, not for the sake of reading, but for the value it has for the learner, then the time will be found to properly expose her students so that they can be successful readers in the future.

Reading in such an atmosphere will be something that is not taught, but that is caught through the infectious atmosphere of the classroom and the contagious spirit of the teacher.

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Reading and Concern for Human Values

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Introduction

The art of teaching involves working with humans. Implicit in this should be the concept of the whole of the human being: concern for all aspects of living, an integration of the physical, the ethical, the spiritual dimensions of the student in aiding him on the road to maturity and purposeful living.

The thrust of this presentation is not in the direction of being overly prescriptive but in the direction of establishing some guidelines which may be helpful in the art of teaching reading, especially as it relates to the place of values in the teaching of reading.

Importance of Reading

It is generally conceded that much school time is devoted to the matter of reading whether this involves readiness for reading, beginning reading, developmental reading, critical reading, reading for appreciation, reading in subject matter areas, or other reading activities. Quite recently the President of the United States re-emphasized the importance of teaching reading or, more specifically, "the right of every child to read." Implied in this should not only be teaching all to learn the act of reading but teaching how to read meaningfully, with purpose, so that reading becomes a part of a student and eventually a way of life. And a way of life involves making choices, and making choices involves value judgments.

Definition of "Value"

At this point it might be well to reflect on what is meant by the term "value." Granted it is difficult to define the word without associating it with a kind of value. A general definition, however, might include the following, "the desirability or worth of a thing compared to something else.

or that which is worthy of esteem for its own sake, that which has intrinsic value." Another definition might involve the following, "those things judged admirable, honorable, and approvable so that men desire to create and preserve them through coming generations." It is generally recognized that there is no consensus for a definition, but there is some agreement that values represent something important in human existence.

Need for Values

From research done in the area of values, it appears that one of the real concerns for the seventies is that of values or ethical judgments and the role of the teacher, most specifically, the teacher of reading. There is much evidence of the concern for values. In the opinion of many, the subject of values has become something that teachers must address themselves to. James Reston of the *New York Times* has said, "There is something in the air of the modern world: a defiance of authority, a contagious irresponsibility, a kind of moral delinquency no longer restrained by religious or ethical faith." We live in days of moral confusion and goal blurring. Housing for many has never been better, but for many home has never meant less; there is unprecedented control over our material environment but also unprecedented anxiety about the possibility of rationally governed human behavior.

Traditional values and institutions are under severe strain. The young are faced with conflicts relative to family life, religious institutions, and society in general. These conflicts and problems are often exhibited in school in behavioral patterns. Some children are apathetic, some flighty, others uncertain; many are drifters, inconsistent, overdissenters, but the common malady of many of these children is confusion in values. The breakdown of the family, the high mobility rate within our nation, the influence of the communications media, court decisions, world events, the waning impact of the church, the inconsistencies in the lives of adults have all added to the state of confusion for the child. The so called "new freedom" also imposes upon the child and the youth added responsibilities for which they may not be physically, psychologically, and emotionally prepared.

The Teacher's Role

As a result of this confusion, it has been difficult for the teacher or the school to stand for a single set of values, and, in order to avoid controversy, teachers turned to the teaching of facts or concepts that were not appropriate for the child. In too many cases moral, ethical, and aesthetic values were quietly abandoned as integral parts of the curriculum. But the

challenge to the teacher today should be that of assisting every child in the life-long process of development of values.

Much controversy prevails relative to the matter of value teaching. Can values be taught? What values should be taught? Does value teaching lead to indoctrination? It should be clear that teachers should not force their own pet values upon the child, even though the teacher is a purveyor of values, but it is incumbent upon the teacher to create conditions that aid children in finding values. In fact, even though objectivity is desirable at times, the teacher should be vitally concerned about the teaching of proper concepts, of wholesome attitudes, and constructive values. Furthermore, it may be necessary to disregard, to some extent, the pressure of scientific realism with emphasis on impartiality and pay more attention to the nature of the student which makes it psychologically necessary and philosophically desirable for him to believe. It may be the responsibility of the teacher to provide leadership in the fixing of belief and to demonstrate the virtue of belief. Endless open-mindedness, far from being a virtue, can lead to a state of apathy. Teachers who believe also know, understand, and care about children. They must have a conviction of what makes up the good man and what constitutes a good society, and project a clear affirmation of eternal verities.

Traditional Values

The more traditional values advocated for helping children included such approaches as setting a good example or pointing to a good model, establishing many rules and regulations, articulating emotional pleas for certain values, using strong persuasion, strictly limiting choices, presenting of cultured or religious dogma as unquestioned principle, or even appealing to the conscience. It might be emphasized that these methods are not without useful effect, but it must be admitted that they have not worked as well as we might have hoped. Some may have overemphasized the facet of imposition with little attention given to thoughtfulness and reason. More attention was given to trying to persuade the student to adopt certain values than to the valuing process.

Process of Valuing

In a wholesome learning situation the child and the teacher become involved in a variety of experiences. As a result of these activities come certain general guides to behavior, and hopefully these guides give direction to life and could be referred to as values. It should also be noted that different experiences give rise to different values thus necessitating some modification as experiences change. These values become a part of living,

and living can be complex, making value judgments complicated. It should be apparent that values emerge from a process of valuing.

Literature and Values

Concern for values and value judgments can probably be dealt with most adequately in the area of reading and literature. Literature especially can be used as a vehicle which may help the child see beyond his immediate environment and come to grips with the social and moral dilemmas of his day. Often the child encounters, in his reading, vivid and immediate experience; he observes heroes and villains, men of strong character and weak, men of good reputation and not so good. The child and the adolescent of today need to refer to something outside of themselves in order to arrive at constructive decisions. Literature may offer a chance for refinement of human nature by imparting ideals and giving a vision of human excellence worth striving for. Values in literary selections are often the same as those in life itself. Literature is a dynamic force which may impart a sense of reality to the reader's universe. Scholars have suggested that reading and literature can be used as a major instrument for bringing order, stability, and structure to the life style of the youthful reader. It is impossible to measure the importance of literature in the child's moral life.

Illustrative Literature

To illustrate, it might be well to suggest that the poems of Christina Rossetti or Marianne Moore are of durable value because they are derived from the writers' moral strength and artistry. The virtuosity of their poetic styles, with involved titles, odd line forms, muted rhyme scheme, and varied structure not only add to intriguing subject matter, but also to an affirmation of eternal truths. Fresh insights by means of diversified presentations attract the attention of the student.

For many years the literature of the Bible contributed significantly to human need. And today what source has a wider variety of poetic expression through the use of allegory, the simile, the metaphor? The Bible is probably unsurpassed for its drama of human life: it is filled with enduring wisdom; it abounds in vitality of life and thought. Many genres in literature are represented—narrative, history, biography, essay, oratory, and many kinds of poetry.

Further support of the value approach to teaching children's literature is given by Weigert in an article suggesting that, at the kindergarten level, children become involved in many activities such as flannel board displays of pictures and poems, songs to complement stories and poems which feature appreciation for nature, love for small creatures, and gratitude for blessings received. Stories such as "A Sorely Trying Day" and

"The Two Cars" can be dramatized by use of puppets, for instance, to emphasize courtesy at the second grade level. At the fifth grade level the teacher can devise a plan to develop increased pride in our American heritage through use of biography, fiction, and poetry. To help children explore ideas of compassion, courage, and the negative effects of violence and greed Shakespeare's *Macbeth* could be used at the junior high level.

Value Theory

In a recently published book entitled *Values and Teaching*, the authors Raths, Harmin, and Simon, as a result of much research, set forth a theory of values. In their emphasis on the process of valuing, they posit seven criteria which may be very appropriate to use in the teaching of literature:

1. Choosing freely
2. Choosing from among alternatives
3. Choosing after thoughtful consideration of the consequences
4. Prizing and cherishing
5. Affirming
6. Acting upon choices
7. Repeating

These authors suggest that this involves basically three processes: choosing, prizing, and acting, but they further elaborate and indicate that not everything is a value or need be, but that values grow out of purposes, aspirations, and beliefs which may suggest the presence of a value. These expressions which approach values are called value indicators such as: a) goals and purposes, b) aspirations, c) attitudes, d) interests, e) feelings, f) beliefs and convictions, g) activities, h) worries, problems, and obstacles. These categories are often revealed in the language arts part of the curriculum, and it is imperative for the teacher to help those children to raise these value indicators to the level of values, that is, to the level at which the valuing processes operate.

Much more should be said about the process of valuing, but the key to the whole process is the teacher.

The Role of the Teacher

Proper objectives, adequate media, and appropriate methods are essential for success in teaching relative to the valuing process, and it is the teacher who is the most essential ingredient in the learning situation. She must be knowledgeable and well-read, but, in a sense, must also be a model. It would be difficult to suggest what the characterization of an effective model would be in the teaching of the language arts, but the life style—the feelings, the beliefs, the interests, and the activities of the teacher can

make all the difference in the world. A conscientious teacher pauses and reflects on how she conducts herself and on whether instruction reflects the kind of balance necessary to allow for growth and valuing. There must be a reciprocal search of one mind for another.

Leadership and Commitment

Leadership and commitment are a part of the reading teacher's profession. Implicit in this is the idea that the teacher has attained a more advanced state of maturity and recognizes the importance of assisting children in building wholesome self-concepts based on sound moral truths. She must be influential in building values that are the product of increased sensitivity to human feelings, not to brutality; to advertising that informs, not misinforms; and to information and entertainment that cultivate imagination, idealism, human warmth, and interest rather than centering on materialism and the happiness cult. A Catholic educator recently pleaded for a return to a real concern for values in the schools today in order to combat the cultural forces which brutalize our children by building up in them an image of themselves as mere animals, divine neither in origin nor destiny, bound by no morality not imposed by force, knowing no value, spiritual or otherwise, higher than the selfish and conspicuous consumption of leisure, material goods, and sex.

Concern for values on the part of the teacher of reading and literature is a concern for speaking and demonstrating the truth in love.

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A Reading Program to Fit the Child

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With the seventies having been declared the decade of the "right to read," the eyes of the nation are upon teachers of reading, reading methods, and reading results. In viewing the latter, particular scrutiny is upon reading failure and why so many students fail to learn to read. Much study and a great deal of research has centered upon students' failure to learn to read —and well it might be, with from 20 to 30 percent of the children in the schools having major difficulties in reading. Educators give lip service to many slogans. One of these is: Every teacher is a teacher of reading. Another is: Teach the whole child. A recent book (2) by Lessinger opens with the following paragraphs:

"If one airplane in every four crashed between takeoff and landing, people would refuse to fly! If one automobile in every four went out of control and caused a fatal accident or permanent injury, Detroit would be closed down tomorrow.

"Our schools—which produce a more important product than airplanes or automobiles—somehow fail one youngster in four. And so far we have not succeeded in preventing the social and economic fatalities every school dropout represents.

"For each child thus failed by his school, all of us pay a price in taxes and in social unrest, and the child himself is deprived of his chance to develop his potential."

With an average of 20 to 30 percent of the nation's students unable to read adequately to meet life's requirements, it is well to take a closer look at what is happening in our schools. And in taking this closer look, perhaps this time the scrutiny might not center on the *child's failure*, but rather on

what the *teacher does*. A very brief review of current practices in teaching of reading will be helpful in understanding the reading program suggested within this discourse.

For almost half a century reading materials and methods of teaching reading have had two components which have monopolized reading instruction: 1) the basal reader, which is used in 95 percent of this nation's schools and 2) three reading groups which undoubtedly also are found in as great a percentage of classrooms as are the basal readers.

Having identified the two common elements which have persisted through the years, it seems necessary to list briefly teaching practices which have accompanied this basal reader-three group approach. Some of these practices may have resulted from administrative decisions. Others, it would appear, have been retained, like an old pair of shoes, not in the best shape but so comfortable! The following are practices which have appeared widely and persistently:

1. Children are gauged for entering school (and thus for readiness), by their chronological age. Thus, mature and immature, small and large, boys and girls, coordinated and uncoordinated, attentive and inattentive, one and all are lined up at the starting gate, ready or not, to begin the "reading race."

2. Very largely, the kindergarten curriculum is organized around group activities: show and tell, story time, play time, milk time, nap time, etc. So it can be seen generally, that at the start there is little or no provision for individual differences. On a recent visit to an innovative school where individualized instruction was being used, the eighty kindergarten children were all "napping." Enough said?

3. When reading instruction begins—in grade one—the children are placed into three reading groups. As if by magic, in classrooms all over this nation, these unique and differing individuals fit into three—no more and no less—reading groups based on their "ability." So there appears nationwide a "three-course meal," or rather a *three meal course*, served up by teachers in general. Interestingly, one definition of "meal" happens to have been: "amount done or used at one time." How aptly that obsolete definition fits the reading scene!

4. Things continue in a similar vein until grade three when something different happens. Those children who, by grade three, are judged, by *some measure*, to be two years below grade level in reading performance are given help in the form of remedial reading. Thus a child must prove he merits help by failing for at least two years in order that he be the required two years below grade level. So it is those students who "function defectively" in the classroom who are sent out for help which too often means more of the same "dish" with which they failed in the classroom. This

remedial help many times is determined by the classroom teacher by the simple expedient of sending along the basal reader and basal reader workbook in which the student failed to succeed in the classroom! So, this student is, in reality, being given two opportunities to fail. Almost total focus of attention is on this child, what is wrong with him, and what *caused him to fail.* No discussion centers on the fact that help given these children at third-grade level can only profit approximately 40 percent of those given the extra help. This help given at an earlier time, kindergarten or grade one, can profit 80 to 85 percent of those children so helped.

5. Another factor in schools throughout the nation is that little or no direct teaching of skills for reading takes place above grade three. The assumption seems to be that grades one through three have the total responsibility for the teaching of reading.

6. The final factor which will be discussed is this one: The education of teachers, to this point in time, has been sadly deficient. It has been said that the best non-teaching goes on at the college level. Since most undergraduate programs require only the one reading course—the teaching of reading in the elementary school—it is indicated that this is probably a rather true estimate of the emphasis given to teaching of reading at the college level. Since many of the teachers of reading at the college level have not themselves taught reading nor have training to do so, small wonder failure results.

With all the discussion and adverse publicity which the teaching of reading has received, it is imperative that a solution, a change, a renewed effort must become a reality—not just theory and talk. There is the story of the professor, noted for his long, rather dull lectures, who came to class one day and, after only twenty minutes, ceased his lecturing and commented: "That is all of the notes I have for this lecture. My dog got hold of the notes and ate the rest." Thereupon a student came to him and commented: "When your dog has pups I'd like one. I want to give it to my science professor!" Talk is not the solution. Action is needed now.

How do we begin to effect changes and make success in reading a reality for children? How do we as teachers of reading count for something in the lives of the children we teach? A very good place to start is to stop pointing the finger of failure at the child and to focus attention on *what the teacher does.* Teacher-pupil interaction has been identified, in many studies, as the central and primary factor with which to attempt to effect change. A sign near a school read thus: "School, Don't Kill a Child." Below the sign was a childish scrawl: "Wait for a teacher." What the teacher does educationally will save or kill that child, so to speak.

A reading program to fit the child is what is needed. How to accomplish this is the question. This "how to" is the subject with which to concern

ourselves. In considering what happened in an innovative program, and what would be a sound and viable program of reading, there come to my mind three rather general "*must do's*":

1. It appears imperative that the reading instruction be organized as largely as is possible into an individualized program. It makes sense to fit the reading instruction to the child's specific needs and his unique interests. If the child is to have success and motivation, these last two must be considered.

2. In accomplishing number 1, grade walls and restrictions put upon teachers willing and able to teach well must be relaxed, or perhaps eliminated altogether.

3. In-service training must be made available for all teachers. This training may need to be a requirement since those things left optional are too often neglected or forgotten.

With those three changes in school management, a change in reading instruction can be effected. What to do is the question. In studying the total reading-learning process, and in considering the needs and interests of children, it seems that a dual-track reading system must be considered. One instructional component must, of necessity, be the continuum of skills with which a child becomes a competent and facile reader. The other instructional component through which motivation and interest can be sustained is that of using some form of self-selected and/or high interest level materials. Let's examine each of these two components carefully, and determine what is involved in the total effort.

Reading has been described as a complex process which does not just happen. It is an involved learning task which requires knowledge and skill on the part of the instructor. There is a continuum of skills which must be taught. Whether this continuum must be sequential or not can be argued. Certainly agreement can be reached on a central and specific core of skills and behaviors necessary for competent reading. With the present trend toward behavioral objectives, this skill component becomes more visible, for it is behaviors that are the concern.

What, you ask, are behavioral objectives and who determines these? There is the option now to do one of two things: 1) Write your own objectives to fit your materials, your student population, and your instructional staff; this was done in one project school in which I worked. Or 2) Adopt a list of objectives already available. There are several sources for these. One such source is the Wisconsin Reading Design (3) which has come out of work at the Research and Development Center at Madison, Wisconsin. This material consists of a compendium of skill objectives which have been indexed for materials presently being used in the schools and can also be used with any materials available in a school. Another

source of these skill objectives is a publishing company which has such a list available. One reading publisher (*1*) has written objectives to accompany the newest edition of its reading series. There are also instructional objective exchanges which have these lists available.

A behavioral objective determines what it is you will teach. A continuum of these objectives may or may not have grade level designations. Some persons have chosen to call theirs "levels" with the child progressing from one level to the next. A level may have any number of objectives. An example of one of these objectives may read thus: The learner will, from a list of ten words dictated by the teacher, write and spell correctly eight of the ten words. These behavioral skills range from the early word attack skills (phonics) to the more complex tasks of higher cognitive abilities in the upper grades—or levels.

The next logical question is: How does one use these objectives? The easiest way to describe this is to use the instructional model taught in the teacher education program at Southwest Minnesota State College. This model has five steps: 1) Specify educational objectives. 2) Determine the condition of the learner. 3) Select content and strategies. 4) Organize and manage the learning environment. 5) Evaluate progress and assess new condition of the learner. More simply these steps may be: 1) Your objective, 2) Pre-test, 3) Decide teaching/learning strategies, 4) Teacher teaches/student learns, 5) Post-test.

By use of the above model, each learning unit may be accomplished. By use of the pre-test, it may be revealed that not all students need to be taught all the objectives. You will not discover either that there are only three *groups*—or types—of tasks needed. The pre-test may vary from the brief, informal type to a more extensive formal test which may assess more than a single skill. From the results of these pre-tests, small group or individualized instruction can be planned. Grouping and regrouping can be flexibly effected as deficits in each child's learning are discovered. Some of the learning strategies can—and must—be independent self-directed and self-checking activities. Many are small group activities.

Since direct teaching of skills is only one segment of reading, the other strand or track must also be developed. This must involve the child in reading and, in particular, the discovery that reading is fun and has purpose as well. Through knowledge of what isn't happening in reading as it is and has been (detailed in the early part of this paper), it becomes apparent that changes must be effected. One such change is providing a variety of high-interest materials from which the child can select reading which is of interest to him and which is at a level where success is possible for him. Who, may I ask, enjoys doing that in which only failure is possible? We have been making many decisions for failure, for children. In-

stead of stepping stones, we have been stumbling blocks.

What happens when the choices and decisions are left to the children? Even as early as grade one, individualized, high-interest reading caused greater motivation, increased interest, more reading, and improved learning. How is this managed instructionally? A block of time, perhaps one hour or one and one-half hours is set aside as reading time. During this time some skill teaching *must* occur. One fact became very clear in working with individualized reading: If *no teaching* occurs the children *do not learn* or progress. In one instance the children, almost without exception, regressed. During this time, also, ongoing individual conferences must be held since this is the only way the teacher can know precisely the strengths and weaknesses of the children. These conferences with the teacher also prove a motivating force for the children. This is one time in which the child can have the undivided attention of the teacher and can share information uninhibited by the presence of others.

The record keeping for the above two-track system of reading can be done in many ways. These records can range from the very simple anecdotal record in a notebook to the sophisticated I.B.M. card which is notched or punched as skills are learned. This is a decision the instructor must make. It appears that the skill component lends itself better to the card-punch system, and the interest-reading was very easily recorded in a notebook.

A major concern of all who consider individualizing any instruction is the amount of work that can be involved. It would be futile to attempt to convince anyone that little or no extra work is involved in meeting each child's needs and in teaching the continuum of skills. Anything of value has a price. The price of improved instruction and learning in reading may be extended effort, or it may mean effort in a new and more demanding manner. The excitement in the eyes of a child may be our major reward, but then isn't that what we are all about?

To close, a story comes to mind: The grasshopper, as fall was approaching, was extremely worried as to what he would do to manage through the cold days of winter. He spied the ants so busily scurrying about and thought he'd ask the ant what to do.

He approached the ant and asked, "How, friend ant, can I find a way to live through the cold winter?"

The ant replied, "I know what you can do. Go to that old shed over there. Change yourself into a cockroach, crawl between the cracks, and sleep the winter through."

"Great," said the grasshopper, and then a thought came to mind. "But, friend ant, how do I change myself into a cockroach?"

The ant looked him in the eye and replied, "Now, my friend, I have

given you the general idea. The details you will have to work out for yourself."

So it is the general idea which has been outlined. The details I leave to you.

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To Think and To Be

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The teaching of reading must be vitally concerned with the stimulation of human thought and the encouragement of verbal interaction. In order to promote student thinking and verbal expression, the feelings of students are central to instruction in reading—those kinds of feelings that emerge when students express opinions, make decisions, imagine, clarify values, and make judgments.

The basic concerns of this paper are to point out a few helps for teachers who want 1) to focus on the process of thinking and help students become thinkers, and 2) to focus on the person in the process and communicate to students that the teacher cares.

Focusing on the Process

In recent years an abundance of literature has been published stressing the concept that reading is a process. This notion has much merit. Certainly reading should encompass more than a carefully sequenced hierarchy of skills. However, process can be interpreted in many ways, and numerous suggestions have appeared in the literature which causes the situation to become almost mindboggling.

Communication among educators concerning the ideas of teaching for thinking or process has been most difficult, and communication with parents has been almost nonexistent.

Dr. Calvin W. Taylor (*13*) from the University of Utah, does an effective job of synthesizing the numerous resources available pertaining to process teaching. His "Multiple Talent Approach" conveys the idea that "every kid can be a winner," and that academic talent is only one of several significant human abilities. When educators become process-oriented and view students as "thinkers," an exciting new dimension is added to

learning. Students become doers, inventors, and become fully engaged in learning. "Process teaching," then, may be viewed as getting students to think.

Getting Process Started

A basic understanding of the operations dimension of Guilford's "Structure of the Intellect Model" (*6*) can serve as a foundation for teachers interested in teaching for thinking. Guilford classifies thinking into five basic categories: memory, cognition, convergent, divergent, and evaluative thinking. These thinking operations might also be classified as "reproductive thinking" (memory, cognition, and convergent) and "productive thinking" (divergent and evaluative). Historically, reproductive thinking (recalling, memorizing, retrieving, identifying, etc.) has been the predominant thinking process stressed in most classrooms. Students are asked to reproduce the thoughts of others and little opportunity has been provided for productive thinking (synthesizing, inferring, decision-making, planning, creating, forecasting, etc.). Teaching for thinking has to be equally concerned with the productive and the reproductive. For it is in the realm of productive thinking where the student has the chance to express his uniqueness, individual values, interest, and generally display himself as a person different from everyone else.

When reading is considered a process, it means that productive thinking must become an integral part of learning experiences. If all or nearly all the classroom experiences stress reproductive thinking, then reading instructions become deadening. Many students will survive and learn to read, but many of these same students will *dislike* further reading for the purposes of enjoyment or continued learning.

Guilford's work in classifying some basic mental processes helps teachers to understand other attempts at teaching for process or thinking. The "Multiple Talent Approach" calls for much divergent and evaluative thinking. The thinking called for in order for students to plan, communicate, forecast, make decisions, and create depends heavily on one's productive thinking ability.

Teaching for Thinking (*10*) by Raths *et al.* can help teachers tremendously in changing the kinds of thinking taking place in the classroom. Raths stresses such thinking exercises as classifying, observing, comparing, analyzing, looking for assumptions, etc.; these thinking exercises nurture productive thinking in the classroom.

Glasser's (*4*) "Schools Without Failure" program emphasizes the "class meeting" wherein the students are permitted to express themselves on a variety of open-ended topics. Class meetings have been accepted in many

places with open arms. For the first time students are permitted to express their own thoughts in their own words.

If productive thinking is to become part of the school's curriculum. teachers must emphasize equally the "unknowns" and the "knowns." An equal number of questions with no pat answers must be raised along with those questions that have broadly accepted single answers.

Raths', Harmin's, and Simon's (*11*) work reported in *Values and Teaching* has many implications for teachers who view their students as "thinkers." Raths, Harmin, and Simon suggest a number of ways for students to think through what is important to them. Value clarification responses allow students to examine those issues that are important to them. As a student, what do I believe in? If I hold this conviction what are the consequences? Am I willing to publicly witness my beliefs? Am I willing to act upon my convictions?

Classroom discussions focusing on values require productive thinking which leads to planning and decision making. The individual is at the center of the process.

Teacher vs. Productive Thinking

A single factor relating to a teacher's effectiveness in creating a productive thinking classroom hinges on that body of attitudes he holds toward himself. The teacher's self-concept is highly related to the types of teaching and learning experiences taking place in the classroom.

As reported by Clark and Trowbridge (*3*), the higher the teacher's self-concept, the more productive thinking took place in the classroom, whereas the lower the self-concept of the teacher, the more memory cognition and convergent thinking (reproductive thinking) was used. The high self-concept teacher appears to be one that experiments, risks failure, has a tolerance for ambiguity, and trusts his own imagination. Teachers with lower self-concepts, conversely, seem to be looking for recipes, avoid risks that lead to failure, think more in terms of "either-or," and are unwilling to suspend their own judgment when students are requested to think.

Holt (*7*) claims that our students are "aurally" illiterate. During his formal schooling, the average student is called upon to produce five million words in writing. Never again, says Holt, are people faced with such a monumental task. As adults, we are called upon to use our verbal abilities which often remain unused and unpracticed in schools. Thinking classrooms are active and place value on verbal expression among students and between teacher and students.

The person is the essence of humanness in the classroom. A thinking classroom elevates the person above the content and places on display in-

dividuals possessing a variety of ideas, interests, and communication styles.

Focusing on the Person

Consider for a moment the word "humanist." Now sharpen your focus on just one letter of the word: U or (you). Perhaps this is the spirit of the humanist—caring about the "you" in a relationship whoever "you" may be. Caring about, trusting, believing in, accepting, and helping "you."

Perhaps the humanistic teacher communicates this care, trust, acceptance, belief in, and help through providing an enabling structure in the classroom which unleashes "you" with all the accompanying uniquenesses, opinions, understandings, lack of understandings, quirks, fears, enthusiasms, successes, failures, ideas, imaginations, plans, values of you . . . you . . . you.

Ways of Communicating Care

Hal Lyon (9) suggests that the humanistic teacher use the C^2 formula. This formula has in it the ingredients of *care* for the student, giving a darn what happens to him, and *communicating* that care.

How might the humanistic teacher apply the C^2 formula? Provide for some success bombardment. Allow students to talk together in small groups of the things they do well, successes they've had during their lives, peak joy experiences, and important decisions they've made. Taking time for this kind of interchange should communicate the teacher's concern for the student.

In Leeper's book, Arthur Combs (8) acknowledges that the effective person feels well-liked, accepted, and able. But he beseechingly asks, "How is a person to feel liked unless someone likes him; how is a person to feel accepted unless someone accepts him?"

How can you learn to be more accepting? Look into Dr. Thomas Gordon's skills of communication. (5) His philosophy of listening actively, empathetically, for the feeling behind a remark rather than the content of the words, and accepting those feelings as authentic, builds communication. Students can more easily turn on their heads when their hearts are understood and accepted.

Carl Rogers (12) identifies the major block to communication as being our judgmental tendency. Is it not possible to try to *understand* another's viewpoint before we take issue with it?

Rogers also urges us to take the risk of thinking positively about the "you" in our relationships even though we may be rejected, get in over our heads, or have many demands made on us.

How might you get positive thinking started? Try a "what and why

wheel" as Terry Borton did in *Reach, Touch and Teach.* (2) Students in pairs draw a *what* wheel for each other, writing on each of three or four spokes a positive characteristic of the other person. After each has completed the other's wheel, they are exchanged.

One student reads over the wheel his partner has written about him seeing that the other thinks he is, for example, sensitive, approachable, has a sense of humor, and is enthusiastic. He chooses the one characteristic which intrigues him the most, perhaps "approachable" and asks his partner why he wrote that particular characteristic about him. The author of the wheel identifies for his partner *why* this chacteristic came across to him.

To unleash the "you," Sylvia Ashton Warner in *Teacher* (1) would have the teacher possess "negative capability." We, as teachers, should be able to call on the child's resources and "reach into the mind of the child and bring out a handful of the stuff found there and use that as our first raw material." She would uncover those organic words which have special personal meaning to the child. She would hear from the children about those words which hold special personal meaning, special intrigue, some emotional adhesive. Children then use these words as "key vocabulary" which serves as first reading and also as the bridge to later reading.

And finally Carl Rogers provides no particular technique to focus on the "you" but provides instead an analogy which enhances a "you-focused" attitude, always appreciating:

"I have come to think that one of the most satisfying experiences I know and also one of the most growth-promoting experiences for the other person is just fully to appreciate this individual in the same way that I appreciate a sunset. People are just as wonderful as sunsets if I can just let them be. In fact, perhaps the reason we can truly appreciate a sunset is that we cannot control it. When I look at a sunset as I did the other evening, I don't find myself saying, Soften the orange a little on the right hand corner, and put on a bit more purple along the base, and use a little more pink in the cloud colors! I don't do that. I don't try *to control a sunset. I watch it with awe as it unfolds. I like myself best when I can experience my staff member, my son, my daughter, in this same way, appreciating the unfolding of a life. . . . A person who is loved appreciatively, not possessively, blooms, and develops his own unique self. The person who loves non-possessively is himself enriched."* (12)

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The Changing Role of the Teacher

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If one contrasts college literature instructors of only twenty-five years ago and the instructors of students in the 1970's, one can see rather dramatically "the changing role of the teacher." The teacher of today's young mods is part of a scene not of his making, nor of theirs; not necessarily a better scene, nor a worse one, than that of twenty or fifty or a hundred years ago —but an inevitable, implacable one.

We teachers attempting to find our role in this scene might be simplistically categorized according to a positive-thinking type motto which somehow found its way onto the kitchen bulletin board where it supplements my Cream of Wheat each morning: 1) those who make things happen, 2) those who watch things happen, and 3) those who don't know anything has happened. The motto-maker overlooked another category of people: 4) those who try to keep anything from happening.

But adopting a simplistic role, however great a constructive potential it might seem to have, will not suffice in the complex drama of our era. Instead, I suggest that our changing role as teachers might be characterized by such considerations as the following:

1. *The teacher is no longer a major conservator or purveyor of culture.* As compared with the voices of our predecessors, ours are still and small amidst the competing output of media and conflict of ideas.

2. *We must be tuned in to the sensuous world of the young.* Herein is perhaps one of the toughest aspects of our modern role as teachers, because it requires us somehow to surmount an inherent contradiction. That is, most of us are not equipped in temperament or in energy to be convincingly *part of* that world in many respects. I doubt, for example, that a taste which grew through religious hymns and lonesome-cowboy songs to Sigmund Romberg operettas to Italian opera and a variety of other classical

music, along with such generally smooth pop styles as those of Pat Boone, Kate Smith, Eddie Fisher, Dick Contino, and Roger Williams, can subsequently be brought to encompass affectively much of the amplified, hard-beating rock'n'roll. But cognitively, the Rodeheaver-Romberg-Puccini man has got to have some understanding of this noisy phenomenon and of its appeal and meaning to the young whom he would teach. And he has got to extend himself affectively to some modicum of the kids'-eye view of their culture.

3. *The modern teacher's role requires him to encompass within his values, standards, and methods, the realities of the modern sensuous environment.* What attitude, for example, should a high school teacher of the humanities take toward the recent Roman Polanski-Kenneth Tynan film, *Macbeth*? The film is rated "R," a fact which tends immediately to influence public attitudes towards it. The names of Tynan and Polanski both carry connotations—that of Tynan's association with "Oh, Calcutta" being, on first thought, more relevant than that of Polanski's relationship with the ill-fated Sharon Tate and friends.

Reviews of the film have been mixed—minor, begrudged kudos submerged within a barrage of negative criticisms being typical. I believe that significant praise is offered inadvertently wthin the faint damns of some reviewers. *Parents Magazine* evaluates Polanski's *Macbeth* as "an exciting, albeit gory, adaptation of Shakespeare's tragedy [containing] . . . shocking violence, and one nude scene [all filmed] in color." (4) Pauline Kael, in her *New Yorker* review, says:

"It's a handsome, well-acted, and intelligent production, and yet it diminishes the complexity and meaning of Shakespeare's play. . . . Polanski is a gothic realist; his murderous carnivals have an everyday look, with no mystery, and no exaltation, either. . . . Slaughter is the star of this 'Macbeth.'" (3)

And the reviewer for *Time* says, "The visual images are often gripping, but the poetry of the play . . . is missing." (1)

My view is that the very characteristics which these reviewers denounce, make Polanski's a *Macbeth* for today. Gore, violence, nudity—these are, whether regrettably or not, stock elements of life and of art today. That drama written four centuries ago comes to life in these elements—Pauline Kael calls them Polanski's "Manson demons"—speaks to the universality of the dramatist's art and the continuity of human experience. "Gripping visual images" will tell what poetry will not (although I would quibble that in this film the visual images are organically part of the poetry). The nudity is nothing for the prurient—an assembly of bagging

hags, the witches, almost decently veiled by the steam and smoke of their diabolic doings.

Who is to say that Orson Welles' dark *Macbeth* of two or three decades ago is nearer "right" than Polanski's vividly colorful, gory, matter-of-fact one of the 1970's? I do not advocate that teachers should be uncritically approving of every facet of the new film because it is new. But I believe we must be open to its possible effectiveness. The nature of its art, the techniques by which it achieves communication, the human values and conditions it reflects, are all realities of the modern sensuous environment.

Another such reality is the exposure of children at early ages to a wide range of experiences. Children in remote communities, even without travel, have seen on television zoo animals (not only in zoos but being stalked in their native habitats); they have seen distant cities; they have seen and heard current celebrities; they know about the heartbreak of psoriasis; they know that Camel cigarettes produce A Man's Flavor and that paradoxically, "dreams go up in smoke." (The young lady of 1972 commented the other evening at dinner that someone "acts as if he has the 'D.T.'s' "; when pressed for clarification, she insisted that she knew the meaning of "D.T.'s"—she had heard about it on "Medical Center." But, it turned out, it hadn't occurred to her that there were words for which the initials *D. T.* stood.) The change in our role as teachers includes taking account of these experiences—simply taking some of them for granted and building beyond them, supplementing or correcting other partial or distorted experiences which modern media often provide.

One more reality of the modern sensuous environment is that children are starting to school with a foundation of formal education—particularly of preparation for reading. However much we might wish the entertainment industry would stick to entertaining, there seems no reason to think that the Sesame Streets or the Electric Companies will be diminishing anytime soon in effort or in effectiveness. If the child entering school has learned the letters of the alphabet or the pronunciation of isolated sounds, for example, we can't remove them from his head, however strong our ideological commitment to some other beginning route. So I suggest that we accept what the highly-paid TV "schools" have done and foster the kids' progress from there. (Meanwhile we should scream and lobby and propagandize to the extent of our powers to keep education in the hands of educators, if we do not believe in massive, commercial, heavily subsidized early-childhood education in front of the tube.)

4. *We must accept the fact that reading is only one mode of acquiring information, ideas, and culture.* We must recognize this not only by our verbal declarations, but by our incorporation of other media into our teaching, our recognition of the legitimacy of our students' turning to other

media, and our encouragement and direction of their uses of other media.

5. *We must acknowledge the sensuous environment by using it to various ends in our teaching.* It is not, for example, an impossible step from Stephen Stills' "I've got to slow down/ Hear my singing call," to Thomas Wolfe's "You can't go home again"; and an appreciation of the first might lead to an exploration, with some comprehension, of the second.

Or, one might derive some vital generalizations about language, as well as shed some light on the pop culture, by using a recent news feature story, "How Rock Groups Got Their Names." (5) Among the explanations offered is the following of the name "Three Dog Night":

"*Supposedly in Australia when it's very cold, the aborigines lie down with one dog on a one-dog night, two dogs on a two-dog night, and three dogs when it's the coldest, a three-dog night.*"

And

"*Elektra's Crabby Appleton is named after the cartoon villain on the old Tom Terrific show. What appealed to this group was the inherent irony, since meanie Crabby Appleton hated to listen to music and enjoyed breaking records!*"

It is significant that even though the pop music groups assembled within relatively recent years, so that their naming does not go far back into history, there are conflicting interpretations of the origins of some names (just as origins and explanations of language usages in general sometimes get lost):

"*Take the Jefferson Airplane. The popular belief is that the name is derived from a World War I airplane, while others argue that the group got its name from a marijuana joint. The official RCA version is that [the name is a shortened version of] Blind Lemon Jefferson Airplane, named after the famous blues singer, Blind Lemon Jefferson.*"

As another example of using the sensuous environment to the ends of teaching, I refer to the Dick Cavett Show, as I concur in Nicholas Johnson's evaluation expressed during an appearance on the show in July, 1970, that Cavett's is a television show "for people who can read"—it is one of the sources in commercial television programming from which may be gleaned much to serve education. There have been discussions and probing of such vital matters as the United States Army's conduct in Vietnam; debates of such issues as the legalization of marijuana; historic interviews with stars

of the silent screen and with such literary figures as W. H. Auden.

6. *We must teach the intelligent use of all media.* This teaching must include the keeping in perspective of the output of all media, and of various media in relation to each other. It must include cognizance and application of criteria in selecting from the available productions of the media.

Teaching the intelligent use of media must also include instilling a sense of responsibility for reacting to the uses to which the media are put, and an awareness of how to go about such reacting. Commercial sponsorship of television and radio programming virtually assures that it will tend toward the inane and the insipid. Again, speaking of Cavett, Robert Lewis Shayon describes succinctly the dilemma in which such a responsible, informed and informative, constructively provocative performer finds himself—

"*Network researcher have gathered data indicating that Cavett [appeals to a] high-IQ audience—professionals, students, and the upper-income group. The problem, though, lies in the fact that such viewers . . . tend to be casual in their Cavett visitations, either because they are busy doing things other than watching television or because they are early-to-bedders. Cavett cannot depend upon such viewers to stabilize his position and to win him victory in [the ratings race]. He is under pressure from his producers, from the network, and from many affiliates to adjust the caliber of his guests and the tone and substance of his conversations to the more common and less subtle tastes of the heavy viewers who frequent the tube after the 11 o'clock [Midwest, 10 o'clock] newscasts.*" (6)

It is at least as important for next year's citizens to be aware of and actively concerned about this erosive force acting upon quality television programming as for them to have read "O Captain! My Captain!" They should know also that the printed media are compromised regularly by considerations of advertising revenue, partisan and biased affiliations, and eagerness for the largest possible (paying) readership. For that matter, public educational television itself is corruptible by the viewer-numbers game: Many of the custodians of public funds are as imbued with the "but-will-it-sell" mentality as anyone.

A useful resource for teaching responsiveness to the media is Nicholas Johnson's book, *How to Talk Back to Your Television Set.* (2)

7. *Finally, we must teach reading more effectively and with greater conviction than ever before.* Because of the distractions and the alternatives to reading, we must try to assure that our students can read with the greatest efficiency and the greatest sense of success possible. We must build into our teaching the assurance that reading will be associated for

them with satisfaction of needs, with an aura of enjoyment and a sense of achievement.

And we must try to assure that our students will know, not only from our telling them so but from their own experiences, that reading has unique and essential functions as one of the modes of experiencing the world: It can be paced at the rate and to the purposes of the reader; printed materials, more than materials in other modes, can be drawn upon when, where, and to the extent that the reader wishes; they have a permanence and a stability that encourage their use for retaining and conveying the most ageless ideas and values; they are less subject than materials in other media to arbitrary curtailment of detail and important complexities (compared with, for example, a television program's slavery to closely-guarded time segments). Reading is not less needed because of the prevalence of other media; it is all the more vitally needed as a corrective influence on other media, and as a means of keeping the shifting mass of information, ideas, and values we are confronted with in perspective.

Led Zeppelin, Dick Cavett, Korak—they symbolize a complex variety of partners who have joined us in a kind of universal, twenty-four-hours-a-day teaching team. They have jarred us from the time-honored role in which teachers before us functioned. We have no choice but to accept them. As with most teaching-team projects, the work becomes harder; there are continuing processions of knotty problems to be worked out. But, like many teaching teams, the team of Led Zeppelin, Dick Cavett, Korak, and Us offers a much richer, more vital curriculum than could any of its members alone.

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Children Are Not Dichotomous

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It is not uncommon, upon such occasions as parent-teacher conferences or informal gatherings in the faculty lounge, to hear frequent mention of "good" and "poor" readers. Yet it is possible, and even highly probable, that the use of dichotomous categories represents a verbal expression of the teacher's operational behavior. Erroneous judgments frequently result from elevating fragmentary information to a position of all-inclusive generalization. Children are not static, but flexible, ever-changing individuals who are extremely adept at compensating for adverse conditions. Therefore, isolating children into gross dichotomous divisions would seem to represent an oversimplification of a complex situation, resulting in the mutual dissatisfaction of both teachers and students. All that a teacher really knows about a child is what can be observed and measured at a given moment; all else is speculation. Therefore, judgments made by the teacher must be relevant to a particular individual's situation during a particular time interval. The capabilities of predetermined instructional programs to successfully meet these conditions are extremely limited. No single basal program can do all things for all students. The assumption seems to have been made that most developmental reading programs are organized in such a way that they provide the teacher with a means for correcting any deficiencies within a child's repertoire of reading skills or concepts. This assumption may have a foundation in fact; however, teachers tend to function best in a linear progression giving little thought to the necessity of recycling components in a particular lesson. The nature of the problem is therefore one of accessability and intensity. The idea has certainly been expressed before that a textbook is a tool, appropriate for some tasks and totally inappropriate for others. Its utilitarian value is directly related to the teacher's knowledge of its capabilities and limitations. The teacher's primary concern

should be to facilitate the progressive development of a student from one stage of reading readiness to another.

Reading Readiness

Brenner (2) offers a Rogerian type thesis that each human individual is in a state of transition and change in an ongoing life process. This fluid view of readiness, however, is not exclusive. There is also that feature of readiness that is permanent in nature. It is hoped, for example, that students are in a continuous state of readiness with regard to their ability and willingness to be actively involved in school.

Although the major components of readiness are multipartite they can be synthesized into two complementary categories, the first aspect of the dyad being labeled "functional potential." Since function may be equated with a job or task, the student's known capabilities need to be considered in determining what he should be able to do. The second aspect involves the child's "willingness to function." He may be capable of successfully completing a given task, but this is no indication that he will. It is readily apparent that the second element is directly associated with what is commonly referred to as motivation.

To adopt, or even recognize the existance of, the dual nature of a functional approach to reading readiness is commendable. Yet it is useless if theory cannot be transposed into operational terms. A major task confronting the teacher is to determine what the student should be able to do after a learning sequence that he couldn't do before. It should be objectively recognized that reading skills and concepts frequently compose closed sets; therefore, they can be readily measured. For example: Consonants constitute a closed set of twenty-one items. A child can be presented with isolated consonants using graphic stimuli and asked to give one of the common sounds of each letter. Responses can be counted, thereby determining what he can and cannot do under these conditions.

Task Description and Analysis

Miller (3) describes task description and analysis and their relation to the process of man-machine system development. Much of Miller's rationale can be directly applied to the functioning of teachers and students within a reading system. A task description may best be considered as a statement of requirements. It specifies what is to be done and under what conditions. Once developed, task descriptions serve as basic models for all later decisions with regard to the functioning of students within the system. Gagné (3) states that, "description of human tasks . . . constitute the basic reference for all of the actions that determine the capabilities of the human components of the system." Once it is known what the student will do in the

system, it can then be determined what antecedent skills and concepts are necessary before the current task can be performed. It is impossible to identify all the contingencies to which a student may be exposed. But task descriptions should provide at least those critical factors that can be readily identified within a system. Miller (*6*) notes that "the most detailed and obviously the most valid description of requirements can be obtained from the task actually being performed by sample humans in operational settings."

Consideration of Gilford's (*4*) position in the context of reading instruction indicated that to successfully relate graphic symbols with existing language, the student must think in a systematic fashion. The content of such a process utilizes the associative value or meaningfulness of the stimuli both on an intellectual and emotional plane. (7) Systematic thinking will be restricted until a necessary number of perceptual and conceptual bits are interrelated, providing orderly matchings of given stimuli sets. "Bits" may be considered as those basic units comprising a particular concept or skill. A simple concept has one bit of relevant information and no irrelevant information, whereas a complex concept involves a set of many relevant factors and is frequently masked by many irrelevant attributes. (*1*) By analyzing a given reading system and identifying its perceptual-conceptual bits and relevant antecedent skills, it is possible to establish a comprehensive model of specific tasks that act as contingencies for successfully functioning with a system. Such a model can be structured in hierarchical form both in terms of complexity and number. A model of this type would be consistent with the concept of a developmental reading program and would augment existing systems.

Ideally, all teachers in a given building would cooperate in the compilation of such a model. The content would consist of perceptual and conceptual bits from pre-first grade to the point where current knowledge is exhausted. Teachers would be responsible for analyzing the basal texts at their grade levels. Those familiar with the weak or troublesome areas within the system would determine appropriate alternatives. Once such a model has been established, the teacher could rightfully be held accountable for exacting knowledge of each child's functional reading potential since the problem of accessability will have been eliminated.

The items contained in the model could be utilized in forming an instrument for both diagnostic and evaluative purposes. There would obviously be several versions of the same instrument so that familiar items would not be presented during evaluative sessions. Analysis of a diagnostic test would provide the teacher with specific data upon which instructional strategies could be established. Following the implementation of instructional procedures and their evaluation, the teacher could then determine

that a child progressed from point (A) to point (B). If and when teachers are able to operate in this fashion, gross dichotomous categories can be relegated to a position outside the context of reading instruction.

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Alive Teachers or New Ideas: Which Is Needed Most in the Reading Instruction Program?

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Is it the teacher or the process of teaching reading that is the most valuable part of a good instructional program? My title suggests the problem. I shall attempt to answer it with personal feelings that result from the experience and training I have acquired as an elementary teacher and as one privileged to prepare future classroom teachers.

If you wish to start a lively discussion among classroom teachers anytime, anywhere, just bring up this question as it applies to the general topic of reading instruction. You may get as many opinions as there are participants. Fortunately, research is under way which will be vital to the resolving of these major differences of opinion.

Better reading instruction for the future means that we must seek to define what are the very best materials to use in a learning environment and who are the personnel that can deliver the best instructional practices. As insurance that all children will learn to read, new programs are now being launched with the funding of numerous research and development projects by the U. S. Office of Education. Scientists, educators, and research managers are all in on the planning of this Targeted Research and Development Program on Reading.

Some educators are sincere in their belief that it is the instructional program we have in reading today that should be changed. Others do not look at change only in the light of the newer innovations—team teaching, departmentalization, concept formation, textbook materials, individually guided instruction, open classrooms, etc. Perhaps what has presently been happening administratively is that something old is made to look new by giving children exposure to several teachers instead of just one. There has been some knocking out of walls and our old schools have received a new cover of carpeting. Many of these schools are still faced with the problem that some children do not like to be forced into doing something such as learning to read, using our same old instructional practices. This process,

that can be a natural exciting thing, has not been improved by merely putting the children in the "perfect" learning environment unless there also has been introduced something to excite and enthuse them. That something could be a particular subject, apparatus, or book, but most often it is the teacher. It is he or she that creates an aura of excitement in the classroom. This excitement is not just something that can be forced. This is a natural sustained enthusiasm to be coupled with spontaneity and flexibility. It is in the teacher, or it is not.

Each of us has had, in our lifetime, a teacher (or teacher) whose love of their subject lifted it above the commonplace. You could not ignore his enthusiasm and genuine interest in his subject as he shared it with you. I recently experienced a course where the instructor really aroused my interest and touched something inside of me. Parallel to this course was another, where the instructor seemed to talk to the walls of the classroom, and, although equally among the highest paid and best prepared of this state's teachers, this instructor had failed completely on one of the keys of learning—motivation.

Elizabeth Dorband has pointed out to me that it is this tremendous desire to share which has touched her most and triggered her interest in learning. This is what we should try to protect and project in our roles as teachers.

She described reading a poem to her class. She became aware of the stillness in her room and the thought occurred to her: "What if I had played a record?" "Not as an offense to professional actors and materials," she has said, but "I strongly doubt that any record could elicit the response that I can get from my fourth-graders."

What the children need more than fancy media centers filled with materials are teachers who really care about them and can demonstrate this concern by using instructional practices based on the varying achievement levels of all students. These are not teachers who care only about what everyone else will think, but teachers who care about children, their feelings, their illusions, their understandings, and in general, their needs. These are teachers who are available to children and are allowed the time to divide themselves among all of their students.

This kind of caring takes more than just the old "I *love* little kids" bit. It takes a gut level courage, or, in other words, a teacher willing to take a few risks—a teacher whose voice is heard in the present school reading program. These teachers with the expertise, imagination, enthusiasm, and self-discipline to do the job of teaching reading must have a stronger voice in what goes on in the present school reading programs.

Having the strongest teachers use their experience and ability to assist children who are reading below grade level and to judge materials appropriate for their ability is a good way to start. Such teachers, with a voice in the school reading program, should offer other teachers assistance in understanding and utilizing the school testing program. It is the teacher

prepared in the teaching of reading who can most effectively assist other teachers in the use of any instructional materials employed by the local school districts. This assistance can begin in the kindergarten or early childhood program of the school.

The child's interest in the basic disciplines of numbers and language is keen at an early age. These are the areas where children have particular problems later in their school experiences. Through the teacher's giving the child an understanding and working knowledge of mathematics and language, he can contribute to the child's inner confidence in himself and his work.

In the past, the common misconception was heard that children were not mentally ready to read until at least age six, and parents were repeatedly warned that under no circumstances should they attempt to teach their youngsters to read before that time. You know what has happened. Today preschoolers can not only be taught reading, but one can find agreement that this may indeed be the peak time when they naturally and enthusiastically absorb many reading skills. Young children have been found to be so enthusiastic in absorbing these skills that, given the slightest encouragement, they can almost teach themselves.

Thanks to the background that our preschoolers have today through mass visual-auditory media, teaching them to read at an even earlier age is usually extremely successful. A good teacher welcomes the readiness background supplied to a child in his early childhood experiences. A teacher who may be unsure or inexperienced will feel threatened by a child in the kindergarten or even first grade that has already been introduced to reading and some writing experiences. He or she may fail to see the decided advantage this child has and will maintain throughout his following school experiences.

During early childhood, reading can be introduced at a time when it is most natural and gradual since this period is free from the pressures and anxiety of competition found at later school periods. A prime role of the early childhood teacher is to match the learning task to the child and to give consideration for the assessment of his progress in a systematic manner.

Besides skills, another prerequisite for helping children learn is the teacher's humanistic attitude and feeling for children. An attitude most likely to lead the teacher to greater teaching skills and teaching effectiveness is that of being a learner him- or herself. This is an attitude that will foster the young child's lifelong love of learning, best exemplified by a teacher through his or her own example.

Above everything else, a teacher needs a knowledge of himself. The truly mature teacher knows his limitations, his own strengths and weaknesses. The wise teacher will not bemoan continually what he doesn't know, doesn't have, or cannot do. With the range of instructional materials and teaching strategies as wide as it is today, the role of the teacher should

be to find a precise combination that works with children and do the very best that he can with what he has. Of course, assistance must be sought to secure proven ways of selecting and structuring content for the child's learning if a teacher is not sure what to do.

Teachers should be allowed time on a scheduled basis to observe and confer with other outstanding teachers in the local school district. A "master" teacher can be released to aid fellow teachers at improving their instructional techniques on a regularly scheduled basis. These same teachers should be represented on a system-wide reading committee, which, *under competent direction,* makes the decisions regarding reading procedures in the local school district.

I have spent much time on the subject of the quality teacher in a position of leadership because I believe that it is the prepared teacher that is the force which makes or breaks the learning situation for a child. If this teacher can cause children to understand some of what he or she knows about how children learn and about the importance of self-knowledge, then that is the greatest thing of all that he or she can give them.

In a review that came to my desk this week for a book, *Free to Learn,* to be released in April, the question is raised, "Can four million dollars make Johnny a smarter boy?"

The example used is the Mount Vernon, New York school which spent that amount to provide every modern facility available to increase the educational level of its students. However, the report from a renowned psychometrician has stated, "The four million dollars has purchased no measurable change in student achievement."

Many seem to be frustrated over this problem; what are the best materials that should be used? The teacher of today should be prepared to both know and question the history of practices and materials used in education. He should examine traditional teaching techniques and look for better answers than may now be available. The teacher of today should care enough about education to want to work for change. A student of mine related to me this past week that perhaps we're not in such great need of more educational gimmicks, games, or new innovations as we are in great need of truly mature, human people who care in education. She went on to say, "Look at the great teachers of mankind: Plato, Socrates, Confucius, and Jesus Christ. They did a lot and they didn't have a media center."

The Reading Teacher, 1984 Model

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As the teaching of reading is viewed in a historical perspective, it is apparent that methodologies come and go in cycles. It always seems that the newly discovered methodology of the present is just a resurrection of some method tried with great expectation in some previous decade and then discarded with sorrow as it was found not to have been the cure-all after all. But what of the innovations of the present? Will they be discarded one by one as their weaknesses become painfully evident? Or will it somehow be different—this time?

What, for example, can be expected for the schools in George Orwell's fabled 1984? Will education again prove that there is nothing new under the sun by rediscovering some "new" methodology of a past decade and proclaiming that at last the answer to teaching reading without failure has been found? No one knows for certain, of course, but, by considering current trends in the teaching of reading, it should be possible to predict with some assurance what the Reading Teacher, 1984 Model will be like.

Some of the more significant trends that have developed in the past decade include the following:

1. The trend toward individualization of instruction.

For decades, educators have proclaimed the task of the teacher to be one of taking the student where he is and teaching him from there. Previously, this goal has been a practical impossibility. Now with somewhat smaller classes, more and better materials, varied organizational patterns, clerical help, teacher aides, and other innovative practices, it has become physically possible to accomplish this goal.

In great numbers, individual pupils are learning the skill aspects of reading at a very acceptable rate. They find a challenge and success in each new reading task—and most enjoy reading more than they ever have before. The good readers are not held back by the slower ones; the slower ones do not find themselves in a direct, unfavorable comparison with pupils of higher ability.

Still many teachers are not quite sure that extreme individualization is a good thing. Day after day pupils are tested, diagnosed, scrutinized, analyzed, and then sent off on their own to work on fragmentized reading skills. More and more instruction takes the form of a pupil going his own way to work on his own little instructional prescription, with little thought or concern for other pupils in the classroom.

Learning comes as pupils respond to materials rather than from pupils interacting with one another or with teachers. The instructional package has all but replaced the human interaction considered so important in the past; the teacher has been relegated to the role of an observer.

If this trend toward individualization continues to accelerate in the years ahead, what will it mean for our Reading Teacher, 1984?

2. The trend toward a greater use of behavioral objectives.

In recent years teachers have been encouraged to state instructional objectives in a precise fashion and in terms of observable pupil behavior. It has become fashionable to note that unless one can specify in behavioral terms each objective of instruction, he cannot be precise in his presentation nor effective in accomplishing worthwhile goals. These urgings, coupled with parallel developments in performance contracting and criteria referenced tests have had a noticeable effect on the way teachers prepare for and execute their teaching.

Undoubtedly, many good things have happened in reading programs as a direct result of this emphasis. For too long teachers have taught week after week without any clear-cut purpose or without any notion of how well the pupils were achieving the objectives of the reading program. Nowadays, however, more and more teachers are planning in specific terms so that instructional objectives can be taught, observed, and measured.

Nevertheless, it may be worthwhile to note some precautions relative to this trend. For example, in attempting to specify, objectify, and measure, teachers find that it is much easier to deal with cognitive-type objectives than with objectives in the affective domain. Thus, there is a natural tendency to specify in large numbers those objectives which are easier to delineate and to omit those which are more difficult to state and to measure. Without really meaning to, teachers have centered instruction on skill-type objectives and given less emphasis to value-type objectives.

The trend toward behavioral objectives does not preclude teaching for objectives in the affective domain, but at least for the present this has been a natural outgrowth of the trend. If this trend continues, how will it shape our Reading Teacher, 1984 Model?

3. The trend toward a mechanization of instruction.

As the federal government spent larger and larger sums of money in the sixties to foster improvement in reading instruction, industry increasingly moved into the business of education. As a result, more and varied materials of instruction have been made available to the schools. Much of this

has been "software," but increasingly, mechanical gadgets of one sort or another have been used. Computers, talking typewriters, listening posts, cassettes, tachistoscopes, controlled readers, pacers, and many other devices have literally inundated the schools. Time after time someone has constructed and sold some attractive, well-designed device to accomplish an important reading objective. Individually, many have been very successful and very helpful; taken in total they are somewhat frightening.

This mechanization has accelerated the trend toward individualization and has fostered a depersonalization in reading instruction to such an extent that one wonders what role the 1984 teacher will have. Will he be some combination of an audiovisual technician, computer programmer, tester, and clerical worker? Will his humanness be of no value or of little use? One wonders, but let us not go astray.

The purpose of this paper is not to persuade teachers to abandon any of the recent instructional advances. Likewise, the purpose is not to foster a state of mind where creativity and experimentation in instructional practice will be hampered. It would be very unwise to retard these important and hard-won improvements. Rather the purpose in isolating these trends and speculating about where they might lead is to suggest how the trends might be guided so that *total* curricular objectives can be better achieved.

Needed Emphasis

Along with current trends, it is imperative that certain other elements receive their fare share of emphasis. First of all, it is important that teachers not forget the *human* aspects of teaching. The child who spends the greater portion of his day working with materials assigned to him by the computer, his after school hours watching The Electric Company, his evenings watching Archie Bunker, and his Saturday mornings with the Bugaloos needs the human touch somewhere along the line. His baby sitter may tuck him in at night and even kiss him good night once in a while, but this is not enough. Somewhere else he needs to know that he is a child. The teacher in the classroom can supply some of the needed humanness. Increasingly, teachers should make sure that an environment of human interaction is provided within the classroom.

A second area of needed emphasis is that of *values*. The teaching of reading is more than a skill development process; it is a time when pupils meet ideas. In reading, pupils should confront value questions of the past, the present, and the future, and they should do this in group situations as well as in their own individual reading. Teachers should not use their position as teachers to indoctrinate their own brand of values, but they can provide free and open discussions of value questions raised by what the children read. Through such discussions and explorations, the value systems of children should develop so that they become more effective citizens of the world.

Personality development is a third area of concern. The general hyperstimulation of today's environment presents personality pressures that were not present to such an extreme degree in the past. Adventure and excitement are commonplace. Every day, children of all ages view, in living color, the Pepsi Generation as it romps through life from Peyton Place to the Super Bowl. The reading classroom can provide an environment which serves to balance this excess stimulation. For example, by reading aloud or telling stories to pupils, teachers can manipulate the emotional climate of the classroom. By dimming the lights in a room and by selecting appropriate stories, moods of calmness and serenity can be created. High interest and excitement are qualities to be desired in the reading program, but peace and quiet have emotional rewards of their own. If today's overstimulated child learned to like peace and quiet, it would probably be a less hectic world for all.

Summary

In an effort to foresee what the role of tomorrow's reading teacher might be, three important instructional trends were noted: namely, greater individualization of instruction, wider use of behavioral objectives, and increased mechanization in instruction. The values of these improvements were noted, but precautions in their use were cited. The need for a corollary emphasis in humanness, value teaching, and personality development was urged. If the trends cited accelerate as much in the next decade as they have in the past decade, then the reading teacher of 1984 could be a robot. On the other hand, if the trends are balanced with similar advances in the human aspects of teaching, then the Reading Teacher, 1984 Model will truly be a professional.

Reading Instruction: Dimensions in Teaching—Realities in Learning

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I have a small booklet in the office entitled: *What is Reading Doing to the Child?*—a report of the sixteenth annual Reading Conference at Lehigh University, edited by Nancy Larrick. I have had several occasions to refer to the book for ideas and suggestions on teaching pupils how to read and to read (there is a difference). I am going to borrow the title but change one word (note what this can do to comprehension): "What is Reading Doing for the Child?" The question implies that reading is a skill area, and, through more effective and efficient use, new avenues of personal growth are open for the pupil.

When I first began to plan and organize this paper, I selected the title to convey the importance of teacher-pupil interaction in teaching reading. It was also intended to stress the multiplicity of teaching and the many facets of the learning process. This brings to mind a quotation by John Dewey which illustrates the position we find ourselves in at times: "One may as well say he has sold when no one has bought as to say he has taught when no one has learned." My purpose will be to guide your thinking and to raise some questions (hopefully your questions as well as mine). I have identified four major issues in teaching reading that are receiving attention in reading education today. As I develop these points I would hope you will begin to envision how they can be incorporated into your classroom procedures and become part of your teaching strategy for the basic reading skills.

The four issues or points that I will discuss are:

1. Reading skills as a developmental process
2. Implications of recent research in reading
3. Diagnostic and prescriptive teaching
4. Active vs. passive learning

I have placed *first* for discussion: Reading skills as a developmental process. In the past, we have overlooked the fact that reading is a skill area. Too many of us have taken for granted that we know how to teach reading or, for that matter, what is really involved in the process. Recently, I read that most beginning teachers are influenced primarily by three factors in how they teach reading:

1. Reversion to techniques they remember when they learned to read
2. The influence of an author or contributor of a basal reading series usually taken as a methods course in college
3. A study of the district level adoption

I cannot overemphasize a must in teaching reading "that we fully realize—first in theory, and second in classroom practice—to teach reading we teach basic skills in sequential order." The order in which we teach the skills will vary somewhat with different reading approaches, but the importance is that they are taught. I will not take time to go into detail on the basic reading skills but I do want to mention them:

1. Word Recognition
2. Reading Comprehension
3. Reading-Study Skills
4. Reading Fluency and Rates

As you teach individual pupils within your classroom, you should have some knowledge and understanding of where they are in sequential reading skills development.

In any discussion of basic reading skills I would want to emphasize the fact that there are many opportunities for both teaching and practice of these skills as pupils read in the content subjects. The application of reading skills in day-to-day reading is almost as important as the initial teaching of skills. All content areas will provide excellent practice for reading skills. Take for example social studies: What better time is there to apply the reading-study skills? Early in pupils' learning experiences there is need to locate information for relevance to a topic, to organize information into some form and sequence for either retention or reporting. There is a need to develop specific word meaning in social studies thus enlarging reading vocabulary. Reading in social studies will provide ample practice for all types of comprehension skills: literal, interpretive and critical reading. Your social studies course should provide a real test of your skill as a teacher for putting into practice the directed-reading-activity for each unit taught.

The teaching of reading has been a most common topic for research. If *quantity* were the real test of knowledge, many more answers on improving the teaching of reading would have resulted. However, we must give credit to research for bringing about many needed changes in teaching techniques. As additional studies are undertaken and as the classroom teacher becomes involved in *action* research, we will undoubtedly see more changes come about.

I have selected only three areas of research to mention today because of their direct influence and implications for fundamental reading skills instruction. First, I would refer to that popular topic: decoding vs. comprehension. You can find studies which support either depending somewhat on which grade level evaluation was conducted. There is general agreement that a balanced reading program will place equal importance on both decoding and reading comprehension.

Since word recognition skills are evident in our reading programs, I have chosen to stress the comprehension aspect of reading. My purpose is to stimulate your thinking of the questioning technique in teaching. In reading, teacher questions can foster certain modes of thinking such as analyzing an argument, plot structure, or explanation, comparing reports, editorials, two characters, or evaluating the style or worth of the written material.

To illustrate the importance of teacher questions to pupil response and level of comprehension, I will briefly report on a study made in Canada of the types of questions teachers ask in primary reading classes, reported in *Reading Teacher,* October, 1969. One hundred and eight lessons were observed—thirty-six per grade. The total number of questions recorded was 7,476 (2600 in grade one, 2500 in grade two, and 2400 in grade three).

Of the total number, 47.5 per cent were classified as memory. Memory questions were those that required the pupil to use memory skills in locating and recalling information. Examples: 1) "Paul, will you read the title of the story?" 2) "Who spoke the line?" 3) "What did Jack buy at the store?" The next most frequently used questions were those involving analysis—25.9 per cent. These questions require pupils to predict. For example: 1) "Do you think he is going?" 2) "Does that mean he is going too?" 3) "Do you think he would take him?" Application and evaluation questions were rarely used. 2.3 per cent were application questions and 2.6 per cent were evaluation questions. Application questions involved the solution of lifelike problems that require the identification of the issues and the selection and use of appropriate generalizations and skills. For example: 1) "What would you do if she were your little sister?" or 2) "What would you do to save yourself from an emergency like that?" Evaluation questions require the pupil to make judgements of good or bad, right or

wrong, according to the standards or values he designates. Examples of evaluation questions were: 1) "Describe your favorite show window." 2) "Tell me the part you like best."

Studies of teacher questions in grades four through six reveal much the same results. Take time to analyze your own classroom questioning technique. Your questions will determine the level of comprehension you get from pupils. To develop interpretive skills and critical reading you will need to use questions that require these types of comprehension. If you would like to explore this topic in more detail and get some practical suggestions for classroom use, I would refer you to a little paperback book by Morris Sander entitled *Classroom Questions*, published by Harper and Row, copyright date 1966.

A third area of reading research concerns research conducted on differences in learning of boys. There are implications for teaching in view of the fact that more boys than girls have reading problems. Jo Stanchfield, Professor of Education, Occidental College, has recently released results of her longitudinal study in the Watts area of Los Angeles. Her findings and recommendations have practical application for teaching reading. Therefore, I will summarize her results for your consideration:

1. Boys are more inner-directed than other-directed.
   Little boys want to know why—they want a purpose or to be interested in what they read. They respond to learning as "fun." It needs to be alive!

2. Boys have a different adaptive syndrome.
   Boy babies do not adapt as easily as girls to changes in their environment. Think about this as you work with boys—look at the way you talk to boys. Choose your words—they feel more deeply.

3. Girls like all things boys like plus their own interests. Boys have a narrow span of interest whereas girls have a wide range of interest. Always ask your boys *why*? They think beautifully! Take time to read an exciting story, something that boys like—action stories with plenty of excitement is more up their alley.

4. Miss Stanchfield observed a pronounced difference in activity levels. Boys are much more active. She suggests that you harness "boy energy" by getting them into the act.

5. Listening skills of boys were not developed to the degree those of girls were. Your boys will need more guidance and teaching on how to listen. One way you can make listening come alive is through the use of reading tapes or other multimedia material.

6. Another significant finding was that boys are less verbal than girls. They tend to moan and grunt their way through school. You have to draw most of your boys out both in their speaking and writing. Dr. Joseph Wepman of the University of Chicago also has an interesting study on the number of adjectives used by boys in writing an experience story compared to the number used by girls. The experimental groups were instructed to write their own stories using some 10,000 words on cards. He found that boys used 33 adjectives in telling their stories while 55 adjectives were used by girls.

The fourth area of research that I wish to stress involves two interrelated factors. Since in practice they are accepted as fact, I will not take time to document. These are methodology and the teacher factor. There is no one method of teaching reading. But there is *one* goal–for the child to be able to read both orally and silently with confidence, assurance, fluency, understanding, and interest. How to help all children attain this goal cannot be answered by recommending just one technique or method. This goal is achieved by different children in various ways, and the sets of circumstances leading up to the goal are as different as the number of children, teachers, parents, families, and environments involved. The first-grade studies revealed this fact initially, and it was confirmed in the follow-up, second-grade studies. Perhaps these studies' main contribution was in revealing the importance of the teacher factor in learning to read. You remember they found as many differences in gains within programs as between programs being compared. Here is just one other observation for your consideration. I can't document this belief, but I'm sure I've observed it in my classrooms and in classrooms of many good teachers:

Peer motivation + personal drive = learning (not only reading but in other areas)
I believe it's the teacher factor which can bring this about.

The *third* dimension of teaching should receive more attention than I plan to give it. From the title "diagnostic and prescriptive teachng" you can see the implications and depth this topic can take. In teaching we have borrowed the term diagnosis from the medical profession. We haven't been as quick to borrow the term prognosis which implies prescription. There is not room in this paper nor is it my purpose to develop possibilities within the regular classroom. However, I do want to present three major issues that have implications for the classroom teacher of reading.

The first is accountability. This is an emotional topic, one that, non-educational persons are quick to claim, educators are afraid to recognize and become involved with. When accountability is mentioned, it usually

becomes synonymous with performance contract. It is not this avenue of thinking I wish to pursue with you. In my opinion a more significant factor of accountability is that of educational objectives. When I think about some of my teaching experiences I realize that in many instances I had no preconceived idea of any goals and/or objectives I hoped the pupils would accomplish. Reading is a skills area, and skills can be measured. Therefore, it is appropriate to suggest that, as we teach pupils how to read and to read, we should think in terms of objectives. What skill am I trying to teach today? What is my purpose for today's lesson? Have I guided individuals to set their own purposes as my lesson plan is implemented? Accountability is not to be feared, but used to our advantage in an overall improvement of the educational process.

I would like to carry this an additional step further by relating accountability to my second issue—that of using reading achievement tests and tests of skills in pupil practice books as one means of determining pupil strengths and weaknesses. To illustrate this point I will use a class test profile sheet of the Betts Reading Achievement Tests (grade four). On the profile sheet, there is a color-code that the teacher has used to identify four levels of achievement: high superior, high average, average, below average. The third issue that can make a contribution to diagnostic and prescriptive teaching is a knowledge and understanding of reading levels. Early in the school year, good teachers will know the independent, instructional, frustration, and listening capacity levels of pupils in her class. In the past we have perpetuated reading problems by attempting to teach pupils how to read at a frustration reading level. It is my hope that you will incorporate within your teaching an understanding of reading levels and their implications for the teaching-learning process.

The fourth and final dimension that I want to emphasize I refer to as active vs. passive learning. I have found little or no documentation of this factor in teaching. Consider your own learning situation. Do you believe we learn by doing? Or do we learn from experiences? Both imply an active process.

Very few will question the value of real experiences over vicarious experiences. This is not to say that we don't recognize the value of vicarious experience in learning. These add up to a more active process in learning. Too often passive learning involves very little opportunity for interaction. Interaction between pupils and between teacher and pupil is important if learning is to be lasting. Passive learning involves too much individual "busy work" that often is unrelated to what the student has learned. Practice on a skill is necessary but we can over-practice a skill with some pupils.

To illustrate my point let me briefly describe a classroom that abounds

in the active learning process, giving pupils the opportunities to extend their knowledge through reading. I am thinking of a second-grade room where learning was organized in such a way that pupils developed skills, practiced skills, and established independence of choice under teacher guidance. The class was organized around centers of interests which included:

1. Book center—several books per child, a couple of small rocking chairs, and a carpet for atmosphere
2. Writing center—located in the room where pupils could write on the chalk board. There is lots of learning connected with chalk dust. The center also included good paper and new pencils with sharp points—a place where pupils can enjoy and practice the skill of writing their thoughts
3. Art center—an easel for wet art, clay and materials for dry art
4. Science center—a magnifying glass, magnets, batteries, copper wire, seeds, plants, home-shared science projects
5. Math center—games and concrete objects to use in developing mathematical concepts
6. Social studies center—a place to highlight the different social studies units

In closing I would like to stress another very important aspect of reading—this was brought out in the famous *Right To Read* project. The major emphasis in the decade of the 1970's is on the improvement of reading skills to raise reading levels. But we have as great a problem with pupils who know *how* to read but don't read as with pupils who have not fully developed their reading capacity.

In an excellent book entitled *The Endless Steppe: Growing Up in Siberia*, Esther Hautzig writes: "There was one place where I forgot the cold, indeed forgot Siberia. That was in the library. There in that muddy village, was a great institution . . . It was between that library and two extraordinary teachers that I developed a life long passion for the great Russian novelists and poets. It was there I learned to line up patiently for my turn to sit at a table and read, to wait sometimes months—for that special book. It was there I learned that *reading* was not only a great delight, but a privilege."

Creative Self-Expression as Both a Means and an End in Teaching Reading

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Introduction

The emergence of reading as a separate subject in the elementary school program has had damaging instructional effects, both on the development of skills of reading and on its use, since it tends to separate the reading process from the natural and spontaneous uses which children and adults make of language. Language is used by humans as a means to make reality from experience through processes of symbolization and as a means of sharing that experience with others.

When reading or, for that matter, when any of the components of the language arts is isolated and taught as a separate skill subject, achievement of certain "testable" skills becomes, in itself, the end of instruction, rather than being a means to an end. The desired end or goal of a reading program, most would agree, is not a child who can score at a specified competency level on an achievement test involving decoding skills, but a child who not only can, but does, read. And by "does read" there is the implication that the child is a user of literature, reaching through reading a level of personal response, which goes beyond simple decoding and literal comprehension in reacting to literature. Literature is used here to mean any form of written language from student-dictated experiences to fanciful stories, to factual material, to poetry, to the children's classics.

It is sad that the rigors of skill development in the reading process have led to a separation of reading from the uses of reading or literature and the uses of language. Nor, has this fragmentation in the language arts occurred only with reading. All too little relationship is seen by children, and perhaps their teachers, between skills of speaking, listening, reading, and writing and their uses in talk and drama and literature and composition.

In considering this problem, attention will be focused on the place of reading in a language program, both as an activity and as a skill. Consideration will be given to goals of instruction and the relationship of reading to the other language arts. Secondly, the use of creative self-expression will be explored as an avenue to overcome the detrimental effects of the skill syndrome in reading.

The Place of Reading in the Language Arts

In considering the basic goal of instruction in reading, the concept of literacy might well come to mind. Immediately a definitional problem arises. *Webster's Third New International* contains the following definitions of literacy:

> 1: the quality or state of being literate 2: an ability to read a short simple passage and answer questions about it. (*11*, p. 1321)

These definitions do not seem to incorporate the complex linguistic skills involved in the reading process which require mastery of the phonemic, syntactic, and semantic systems of language operating together in order to gain meaning through reading.

Nor does this definition consider the human purposes involved in the processes of language symbolization. This focus and a broader, more useful definition of literacy and its relationship to creativity is provided by David Holbrook in a paper from the Anglo-American Conference on the Teaching of English, or Dartmouth Seminar, entitled "Creativity in the English Programme." Holbrook says:

> "*Creativity cannot satisfactorily be introduced into an English program unless creativity is accepted as a basis of our approach to English teaching as an art. Effective English teaching, in that it has to do with the whole complex of language in our lives, has to do with the whole problem of the individual identity and how it develops. In this words are crucial, and so in English teaching we cannot separate words from the dynamics of personality, nor from the processes of symbolism by which human beings seek to deal with their inward life. . . . What we are concerned with in English, essentially, is literacy in its deepest and widest sense—the capacity to use words to deal with inner and outer experience.*" (5, pp.1,2)

This definition of literacy implies an ability to use language creatively and symbolically to organize and order experience both for self-understanding and to share with others. This symbolic representation might take place in thought, in oral form, or in written form, involving the child as either the creator or receiver of language; but, in every case, as a responder to it.

The use of the term "creative" here may also require explanation since

it is not used in the typical craft sense of the word, but as Dixon stated in an article entitled "Creative Expression in Great Britain" as "a way of building a personal world and giving an individual rather than a stereo-typed shape to our day-by-day experience" (2, p.797). In defining "creative" he said:

"Now if we want—as I do—to use the word 'creative' to suggest the process of making and fashioning things to stand for a world we experience, this is a telling observation . . . here at least is the opportunity to stress the fashioning, the act of finding and choosing anew from the infinite system of words what will come closest to experience as we meet it day by day." (2, p.795)

Thus, a major goal of the reading program as a part of the overall language program is that the child develop literacy, or the ability to use words creatively in both oral and written form to build a symbolic representation of the world as he experiences it both for purposes of self-understanding and for sharing with others. In using language to make reality from experience, the child may be in the role of speaker or writer, creating his own representation, or in the role of listener or reader, experiencing vicariously and discovering a personal meaning by responding to the world as another found it. If the latter modes are to be effective, the child must react rather than just accept the image of another.

In order to reach the level of response as a reader, linguistic maturity is required sufficient to handle the specific task. This fact requires that language growth be a major concern of an effective reading program. Here it is essential to emphasize the importance of having oral language experiences precede those in written language. In discussing verbal and cognitive growth James Moffett (7) states in his treatise, *Teaching the Universe of Discourse,* that language learning is a cognitive matter in which the major tasks are comprehending and composing, with reading and writing being mechanical operations.

In a language-centered reading program, then, oral language development to permit use of language for creative self-expression should precede formal reading instruction and continue as an integral part of it, using the natural language of the child. In John Dixon's report of the Dartmouth Seminar, he noted that linguistic barriers are often set up in teaching a child to read since "learning to read and write leaves the child alone with language in a way which differs from his previous experience" (3, p.17). Prior to this a child's language has been oral, social, and outer-directed. In using the written system, language which is silent, solitary, and non-directed is encountered. Beyond that the child may be encountering a style

or a dialect of language totally unfamiliar to him. If the child is a speaker of a dialect of English which differs from the standard English of the school, a linguistic switch is required of him. But he must, in any case, as he encounters the style of written English labelled as the frozen style by the linguist, Martin Joos (6). What a strange world the classroom must be for a child who first encounters the formal language of the classroom and of written English.

If language, either oral or written, is to be used by children for self-discovery, instruction must begin with the child's oral language and proceed to more formal and elaborate codes only as the child is ready, or as the new styles become *his* language. This means that use of, and given experiences in, the written language must be, in Dixon's terms, "preceded, accompanied, and followed by talk" (3, p. 17).

If skills of reading and reading as a viable language experience in the use of literature are to be meaningful and productive for children, our reading programs must begin with and be made up of experiences in talk and drama, listening, writing, and the use of literature as children both create a world as they see it and react to the world envisioned by others.

Creative Self-Expression as Both a Means and an End in Teaching Reading

Children's contact with language and literature begins through listening so it may be appropriate to begin consideration of activities involving creative self-expression which can be utilized in reading with discussion of listening experiences. Although listening, talk, drama, writing, and literature will be considered somewhat separately, their use should, as will be evident, be very interrelated in classroom activities since one mode of language creation on response is seldom, if ever, used in isolation.

Listening experiences should be a major part of a good language-reading program. Children should be exposed to both verbal and nonverbal forms of stimuli expressing aspects which are of importance in their lives. Experiences should be designed to provide sensory input which will enhance the child's perception of stimuli, which create a need to organize these perceptions in comprehending meaning, and which provide an opportunity for personal reaction in the form of verbal, motor, affective, or thought response.

The teacher might read or tell a story or children might listen to a story at the listening center, or through film or filmstrip and record. Tapes may be used which contain sounds from the child's environment or a series of sounds which tell a story. Poems such as those found in Mary O'Neill's *What Is That Sound!* (9) or *Hailstones and Halibut Bones* (8) which contain sensory impressions can be shared, as can musical input.

In each case, in preparing for the listening experience, a set for appreciative listening should be created which builds interest in the topic and invites children to visualize, hear, feel, touch, taste, smell, and enter in imaginatively. All too often our introduction to a listening experience promotes attentive listening and literal comprehension because we begin, for example when reading a chapter from a continued story, by asking specific recall questions concerning relatively minor details of the portions of the story already read and follow-up similarly. Our approach should, rather, stress personal feelings, anticipation, and description.

As a part of every listening experience of this type, opportunity for creative response should be provided. A wide variety of forms are suitable including thought, talk, drama, illustration or expression through various media, music, or writing. Stress should be on personal expression, of what the child saw, felt, heard, experienced, and what he thinks about it. To make this point, a distinction can be made between illustration and drawing a picture as a form of response. In the latter, literal comprehension, sequence, and specific detail may predominate over any personal synthesis and expression of self.

Talk in the classroom should be an important means of creative self-expression, but it often is not since there are frequently restrictions on either the dialect or style of language accepted or on the types of oral communication permitted. Question and answer and brief explanatory statements which involve mainly a literal recall may predominate. We might consider how often free talk, conversation, discussion, description, generalization, and speculation which call upon the full range of cognitive styles are found in elementary classrooms, especially in relation to topics about which children feel a need to explore and express. Such talk should be an integral part of language programs, preceding and accompanying uses of literature and the development of reading skills. Such experiences promote language growth of both syntactic and semantic components by providing for interaction and attempts to find words to express meanings. Only if talk relates to topics about which children need to express themselves and about which they have formed perceptions will this language growth occur as the child strives to generate language to say what he wants to say.

One way of capitalizing on talk as part of the reading program is found in the language experience approach in which children dictate as the teacher records their language for sharing purposes. While this approach has much merit, it often is less than effective when the outcome is the desire to get words on paper—or to create a chart to read back later—rather than providing an avenue for children to organize their perceptions, respond, and share ideas. Many charts found in professional books on this approach do not evidence literacy. They do not appear to be an outgrowth

of children's use of language to deal with inner and outer experiences in a human way.

Drama, as a companion of talk, is an important avenue for self-exploration and discovery since it involves the self physically and emotionally, as well as verbally and cognitively. In fact, nonverbal means of dramatic expression may be particularly appropriate. If drama is to serve as a form of creative self-expression, it must place children in roles and situations of importance to them either as Dorothy Heathcote says "to understand a social situation more thoroughly or to experience imaginatively via identification in social situations" (*4*, p.1077). Having experienced the use of language and self in exploration of an event, children can become much more responsive to the ideas of others whether shared dramatically or through literature. But if this is to happen, classroom drama must be spontaneous and self- or group-generated rather than being the literal interpretation of a known story or oral reading of a play found in the basal reader. If drama is to promote human and linguistic growth, it must serve the role of drama in life. To quote Douglas Barnes:

"The dramatic encounters and adjustments that constitute normal living become in the end part of us: we become what we are by doing what we do. What classroom drama can add to this normal process is partly a greater range of encounters, partly the freedom to experiment 'without paying reality's price,' and partly the enrichment offered by works of literature—the opportunity to make the author's voices temporarily our own." (*1*, p.14)

Opportunities to encounter a situation using one's own words, to explore the representation of another, or to react to or extend another's view can create personal and linguistic growth, develop full understanding of literature which has been shared, and create a need and desire for further reading activity.

Creative written expression provides an excellent avenue for self-exploration and expression in relation to topics of importance to children. While research on topics of significance is limited, it seems that children feel the need to express and share their ideas about the same topics that they enjoy reading about, making the relationship to the use of literature evident.

If writing is to serve purposes of self-discovery rather than craft, several cautions must be observed. First, sensory input is needed to heighten perceptions and create a need for personal reaction. The motivation might well include the use of literature, creative listening, talk, or drama.

Second, in writing, children must create their view of the world in relation to a significant topic. Writing a parallel story from one read in the

basal reader or mirroring a piece of literature used in motivation without need for self-expression may serve to reinforce vocabulary or promote use of a technique, but is detrimental in a meaningful language program since it imposes an assignment of tracing or patterning rather than using language for a legitimate human purpose.

Third, children must be expected to use their language and words as they create a representation of the world as they find it. Their writing will most surely be their informal oral language system put on paper either through dictation in the early grades or individual writing in later stages. To expect or promote use of the structure and system of written English is to expect the child to use a voice other than his own. Stress on use of mechanics or on technique or craft of creative expression including such things as the use of detail and descriptive words is to mute the child's voice and vision. Only if the teacher stimulates the student's awareness of detail through sensory input as a need is created for expression, can inclusion of such detail be viewed as self-expression.

In considering the use of literature a broad definition which includes children's work to be shared as well as the wide variety of forms of literature must be utilized. Our goal should be that children become users of literature in the full sense of the word. James Britton describes this in his Dartmouth Seminar paper, "Response to Literature." He states:

"*That a student should read* more books *with satisfaction may be set down as one objective; as a second, he should read books with* more satisfaction" (*10*, p.8).

It seems that greater satisfaction can only come about through uses of literature that meet human and personal needs.

In sharing literature in the classroom, three basic modes are used. One is the teacher reading to the children, frequently called oral literature. Selections should be of interest and significance to children. A set for appreciative listening and opportunity for response should be provided. Further reading on the theme or by the author might follow, as might dramatization, illustration, individual or group creative expression and sharing of results, or listening experiences.

A second mode is common reading which might include class or group reading in a developmental reading material or reading of a common selection by class members, followed by individual extensive reading on similar themes or genres. If such reading is to be a use of literature, the focus of discussions and follow-up activities must be on individual response over literary techniques, comprehension, or decoding skills.

A third important mode is individual reading by children, sometimes called free or recreational reading. It is important that time be scheduled for this type of reading as part of the reading-language program. Children will only become readers if appropriate books are available and if there is motivation for reading. Teachers will need to develop techniques to help children select the right book at the right time to meet their needs and interests. Opportunities for sharing and response must also be provided so that reading is not, unless the child wishes it to be, a solitary inward activity. Individual conferences, book conversations in small groups, and dramatization can be viable modes of response. The typical book report or book log which focus on quantity and comprehension do not serve this function.

Only when a child feels the excitement of finding himself in a book, of exploring an unknown world, or understanding an event of significance, will the activity of reading and the use of literature become one for that child.

Conclusion

In summarizing consideration of the use of creative self-expression as both a means and an end in teaching reading, it may be helpful to reflect on this statement of the Dartmouth Study Group on Response to Literature: *The rewards of reading must, as soon as possible, be made the same as, or at least akin to the rewards of other uses of language. What is being read must arouse curiosity and not merely be an adult approved activity* (*10*, p.70).

By including the teaching of the skills of reading with experiences involving uses for language and literature, need for many skills will become apparent, meaningful, and acceptable to the child although it may be that the linguistic and personal growth resulting from these forms of self-expression will preclude the need for instruction and drill in many skills which we are now teaching.

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Creative Reading Activities

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Whenever the word "creative" appears, reactions seem to vary. Some people feel woefully lacking in the area, while others seem to bubble with ideas! Why the big difference? Varied backgrounds of experience. Everyone is creative to a varying degree. As any other skill or talent, creativity must be cultivated or stimulated in order to grow. This, then, is the first major topic of this article: preparing an environment conducive to creativity.

The author often asks her perspective teachers to put themselves as much as possible into the shoes of the youngsters they are soon to meet, to try to see things from the perspective of the children. To prepare an environment conducive to creativity a teacher needs ideas to draw from. Our market today and our professional magazines abound with ideas. Therefore, it is just a matter of picking, choosing, sorting out, and organizing. A lot of work, you say? Yes, but well worth the effort if you hope to create a climate for creativity. Growth doesn't occur in a vacuum; it needs vital stimulants.

No matter what wealth of ideas the teacher has to draw from, if she can't implement them, they are of no use. The climate to strive for is one which is non-threatening and warm. The child must be free of fear of making mistakes and the fear that his peers will laugh at him. To develop this atmosphere takes time and patience, depending on the background of the individual students and their prior experiences in creative activity. In other words, it will not be accomplished overnight.

The teacher must be empathetic, warm, understanding, and accepting. If the problem of "peer laughing at peer" occurs, discuss this. Handle each situation as it comes up. But once the non-threatening climate is created—full steam ahead.

Steps leading to this goal are not only determined by the teacher but the physical layout of the individual classroom or the school. If you are situated in a self-contained classroom, you can do wonders by a little shuffling around here and there of the room's furniture. A library or reading center is almost a must. Create one if at all feasible. Cart in an old overstuffed chair or rocker. Have pillows for children to sit on. Create a window seat if possible. Use old packing crates to devise isolation booths, perhaps designing them according to the interests of your children (space ship, tree house, race car . . .). Better yet, plan and do it with your students. It is their room too.

Use of various audiovisual material can also lend to creating a healthful learning climate. By the medium of a puppet stage and a puppet, a shy withdrawn child may "blossom out"—after all, it's the *puppet*, not the child that is verbalizing. Using the aid of a tape recorder, record player, overhead projector, or slides also adds a special dimension to the reading or presentation of a story or book report. With these things readily available and being used by the teacher, the students will be apt to use them. Anything they see the teacher doing, they ache to try. Now that the scene is set, various activities can take place. Some activities will utilize special equipment, others will be able to be implemented without this aid. But all will be conducted in a relaxed non-threatening atmosphere.

The following is a list of sources from which the author draws many of her ideas: her personal files and experiences, the series of idea books put out by the Educational Service, Inc., *Instructor* magazine, Maurec Applegate's "Cupboard of Ideas" in her book *Easy in English*, former teaching colleagues, and schools visited in which student teachers and interim students are working.

One specific idea is play acting. Most experienced teachers do this automatically throughout the year. Putting on plays can vary from simple "role playing" to mini-productions of a group's favorite story in the basal reader's unit, a supplementary book, or a children's literature (library) book. Children love this activity. After all, they have been doing it most of their lives. Puppet plays and radio plays with sound effects can be ably conducted by primary children. Any chance to work with "AV" materials "like the teacher" has tremendous appeal for some children.

Another idea is to report on extra reading through the media of dioramas, murals, paper movies, paper maché, drawings, tape recorder, or one-to-one conference with the teacher. Have a special book reporting day with those "wanting to," reporting to their fellow students in interest groups; or they may like to go down to a lower grade and share their reports with them.

Since reading *is* working with words, a teacher can set up many inde-

pendent activities, as well as group activities, in interest centers. He or she can compile various activities which reinforce whatever activity the children have been working on, putting the activities into envelopes (or learning packets, if you like the term) and organizing them into easily accessible files (example: sturdy cardboard boxes with dividers, big milk cartons stapled together, plastic containers, coffee cans, etc.). Once activities are set up the children can work on them at will. Some (mostly to aid the teacher) can be constructed to be self-checked by the student. Some abler students could rotate as "checker-uppers." They'll enjoy doing it if it doesn't interfere with their own interests and learning.

A classroom newspaper has many creative values as well as formal learning benefits. In the early primary grades a lot of the transferring from original work onto dittos to be run off will need to be done by the teacher or an aide, but with growth in independence the students can gradually take over the transference process. The newspaper can contain original poems, stories, drawings, etc. by the students. Reports of various class doings, favorite jokes and riddles, want ad column, and a letter from the teacher can be other entries. (The writer will share an example which her third grade class in Des Moines did.) Each edition sent out by the room should be sure to include some contribution from each child.

The use of the "Magic Word Box" is another item that can be implemented in the classroom newspaper—usually done at odd moments of the day. The box can take various forms. The writer used a light-colored construction paper and covered a shoe box. On it would be written "Magic Word Box" plus some magic words like, "What if . . .," "I'd like . . .," "As . . . as . . .," "I feel . . .." Slips of paper would be put into the box with various phrases. Children take turns drawing a slip out. Then the children would either finish the phrase orally or on paper. (This can be a good psychological release as well as creative as some phrase examples could be "I hate school because . . .," "I don't like grownups because . . .," or some worded positively.)

Use of games, either company-manufactured or teacher-made, is another dimension. These can be used very creatively. When one starts naming creative reading activities, it is hard to stop. At first it may be difficult to get the ball rolling but once it is, one may be surprised at what can result when one's imagination starts going. As stated before, our professional magazines are full of ideas, *but* don't overlook your nearest resource—your children. Once they get the idea of ideas, challenge them to come up with some of their own. If you don't ask them, some will voluntarily come up with "the idea."

So have fun with your children and words!

Organizing a Classroom for Reading Instruction

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Most teachers are committed to the common goal of providing for individual differences in reading. However, this goal is usually only approached. It is seldom, if ever, realized in a typical classroom of 25 to 30 students. In classrooms where the classroom teacher must assume the total responsibility for the reading development of his students, it is imperative that he plan ways he can organize and reorganize his classroom so as to accommodate individual needs as they arise. Flexible grouping patterns are very effective when managed well and when they evolve from a meaningful base such as the reading lesson. Without such a base, the reading instruction becomes sheer gimmickry and a series of unrelated activities. Flexible grouping patterns help a teacher provide for individual differences in a most effective and efficient manner. Word recognition is but one part of the total reading process. To discuss how one might organize the instruction in word recognition without relating it to the total reading act seems disconnected and futile. Therefore, this paper will consider 1) the part word recognition plays in the total reading process, 2) what constitutes a reading lesson, 3) ways a teacher can use grouping patterns to accommodate individual needs, and 4) how the design of the reading lesson can provide the basis for organizing the reading instruction in a classroom.

What is the role of word recognition in the total reading process?
Probably no one will argue that learning to recognize words well is a first step toward becoming a good reader. It must be pointed out, however, that an overemphasis on word recognition skills at the outset may actually "turn off" more potentially good readers than it "turns on." When a child is confronted day after day with only boring, uninteresting word lists, phonics drills, skill exercises, worksheets, and no stories, it should come as

no surpirse that this child should decide that learning to read is not worth the effort. It is important then to safeguard the story, to insist that word recognition skills, while very important, do not monopolize the total reading program for beginners or for remedial students. Verbalizers, or word-callers, constitute a daily threat, especially at these beginning reading stages. It is difficult to convince a student that understanding is also a part of reading after he has once become successful at pronouncing words and has not been held accountable for meaning.

What constitutes a reading lesson?

A reading lesson is a diagnostic experience. It helps a teacher find out who needs what so he can prescribe instruction according to assessed needs. No child comes to school without a number of experiences, without language, or without some kind of exposure to print; yet each varies in number and type. A teacher's job is to assess daily a child's development and the degree of success he experiences with assigned tasks. The teacher then determines needs, and proceeds to set up learning experiences to fill in the gaps. Time is too valuable and the children's needs are too great to teach everything to every child. The reading lesson sets the stage for individualization and grouping.

The reading lesson, then, is a sampling of how well a student or group of students can read a particular kind of reading material and perform a particular kind of task. For this reason, it is important that children be taught to read different kinds of materials such as literature books, story-books, and other types of narrative materials; textbooks of various kinds; newspapers and magazines; signs, maps, and graphs; and various kinds of reference books. It is likewise important that children be given many opportunities to use reading in various ways and to perform different kinds of tasks varying in difficulty but commensurate with their respective reading abilties. If a teacher wishes to know how well a student reads a particular kind of material, he need only try him in the material and ask him to perform a certain type of task. The reading lesson helps a teacher structure these kinds of experiences.

How does a teacher use grouping to help individualize instruction?

Let us assume that we have identified eight or ten students who work at about the same pace and are at about the same general reading level. This is to say they are at about the same stage in the word recognition skill sequence. Since word recognition skills are about the only reading skills that have a sequence of one skill building on earlier skills, it makes a good basis on which to make one's first rough grouping. One must assume, how-

ever, that within this rough grouping based on the students' general ability to recognize words, the reading profiles of the eight or ten students will vary considerably in the various word recognition subskills and even more in the comprehension skills, oral reading competencies, and study skills. Grouping patterns, then, should be flexible. They should be based upon the specific needs discovered in the daily lesson as well as the more long-range diagnoses resulting from the word recognition skills assessment mentioned earlier. That is, a student is grouped for a particular reason and he knows why he is there and what he must do before he is regrouped. Few students object to being grouped in this manner. It likewise provides opportunities for the teacher to carry each skill to the mastery level and with only the student who needs the work. Sometimes another classmate or an aide can help a student reach the mastery level of a specific skill. In this type of flexible grouping arrangement, the teacher is free to control the size and makeup of the groups and can vary the learning tasks. This is not to say that each child will be programmed individually. Rather, he will at one time be grouped with one group of students to do a particular task and at another time be grouped with another group of students for an entirely different task. Contrast this with all students in a third-grade class receiving instruction in the same third-grade book and doing the same workbook pages with no attempt to determine needs beforehand. Flexible grouping permits teachers to group students in various ways. They may be grouped according to *interests* where the best reader and poorest reader may work side by side; by specific *skills* such as syllabication where only a few students work together and for only a few lessons; or by *projects* where each may volunteer to work on a particular project and thus compete equally with others in the group.

Groups should be kept as small as possible and perhaps should rarely exceed twelve to fifteen students. Group size depends upon the capabilities of the respective students and their ability to work independent of the teacher. Groups of over fifteen are a grossly inefficient means of involving students even for the best readers of a class. Since one learns to read by reading—not by listening—it is important that each child participate actively. Letting eager George answer all the questions, do the oral reading, etc., scarcely contributes to shy Susan's reading development. Daydreamers, slow thinkers, and sometimes even poor decoders may go undiscovered in a large group. Certainly they are not helped much by listening to a good reader practice. The reading lesson, then, serves as a sorting process where students with a particular reading deficiency can be discovered and helped immediately before mass confusion takes over and a complete reading breakdown occurs.

What are the steps in a directed reading lesson?
Step One: Preparation

This is the stage where the teacher probes to find out what is known about the topic and helps his students "tune in on the same wave length." It is the stage where the teacher predicts which key vocabulary words may cause trouble for a particular student and helps him bring the appropriate interpretation to the page. It is also the stage where the teacher sets the direction he wants his students to take by asking a relevant, purpose-setting question. Perhaps Step One is the most important stage for the teacher and deserves the most careful planning. If the students don't do well in the remaining stages of the lesson, perhaps it is because the teacher failed to provide background information the student needed to understand the selection, misjudged the student's ability to select an appropriate meaning to fit the context, or failed to set a purpose which was meaningful to him.

Background. In some instances and particularly for able readers with rich backgrounds of experience and language, this may be handled through a probing question such as "What do you know about a helicopter?" In other cases and particularly for students who lack rich experiences, a more direct teaching role must be taken. For example, the teacher might tell of his own experiences, read an excerpt from a book or an encyclopedia, show a model, a filmstrip, or a picture of a helicopter—just enough to "tune everybody in," to whet their curiosity, and to encourage them to use information they already have stored about helicopters but may fail to recall if this transfer is assumed rather than pursued.

As the teacher works with his students, he gets ideas for a particular group of students who lack background. He may only jot down names at this time and later set up a station in the room and assign these students to do certain tasks, view certain filmstrips, read a book, etc., to enrich their background in this area.

This is the first opportunity in the reading lesson to diagnose needs, establish a particular group, and prescribe a particular learning task. In some instances, it may be necessary to enrich the background of all eight or ten members of the group before proceeding further in the lesson. It would be impractical to proceed further into the lesson until a basic understanding has been developed since verbalism—meaningless word-calling—would probably result. *Background* is a prerequisite or first step to successful word recognition and should be provided for needy students through the classroom organization patterns referred to earlier.

Vocabulary Concepts. At this stage we are interested in clarifying the

meaning of any vocabulary words that are necessary for the understanding of the selection. This is not a word pronunciation exercise. It is important that the students see or hear the words in context before they are asked to pronounce them in isolation. Since the context provides the most effective clue to word recognition, care should be taken to insure that students do use the context first and then verify their educated guesses by using phonic and structural and other word recognition skills as needed. The object is to trigger the meaning as quickly as possible. If it is determined that additional word recognition skills are needed, they should be provided for in the skill building stage (Step Three) of the lesson and not at this point. We do not want to delay the reading of the selection any more than is absolutely necessary. No attempt is made at this point to teach each new word, only those crucial to the understanding of the selection. Decodable words which are not crucial to the understanding of the selection should be left for the student to decode on his own—to use the context clues and the other skills he has been learning. If the teacher has been successful in predicting and presenting the troublesome concepts and in filling in the needed background information, the word recognition difficulties should be minimized. The point being made here is that if meaning remains uppermost, that if the reader is in tune with what the author is saying, he will need only a minimum of word dissection. On the other hand, if word pronunciation is conducted without reference to context, the child's time is spent memorizing phonic rules and generalizations only to find that they don't fit our language and he must now learn the exceptions. He gets lost in a sea of words and misses out on the story—the exciting part of reading. For some few students, a highly structured, multisensory approach may be necessary, but even in these cases, the meaning must remain uppermost if one ever hopes to develop readers who can read effectively and efficiently and who love to read. We must be careful that we don't drown students in a "sea of words" so they can't see where they are going and even lose their initial interest in getting there.

As the teacher works through this stage of the lesson, he will determine if any students have particular skill needs related to vocabulary. He may decide to prescribe a certain activity for three or four students at some later time, or he may decide to spend some of the next skill building lessons with the entire group on vocabulary development. Again, flexible grouping patterns based on diagnosed needs are a natural follow-up.

Purpose. The purpose-setting question can be considered the pivotal point of the lesson and is perhaps the most important part. The purpose-setting question is crucial. It determines how fast one will want to read the material; it determines the level of thinking one must do while reading and

after reading; it is directly related to the follow-up activities one can expect to do after reading; and it is perhaps the greatest deterrent to mind-wandering and meaningless word-calling during silent reading.

Since comprehension skills progress from shallow (literal) levels to deep (evaluative or critical) levels, it is through the purpose-setting question that the teacher can vary the depth and the rate of reading.

At the beginning reading stages, the teacher usually assumes the responsibility for setting the purpose for reading, but at some time during the upper elementary school years, the student should begin, with the help of the teacher, to set his own purposes for reading. Since the long-range goal is to develop flexible readers—readers who can read fast when they need to read fast or to read slowly and thoughtfully reflecting upon what they read when needs dictate a slow rate, it is important that a well-planned purpose-setting question be a part of every lesson.

Let us examine some kinds of purpose-setting questions and how they influence the way one would read that selection:

1. "Read the story to find out where the story took place and who the characters were." This is a superficial, literal level of comprehension question, but it is important if one is thinking about putting the story into a play. It presupposes a fast rate of reading and would probably be best used as a rereading purpose rather than one for a first-time reading.

2. "As you read the story, be thinking why Jip stood motionless on the edge of the ravine." This is an interpretive-level purpose and requires more thought and a slower rate than the literal level. A student is forced to use his understanding of the events in the story and his own experience to answer it.

3. "Read and be ready to discuss how this story is different from the one we read yesterday." This is an evaluative-level purpose and demands a slow, reflective type of reading—even rereading at times. It may be followed with a writing activity listing the ways the two stories are different, or these ideas might be shared orally through a discussion.

4. "Read the story pretending you were the orphan boy and be ready to tell how you would want the story to end." This demands a creative response and would probably be followed by an oral sharing of endings, a written ending, or even an art activity with crayons or chalk.

The purpose-setting question is perhaps more directly related to the comprehension and interpretation of the selection than to the word recognition skills. However, for students who decode well but lack understand-

ing, corrective teaching at this point regarding the use of the purpose-setting question can improve vocabulary a great deal, especially in the upper grades.

Step Two: Read and Reread

While the students are reading silently to find the answers to the purpose-setting question, the teacher should be observing their efficiency. He should be alerted to the mind-wanderers and help them "tune in" again to the purpose-setting question. He will note lip movements, unusually slow or fast rates, and other habits which he will want to deal with later on an individual or small-group basis. He may also want to keep a checklist of each student's silent reading habits to use in a teacher-pupil conference or to pass on to a remedial teacher if one is available.

During the rereading and discussion stages, the purpose-setting question is discussed, related ideas are explored, and vocabulary concepts which were presented earlier are discussed in more detail. At this point, oral reading can begin in order to prove a point, to read a favorite part, to share a description, to answer a specific question, to review the author's point of view, etc. It goes without saying that no student should be asked to read something aloud that he has not first read silently. "Off the cuff" oral reading is perhaps the worst practice that has ever crept into our reading classrooms, as it forces the child to function at a word-calling level when, in fact, the real purpose of oral reading is to interpret meaning, and this can be done most effectively after the meaning has first been obtained from silent reading. This is even more important for problem readers since their eye-voice span has not developed to the point of the good readers. Unfortunately, however, it is the poor student who is called upon most often to read without advance preparation.

During Step Two, the teacher is collecting information to use in later lessons or perhaps in later stages of this lesson. Some teachers use class checklists to record the problems they note during this stage and others prefer a checklist for each individual, a small notebook or a 4″ x 6″ card on which they record oral reading errors. For example, when a student reads a sentence or paragraph aloud as described earlier, the teacher writes the word he mispronounced—what he said and what he should have said —along with omissions and punctuation errors. He also makes any other significant notes he will want to have for his planning time. These serve as a basis for the skill building lessons, drill work, review, or remedial help in future lessons. A teacher need only call off the names of the students having similar problems and say, "I noticed you've been having some problems with words of more than one syllable so I prepared this lesson for you." When a teacher has learned to manage a flexible grouping class-

room arrangement, this diagnostic-prescriptive type of teaching is a natural outgrowth.

Step Three: Skill Building and Extension

At this stage, the teacher teaches what the students need to know. It might be the time when he introduces a new skill to the entire group, even the entire class, or he might select only a few students to work with directly on a specific skill while he puts the others to work on a drill-type activity or directs them to continue with a long-range project which had been set up at some earlier lesson, perhaps at the beginning of the unit. At this time, a teacher's organizational ability comes into full play. The limit of activities which might be going on during this stage of the lesson is limited only by the teacher's ability to organize activities and to manage students. Many teachers accomplish this feat through self-correcting exercises, using manipulative type games and bulletin boards and progress charts, stations with tape-recorded instructions on cassettes, teacher aides, buddy systems of students helping students, long-range projects, etc. That is, there are always several things available that a student can do on his own so that the teacher is free to circulate or to work with a small group of students. Some teachers prefer to have one group of students working independently on skills while he works through Steps One and Two with another group. This is a part of classroom management and demands careful planning of all classroom reading experiences. The trend is away from a deluge of ditto sheets and toward a variety of meaningful activities which are usually a natural follow-up of what happened in Steps One and Two.

Step Four: Follow-Up

This is the "fun stage" of the reading lesson—the part that makes it all seem worthwhile. No reader, no matter how poor a reader he may be, should be deprived of this stage. He would probably be involved in fewer activities than the good reader but would do some type of follow-up activity for each lesson. That is, all readers participate in each of the four stages of the lesson, but the less able readers usually spend more time on Steps One through Three, and the able readers spend more time with Steps Two and Four. Once the range of differences in the class is known and the teacher begins to have an in-depth understanding of each student's reading abilities, there are limitless opportunities for cross-group grouping within the class to accommodate specific skill needs. However, an inexperienced teacher should be discouraged from attempting this type of cross-group grouping pattern until he has mastered sub-grouping within respective groups to accommodate individual needs. This pulling from several groups to accommodate specific skill needs of individuals requires a high level of organizational ability in a teacher if he is to manage all of

the activities which result. Classroom discipline and control frequently break down if the teacher rushes into this type of cross-group grouping too soon.

At Step Four, the teacher can see how well the student applies what he has been learning. While the students are absorbed in these enjoyable activities, the teacher can observe and take notes concerning the degree of proficiency at which the students are working. Since the true test of one's teaching occurs when the student doesn't realize he is being observed, the teacher can decide what needs to be retaught, what merely needs further practice, which students are having undue difficulty and need immediate assistance, and which ones need an added, more in-depth challenge. This transfer of learning stage is an important part of the lesson and cannot be left to chance. The teacher gets many cues for future lessons. Therefore, the activities should be as realistic as possible. It may be desirable to use the content of another subject such as social studies or science to practice the skill. Or, one may want to take the entire class to the library to see which skills are being used habitually, and to observe the point of breakdown when a student tries to locate information independently. Perhaps he doesn't know how to use the card catalog, perhaps he can find the book but can't locate information within the book, or perhaps he can't decide which bits of information to pull from the book for his own particular purpose.

As one plans the type of activity to include at this stage, it is a good idea to vary the way the children will respond. For example, think of the selection, think of the needs of the students and select an activity which will accomplish a purpose you have for the students. Make a special effort to sample activities from the various language arts areas or even from art, music, or physical education when appropriate. This potpourri of activities is more desirable than an overuse of one type of response. You might decide on a *Speaking Activity* (giving a choral reading, an oral report, a radio or TV show); a *Reading Activity* (reading other books by an author, gathering more information on a topic); a *Writing Activity* (writing a different ending to a story, writing a poem or a play, writing a summary or an outline); a *Listening Activity* (reading some directions for playing a game asking the students to pantomime the steps, reading a description asking the students to draw what they heard, asking one student to prepare a selection or a book to read aloud according to some prescribed rules for the listeners to follow); a *Dramatic Activity* (putting on a puppet show or a play); or an *Art Activity* (constructing a diorama to illustrate a story setting or drawing apicture of how they would like the story to end). Again, not all students need be involved with the same activity. Sometimes the teacher prefers to set the limits by asking them to

choose one of three, and at other times he prefers free choice and works out what to do through teacher-pupil planning. From the beginning of the school year, students should be encouraged to pursue their own personal reading, and a plan should be instituted whereby students can record what they are reading and share periodically what they are doing, sometimes with the teacher only and at other times with the entire group or class. Personal reading should be ongoing and not result in a mad rush to read a book when book reporting time rolls around. Step Four is a good place to accommodate class or group projects designed to promote personal reading.

Pacing in a reading lesson is quite important. The four steps described above will vary considerably in the amount of time it takes to complete the cycle of activities which comprise the reading lesson. It is possible to complete the cycle in one reading period with a group of good readers, and with a selection that has few branching opportunities, but this would happen very rarely. It is most important that teachers try to pace the learning of the respective groups of students so they are mildly challenged but successful and are highly motivated and interested. One would never exhaust all of the opportunities a lesson provides nor attempt to explore all of the skill needs discovered in a particular lesson. The trick is to move on to something else just before interest wanes. The skills can be carried from lesson to lesson and reinforced along the way through drill-type activities, games, manipulative devices, self-checking exercises, and other types of supplementary activities.

Summary

As pointed out earlier in this paper, organizing a classroom for instruction is a means to an end and not an end in and of itself. Some schools prefer to establish schoolwide grouping patterns. They may decide to group homogeneously (high, average and low sections per grade); to group only for reading (high, average, low reading groups); or to operate as a nongraded primary school (to group according to reading ability across grade levels). Whatever the administrative grouping pattern a school chooses to pursue and with all of the problems this type of pregrouping procedure produces (strict time schedules, parent conferences, decisions, moving students from group to group, coordinating reading skills with other subject areas, communicating skill needs of respective students to the other teachers, etc.), the fact remains that only the beginning step has been taken. The teacher must still organize his classroom to teach his particular students. For his classroom, the steps of the reading lesson described in this paper are now pertinent. With the four steps of the reading lesson firmly in mind and serving as a base from which all other activities evolve, the

teacher is able to teach diagnostically while prescribing instruction for groups and for individuals as needs dictate. He is freed from the treadmill of covering books and from ritualistically programming reading lessons from the teacher's manual within a 20 to 30 minute time block per group. The teacher is no longer an automaton but is actively engaged in the learning experiences of each child. While it may be harder to teach in this manner, the rewards are usually greater and the work more gratifyng. Organizing a classroom for instruction is the key to providing for individual differences in word recognition as well as for the many other reading skills and abilities which comprise the total reading act.

Utilizing Pupil Tutors to Individualize Primary Reading Instruction

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A certain amount of individualization of instruction is undoubtedly the key to successful and efficient learning. Certainly a given child may require much more in terms of the necessary kind and amount of practice to fix a skill. The following is a discussion of two ways that may provide for the necessary level of individualization by utilizing children as helpers or tutors.

In a recent project in which the author was involved, Title I money was used to run a pilot project on cross-age tutoring. That is, older students were recruited and trained to tutor younger children in reading. The tutors were Title I seventh graders that exhibited some reading difficulties. They tutored first grade children who found it difficult to learn words and phoneme-grapheme relationships. The tutoring sessions followed the teaching of a selection or a phonic element by the teachers. The tutor was scheduled daily to work with the child in the first-grade classroom for from 15 to 30 minutes.

The program from its inception was fraught with problems that threatened to wreck it before anything could be accomplished. The most pressing one was that the teachers did not know how to direct the program efficiently. Some had to spend so much time instructing tutors that they could have saved time by doing the tutoring themselves. Others had assignments that were so vague that the tutor did not know what he was to do. In some cases the two or three tutors assigned to each first grade classroom were definite distractors.

It seemed apparent that if the project was to run more than a week, some people had to be helped in a hurry. Training and discussion sessions were started immediately by the reading resource teacher and a consultant. It was found that the teachers needed help in the following areas:

1. Developing means of having materials and assignments ready and available for the tutor when he came in
2. Relating tutorial sessions to the lesson just taught through several kinds of activities
3. Providing a spaced review system so tutors would have a structured way of reviewing with the pupil
4. Keeping assignments within time period and pupil- and tutor-set goals
5. Helping tutor and pupil chart or show progress from one day to another
6. Helping tutors develop techniques of motivating pupils (especially positive reinforcement)
7. Providing very specific tasks for tutors
8. Teaching the tutors to make flashcards using the particular manuscript form the pupil recognized
9. Providing the necessary level of positive reinforcement to maintain enthusiasm and a conscientious attitude on the part of the tutors

Through discussions with the involved teachers, assistance by the resource teacher in the classroom and trial and error solutions were arrived at for the above problems efficiently enough to provide direction and impetus for the program. The solutions arrived at as they relate to the areas of teacher need are as follows:

1. After using several different systems, the teachers found that the most efficient way for them to get materials and the tutors together was to provide a box with the tutor's name on it. The tutor's assignment, flash cards, scissors, tag board, felt tip pen, word lists, games, worksheets, or whatever was required was placed in the box so the tutor need only pick up his box and go directly to the area in which he was to work. The teacher could quickly check the kinds of activities on the checklist and include the necessary items and all that was needed by the tutors was ready in a couple of minutes.

2. The kinds of activities these tutors could direct the children in were identified first in teacher discussion then tried out in the classroom. Bear in mind now that these tasks are of a repetitive practice nature over material already taught by the teacher. The kinds of tasks tutors learned to direct were as follows:

A. Oral reading
B. Flash card drill
C. Practice relating letter name to form
D. Practice writing letters as named (tracing, copying, or recalling)
E. Helping child place pictures he had cut out of catalog under correct beginning sound
F. Doing echoic reading (the tutor reads a sentence first and it is echoed

by the pupil, then reread orally by the pupil)

G. Auditory discrimination practice (e.g., tutor reads a list of words and pupil writes or names beginning phonic element)

H. Assisting child with practice exercises or worksheets in phonics, using context or word configuration

I. Making flash cards of words pupils miss in oral reading

J. Assisting child with commercial or teacher-made games or technique in any word recognition skill

3. In working out an assignment chart or sheet a review section needs to be included so that when the teacher assigns practice on some works or a phonic element on a given day, she will automatically mark a review to be accomplished the next day and several days hence. The word cards or practice materials needed for the review would then automatically be placed in the tutor's box on that day.

4. For the 15- to 30-minute tutoring period, the teachers soon learned to provide a place on the assignment sheet for the tutor to check the results of the tutoring session. Following a session then the tutor would check an appropriate category on the assignment sheet such as:

A. Completed whole assignment

B. Completed only these tasks checked

C. Pupil needs more practice on tasks checked in red

Several different kinds of simple ways to record the tutor reaction were used efficiently by various teachers, but they all were successful in helping the teacher evaluate the amount of work assigned for each session.

5. The teachers selected from numerous examples of charts and graphs that were available for use with the tutors. Most of them found that a simple cumulative graph noting the number of words, letters, phonic elements, etc. learned provided the necessary information and motivation for pupil, tutor, and teacher.

6. When the program was begun, it was assumed that the tutors, exhibiting great need for positive reinforcement themselves, would lavish praise and support on their young charges when they performed. Such was not the case; it was possible early in the program to observe a tutorial session run for 20 minutes with little or no positive statements of praise and acclaim being made by the tutor. It was necessary for the resource teacher to meet frequently for very short periods of time to give lots of praise and support to the tutors and then briefly point out how important this was to their charges. This was found to accomplish the desired results, but this is one of the kinds of things that the classroom teachers did not have time for.

7. Once a checklist was developed for the quick completion of an assignment for tutors after teaching a lesson, the problem of providing very specific tasks for tutors disappeared because most kinds of tasks were listed. This then required only a check mark on the kind of task with the page numbers, word list, or phonic element written in.

8. The skills the tutors needed to develop to make flash cards and other teaching aids when required had to be developed as the reading resources teacher worked with the tutors for rather frequent, short sessions early in the program. The teachers just could not make the necessary time available. It, of course, proved so much more efficient anyway for one teacher (the resource teacher) to deal with larger groups of tutors.

9. During the time the tutors are in the classroom, the teacher is usually fully occupied. It is normally not possible for the teacher to observe the tutoring session and provide suggestions and positive reinforcement for the tutor. Early in the program, then, it is essential for a resource teacher or someone to do this. Even when the tutors were paid, they did not really function efficiently and conscientiously until they were given a lot of feedback by an observer as to the great service the tutor was rendering and how much good he was doing. This feedback was given in both individual and group-type sessions. The group-type discussion, instruction, and reinforcement session proved to all involved to be more effective than individual sessions. The kind of training provided by the reading resource teacher for the tutors that seemed to be most useful is listed as follows:

1) How to handle oral reading
   a. How to record errors
   b. When to supply an unknown word
   c. When to help a child sound a word out
   d. When to ask comprehension questions
   e. When to do echoic reading
   f. When to stop a frustrating performance
   g. How to direct phrasing, inflection, and enunciation

2) Flash card drill techniques
   a. Let pupil ask tutor the words until reviewed
   b. Then the tutor flashes the words with a flick of the wrist to insure quick recognition
   c. Show tutor how to put cards practiced today in tomorrow's review pack
   d. Discuss with tutors symptoms of fatigue and boredom so they don't run the technique into the ground
   e. Help tutors evaluate performance and recognize the mastery level

f. Show tutors how to have pupils trace or write the word to involve the kinesthetic sense if necessary (involve paper and pencil, blackboard, clay, and sand tray)

3) How to provide practice in relating letter forms and names (use above techniques)

4) How to help child relate sounds and phonic elements as pupil cuts pictures out of catalog and places in proper category as he writes the elements and pronounces the sound

5) How and when to use echoic reading technique
   a. When oral reading is frustrating pupil use echoic technique
   b. Read phrase, sentence, or more—whatever pupil can echo and have pupil follow and echo
   c. Continue performance for page or selection
   d. When finished, have pupil reread whole selection orally

6) How to provide practice in auditory discrimination
   a. Given list of words
   b. Tutor reads words orally
   c. Pupil responds as to whether words contains noted phonic element or else names the phonic element that produces noted sound

7) How to assist pupil with worksheet or practice materials without doing too much for the pupil

8) How to make flash cards for words frequently confused
   a. Use the manuscript form taught in the system (provide necessary level of practices)
   b. Use felt tip pen, crayon, or pencil on substantial paper
   c. Have pupil make his own set to take home (if recommended by teacher)

9) How to play the games they will be expected to use

The tutor training program, it was found, had to be accomplished by someone well trained in reading other than the classroom teachers. Once this was accomplished and the teachers had been given the assistance as noted above, everyone was enthusiastic and results were gratifying. Significantly greater gains in measured reading skills were noted in the tutor and pupil population that were involved in the program than of their peers at about the same level of development.

On a simple subjective measure of the attitudes and self-concepts of the pupils and tutors reported by their teachers, the improvement on pre- and post-measures were considerable. Both the tutor and the pupils gained

greatly from the interpersonal ramifications of the pupil-tutor relationship. It is not possible to deal with that kind of data on a strictly statistical basis. The tutors' and pupils' self-concepts, for example, improved so markedly that their teachers frequently remarked on the degree, suddeness, and positiveness of the change.

This kind of a program can provide fabulous results in many areas where teachers seek gains, but it must be organized, directed, supported, and coordinated by a well-trained reading resource teacher or someone with the qualifications, background, and personality that can work well with all the people involved. If all of this is left to the classroom teacher, only a few will demonstrate the necessary skill, insight, knowledge, and drive to make it work well. For all the rest, it will likely become an area they wish to avoid in conversation or discussion.

A Personalized Reading Program for the Intermediate Grades

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Introduction

What elementary teacher has not heard the exhortation to adjust to the individual needs of his children? Is there a textbook about reading instruction that does not admonish its readers to consider the necessity of adjusting to individual differences? This basic, but time-worn principle of elementary education probably has been responsible for many of the good things we can say about our elementary schools. We all know our schools are not good enough, however, and we must renew our efforts especially in adjusting to individual differences.

Currently, much is being written and said concerning individualized instruction, and we have all heard much about an organizational scheme entitled "Individualized Reading." The labeling of these programs appears to be a misnomer because the word "individualized" as applied to instruction implies a tutorial relationship between a teacher and a child.

"Personalization of instruction" appeals to the author as more appropriate terminology for what we have been calling individualized instruction, because it is less likely to be misconstrued to mean a completely tutorial relationship in instruction. Another reason for this preference is that "personalization" implies a more human approach to teaching.

When attempting personalization of reading instruction, the teacher needs to be enthusiastic and convinced that what he is doing is good and that it works. One of the problems in adjusting instruction to individual differences has been that teachers get discouraged because the results are less than perfect. They should be aware that personalization of reading instruction is one of the most difficult tasks teachers are asked to face. This task alone takes whatever ingenuity and creativity the teacher possesses plus a great deal of work.

A Personalized Program

The author believes an appropriate personalized reading program for all intermediate-grade children is possible if the teacher combines the best features of several reading approaches into a combination program. Specifically, an intermediate-grade teacher should be able to meet the needs of his pupils if he combines features of the basal reading, individualized reading, and the language experience approaches. The author has made an assumption that the teacher is capable of evaluating his pupils and knows what their needs are.

The scope and sequence listing which should appear in a well-designed manual for a basal series may be used by the teacher to provide a check on the skills which should be included in the program as well as a source of activities to be selected for those pupils who need them. In this part of the program the teacher may wish to group children according to their needs for skill development. At this point the teacher needs to be cautious in not letting groups stabilize into the "holy three" which continue from September to June with the same group members.

The self-selection and self-pacing features of the personalized approach may be used to good advantage with all children in the class. All children should have choices in what they wish to read. The teacher's knowledge about the interests of the children and about children's books should be extensive. Here is an opportunity to personalize the reading program by attempting to assist children in achieving a good match of books to reading levels and interests.

For many intermediate-grade children, especially in grades five and six, the teacher may safely abandon basal readers entirely, utilizing trade books, nonfiction, and fiction, as well as newspapers and magazines to build reading skills.

Conferences with children for planning, for some diagnostic purposes, and for setting purposes for reading are important in this components of the personalized reading program. Children who are successful at self-direction need only occasional guidance from the teacher provided that the objectives and purposes of the reading activity are clearly perceived by the children. Therefore, it is imperative for the teacher to meet with these children before they begin work to make sure they know how to proceed. A more structured approach and more frequent conferences are necessary for children who are less successful at self-direction.

For the least capable readers part of the teacher's dilemma over finding appropriate materials may be solved by incorporating the language experience approach. The materials produced by the children may be utilized for at least a part of the program. This procedure may provide more personal motivation for development of skill in reading.

In addition, intermediate-grade teachers need to make use of content materials on all levels for the development of comprehension and basic study skills.

Making the Change

Just like the children he teaches, the teacher needs to feel successful and thus to have a good self-concept. In order to begin personalization of reading instruction in the intermediate grades, it is perhaps wise for the teacher to move toward the objective by making gradual changes in the way he organizes reading instruction.

When breaking away from a traditional basal reader program, a teacher who is unsure about what to do should make his first attempts to change with the most capable, self-directed children. Serious miscalculations in organizational procedures will be apparent and easily corrected with these children.

With children who are less capable, the teacher will wish to provide more structure, perhaps through the use of the basal reader material. The self-selection procedure may be structured through the use of the lists of selections for additional reading suggested in the basal manual or through a list correlated with the material used in the content areas.

The teacher making a change from a completely basal program may wish to adjust his organization so that the basal program proceeds as usual two days a week, and the other features of the personalized program are used on the other days.

Recently many materials, checklists, management systems, and audio-visual materials have become available to assist teachers in personalizing instruction. Whenever possible and appropriate, teachers should utilize these aids for changing instructional procedures to meet individual needs.

Conclusion

Although we may have less than perfect solutions to adjusting to the individual differences of children, we must not get discouraged in our attempts to personalize reading instruction. Each child has his own interests, motivations, pace, and learning styles. The more we succeed in adjusting to these individual characteristics of children, the more successful we will be in teaching reading.

For true success and a truly personalized approach to teaching reading, we must be concerned about the attitudes our pupils develop toward reading. To what avail is it to be successful in teaching children to read and have them hate reading? Attempts to personalize reading instruction should result in more positive attitudes toward reading among our children.

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The "Person" in Personalized Reading: An Approach for Intermediate-Grade Reading

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The term "personalized reading" has surfaced in the maze of educational jargon. The term is not to be confused with "individualized reading," "self-selection," "extended reading," or "free reading." While "personalized reading" contains some of the component parts of each of the aforementioned methods, it is unique in the respect that it is tailored to fit the specific interests and abilities of each child.

Personalized reading is a method which provides for individual differences in the developmental process of skill acquisition and the vast difference in reading rate. The major feature is self-selection of materials. The purpose for reading precedes the selection of materials and rests naturally upon the shoulders of the child when he is given the opportunity to choose his own reading material. Personalized reading is a functional method for identifying and teaching the particular skill areas essential for each child's success in reading. It does away with rigid groupings and remains a flexible approach for developing a new dimension in reading appreciation.

While some or all of the techniques of personalized reading can be adopted at primary-grade levels, this paper will deal basically with the method as it applies to intermediate grades.

By the time children have reached intermediate grades, they have established some firm feelings about reading. It is evident that early success or failure in reading has a very definite impact upon the child as a person. The child who succeeds is rewarded by teacher and parental approval, and his own ego is bolstered in the process. The reading experience is personally stimulating to him. Consequently, he engages himself frequently in reading activities and continually reinforces and perfects the skills necessary for fluent reading. The process is described by the old cliché, "Noth-

ing succeeds like success." Some children, on the other hand, enter the beginning stages of reading with tense and anxious attitudes. Their fear blocks learning at an early age, and they are forced to seek rewards in other less desirable activities. Others are dependent and insecure in their early experiences and are unable to assume the self-responsibility needed for success in reading. Some children enter the early reading situation with a very rigid and limited environmental background. Thus they have difficulty in adjusting to the materials with flexibility and a seeking, curious, critical attitude.

If the child is to succeed, the desire to achieve must be internalized. The child must possess an inward satisfaction through the act of reading if he is to completely develop his potential. The one and only purpose for learning to read is to acquire a skill which is personally satisfying to the individual in terms of reading for pleasure and/or information. The child who likes to read, does read. He seeks ways of improving his reading skills and gains the self-satisfaction which is so necessary to his development. Fluency in word recognition is developed through quantities of repetitions. This fluency is necessary for comprehending the printed page. The only way to become proficient in any skill is to spend considerable time practicing it. One of the reasons that the basal programs prove ineffective for many children is that they do not provide sufficient amounts of material for reading. Also, many children are tuned out because they have little or no interest in the material. Many teachers have hindered the possible progress of children because they believe it is necessary to take them lock step through the skill development program as spelled out by the manual and student workbooks.

While a number of children entering the intermediate grades have developed a desire to read, bitter reality indicates that a host of children, ages 9-12, have not developed a sincere love for reading. In the middle grades the desire to please people shifts from the desire to please parents and teachers to the desire to please the peer group. If children haven't developed the *desire* to read by early fourth grade, then the objectives must be directed toward developing a love of reading in the peer group. At this level, the motivating force is more likely to be internalized through peer group influences than through teacher direction.

Upon entering the intermediate grades, many children have developed all or nearly all the skills for comprehending the printed page. Some children, however, are vastly inadequate in word-attack skills and are incapable of interaction with the printed page. Personalized reading must include a sequential skills development plan. The school is responsible for developing and adopting a curriculum guide which outlines the logical scope and sequence of the developmental skills and which provides the

foundation for planning the program for each individual child.

All too often, teachers base their evaluation of children's reading ability entirely upon standardized reading tests. Informal evaluations are helpful in personalizing the program. The approach of asking the child about his own reading ability is seldom used by teachers. Intermediate-grade children are usually able to give rather accurate information about themselves. Questions which might be used to assess the individual's status include: Do you like to read? When did you begin to feel this way about reading? What kind of reading materials, if any, do you enjoy? What problems do you encounter when reading?

Conservation of time and energy would be realized if teachers would recognize the importance of using a diagnostic approach to teaching skills. It simply boils down to finding out what the child *can* do, what he is *unable* to do, and planning the program to utilize his strengths and reduce or eliminate his weaknesses.

Evaluation must be an individualized ongoing process with follow-up skills lessons to key into areas of deficiency. When several students indicate a weakness in a given skill, these persons are grouped together for special assistance for developing the skill, thus providing immediate utility for each child.

While research bears out the findings that children not only develop at different rates, but also that they respond differently to teaching techniques, the whole area of modality is seldom recognized by practitioners. Many schools continue to adopt a particular method for teaching reading skills with no allowance for flexibility in adjusting the teaching techniques for skill development to the unique modes best suited for each child's development.

In teaching the skills, groupings of students should be designed for specific purposes. Personalized reading eliminates permanent groupings. The advantage of teaching skills to small groups of children rather than to individuals, lies in the opportunities for children to work together, assisting each other, encouraging and challenging one another through meaningful experiences. Children should be encouraged to talk about their problems and their progress.

Variety in grouping not only adds interest to the reading class but also adds a dimension in providing for individual needs. Children should be given an opportunity to participate in grouping pattern plans. Examples of groupings include:

Interest Groups

Groups of varying sizes are developed for interests.

a. Two or three children in choral reading

b. Three to five children reading a story and preparing a dramatization
c. Several children reading a particular book and holding a discussion
d. Three to five children choosing a given subject and reading different books, then sharing their findings
e. A small group of children doing research on a given topic

Skill Groups

Small groups work under the teacher's direction to remediate, develop, or reinforce specific reading skills. This training includes word attack and comprehension skills. The approaches in teaching skills must include a wide variety of techniques which take into account the interest of children and the modality approach which best fits each child's style of learning.

Tutorial Matching

In student tutorial matching, the needs of both the tutor and his subject must be recognized. Careful planning and evaluation, focusing upon a productive experience for both persons involved, must be clearly directed toward identifiable goals. Ideally, the interaction between the two persons involves a two-way complementary communication process.

In personalized reading, the child chooses his own material. The success of the program rests on the child's ability to choose material which is rewarding to him as a person. It cannot be assumed that all children can make good choices independently. The teacher must assume an assisting, supportive role in this very important aspect of the program. The child's ability as well as his interests must be considered. The vocabulary load is extremely important. Through teacher guidance, students can make a quick survey of the difficulty level by selecting a 100-word sampling in the book. If the child experiences difficulty with more than one or two words out of the 100-word selection, it can be assumed that the material is too difficult for him to read with the fluency necessary for desired comprehension.

The supply of books must provide for the wide range of interests and abilities of children if the program is to be successful. Many proponents of personalized reading set the "rule of thumb" number of books as three per student as a minimum. American Library Association (A.L.A.). Library Journal (L.J.), Best Books for Children, etc., represent listings which are helpful to teachers in purchase of books. In addition to hard-bound books, paperbacks should be included.

The school librarian is an invaluable resource in planning the personalized reading program. Since quantities of quality reading materials are paramount to the success of the program, every resource should be tapped.

In addition to the books available through the room and school libraries, other resources might include home libraries, county and/or state facilities, public city libraries, etc. Newspapers, magazines, basal-type readers, comic books, pamphlets, brochures, and other reading materials available can be utilized in developing a functional program.

Display of materials must be considered. Materials which are displayed in an interesting, tantalizing manner are most likely to whet the appetities of searching readers.

In addition to selecting his own material, the child should be given some latitude in choosing his own reading environment. Furniture, temperature, lighting, positions, noise levels, etc. should be considered. Children respond differently to their environment and attention should be given to helping each child find a classroom climate most conducive for learning.

The conference where the teacher and student meet in a one-to-one relationship is an important component of personalized reading. The conference should be a relaxed discussion period with an interaction between student and teacher. During this time the teacher checks new words and word attack skills, comprehension of materials read, and evaluates the child's progress. The communication should be open and honest so that the child feels free to share his emotions and to relate any difficulties he is experiencing. The teacher might begin the conference by asking, "What feelings did you experience when you read the story?" When reading is encountered with enthusiasm and the child recognizes the importance of input, then his chance of a fulfilling communication is enhanced. The conference, then, should focus on the child and his reactions to the printed page. Attention to skills arises when, and only when, the lack of skills serves as a roadblock for interpretation of the printed page. The child should be led to identify those problem areas which exist and he should be actively involved in setting up an individualized skills program which fits his particular needs.

Alternatives to the one-to-one conference which are less time-consuming can also be employed in the personalized evaluation. Small group conferences are sometimes beneficial. Children who have read the same book might discuss the book together. A discussion guide developed by the teacher might be helpful in the initial discussion. Dramatizations, follow-up creative writing exercises, pantomimes, and selected art activities are methods of evaluating achievements through small group processes.

The success of any method of teaching rests heavily upon the teacher's ability to plan and implement a program. There is not "one way" for developing a personalized reading program. The diversification of "ways" parallels the number of persons involved in the process. The end-product

is a child who feels good about himself and his ability to satisfy his own drives in reading for pleasure and/or information.

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The Fountain Valley Teacher Support System in Reading: A Teacher-Demanded Instrument

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Recently, Wilson Riles, State Superintendent of Public Instruction for California, stated:

". . . The California Public School system is not completely accountable for the quality of its educational product.

I would like to see an accountability system built in from the state superintendent's office to the local classroom. That system would include instructional accountability to measure levels of achievement and to replace ineffective instructional methods with approaches of proven merit.

There should be the definition of specific goals for the schools set by parents, teachers, administrators, and students as well as by school boards and legislators. Resources should be made available to meet those goals. And then there should be a comprehensive evaluation system that is built on more than a single-test philosophy and is aimed principally at improving instruction for the individual student. . . ."

The Fountain Valley Teacher Support System in Reading is positively correlated to Dr. Riles' goals. It is the first school-requested, teacher-generated program of its kind.

The Fountain Valley School District feels deeply that decisions of accountability must be made on the basis of what we know about children and how they learn. It is committed to the improved diagnosis, prescription, and evaluation for every single child. This means that though the physical, social, emotional, and intellectual growth of all children from birth into adulthood are continuous and sequential, they do not take place at the same rate. Instead of growing in even segments, children progress by spurts and plateaus.

It was obvious that the task was to devise a way to accommodate individual differences in student learning style as well as academic ability. Because reading is of integral importance to all areas of education, the Fountain Valley School District decided to develop a program to be supportive to teachers and be a concrete aid to uplifting reading performance. They wanted an effective program in terms of that student performance, utilizing the fundamental relationship between teaching and learning.

First, a teacher task force was assigned by the Fountain Valley School District to provide a list of those skills to be mastered for successful reading. They came up with 277 skills which they had extracted from the wealth of curriculum material available. Our firm was then asked to create this Support System.

Because of our experience as reading consultants, programmers, and developers of reading and testing programs, Fountain Valley felt it appropriate for our firm to produce and publish a teacher support system which is just that—a system to support the teacher in teaching reading.

Ours is a sequential skills development evaluation system which provides:

1. Self-administration so that any teacher can test any child at any time
2. Self-scoring so that the teacher's time is not taken up with routine activities
3. Meaningful diagnostic patterns and identification of specific deficiencies, including perceptual deficits
4. Prescriptive cross-indexing to major basal texts and audio-visual materials found in most schools throughout the United States and Canada

The tests are free from biases, and are related directly to specific learning situations of each pupil.

The innovations in educational technology, including the acceptance of PPBES (Planning, Programming, Budgeting, Evaluation Systems), and the idea of accountability had made it imperative that the tests be based on specific behavioral objectives; short and concise; and easy to administer, score, and interpret.

The Fountain Valley Teacher Support System in Reading was designed, therefore, with the following innovative and pragmatic changes in test usage: 1) The tests are devised for use after each teaching segment so that teachers have immediate knowledge of the diagnostic patterns and prescriptive needs of each student, and teachers are able to apply these findings *immediately* to correct deficiencies with materials already available to them. This reteaching procedure insures mastery of skills in sequential order so that remedial problems will not develop. 2) The tests measure phonic ability in contextual situations as well as phonic ability in

isolated word situations in that there are sections that assess sound/sound-visual correlatives and sound-sight correlatives. Perceptual problems in the sound-symbol correspondence areas are diagnosed, and word analysis (both phonetic and structural), vocabulary development, comprehension, and study skills are also measured. 3) These tests are prepared on auditory tape for use by groups or individuals at any time. They are an excellent aid to teachers as they eliminate differences in test administration. The time period does not vary so group comparisons can be most reliable. Also accomplished is the elimination of volume differentiations, intonation, and pronunciation. Clues and other test-administrator "biases" are greatly minimized. There are 77 tests covering the 277 behavioral objectives for each child.

The Fountain Valley Teacher Support System in Reading provides teachers with a method of diagnosis, remedial prescription, student placement within reading grades, pre-test for fast learners, and post-test for the average and slow learners.

The materials were designed so that a specific color has been assigned to each grade level and is used to identify the cassette holder, teacher's manual, and cassettes. Red, orange, yellow, green, blue, and purple are used from grades one through six. Also included are audio cassettes, self-scoring tests, behavioral objectives, teaching alternatives, and continuous pupil progress profiles.

The Fountain Valley Teacher Support System in Reading was piloted in the 1970-71 school year in the 13 schools of the Fountain Valley District. It was truly tested under fire! Every week that it was in use, each teacher wrote criticisms, suggestions, and comments. These were then collated by the learning coordinators, and later, by the principals of each school. They were then grouped by the district curriculum director. Finally, these suggested changes were incorporated into the program. Not only was it field-tested on 10,343 children, but it also had 494 editors—every teacher in the Fountain Valley District. The teachers feel better equipped to handle the day-to-day knowledge of individual reading skills, and this has provided them with the essence of accountability.

Developing Reading Competency with Specialized Material

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Selection of Materials

Educators often become perplexed and frustrated when determining which of the many specialized programs available should be purchased for use. Assembling accurate information about such materials in order to make intelligent selections becomes a challenge. Many large corporations are now in the textbook and supplementary materials business with large budgets for promotion. Reading programs have been increasing in number and variety. Some areas such as linguistics, programmed instruction, and reading systems are currently receiving emphasis.

The traditional types of reading programs have been basal readers, supplementary readers, and trade books. We have had kits, workbooks, filmstrips, manuals, and now we are seeing management systems, programmed materials, prepackaged programs which include books, cards, and varied media; even the computer has entered the classroom to teach reading.

All are designed to contribute to teaching reading and usually have similarities in spite of the publishers' advertising efforts to state unique characteristics of their materials. Upon examination, the stated principles upon which publishers' materials are based at times demonstrate inconsistencies. It becomes imperative for educators to know which skills to teach and which are already taught by existing materials. Then the search begins for materials which satisfy unachieved needs. Artley stated it very well:

". . . visual aids, visual pacing devices, practice books, supplementary materials, materials utilized in specialized teaching situations, as with kinesthetic procedures–all have their place provided the diagnosis shows a particular need that may be met through these devices or materials. That

is, I do not believe in their indiscriminate use. Where there is a need, they are valuable." (2)

It is often noted that remedial and classroom teachers of reading rely heavily on basal materials. This may be because they are indeed the best approach. One must ask if this is because, from past experience, the teacher is comfortable with them. This is not to say one should do away with the "regular" program which may be the basal. However, if one approach has not proved successful, especially in the case of corrective readers, then it would appear that it might be wise to consider alternative approaches. Care should be taken to keep from jumping from one "bandwagon" to another, but it is necessary to reconsider the objectives and what methods might be employed to provide successful experiences for the learners.

Regardless of the type of specialized material, certain questions might be asked: What is the primary emphasis of the program? What is the approach? Is it an individualized program? Are teacher manuals or directions for use explicit and easy to follow? What reading levels are included? Could the materials be correlated with and complementary to existing programs, and do they create a desire to know on the part of pupils? Be cautious of publishers' statements regarding nonexistent self-teaching materials.

Audio-visual materials and game-type kits easily draw our attention. Again we must ask what basic skills are presented by the materials. What age groups would find the activities appealing? What reading materials do they reinforce in your teaching situation? How is success determined? Does the material permit the child to respond actively? How many concepts are developed in one lesson? Are the design, format, pictures, and other aspects sufficiently attractive to motivate interest, and, finally, how long is the presentation or activity?

No matter what criteria are used to judge particular materials, it is still the manner in which they are used that is the key to success achieved by their use. As stated in the 1970 Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development Yearbook, ". . . we recognize that the teacher is the key figure in facilitating a humane curriculum. . . . Rich supplies of materials and fine facilities will not be helpful if the teacher does not use them effectively." (3)

Examples of Specialized Programs

It is impossible in this brief paper to attempt to discuss all the valuable specialized material. Therefore, two programs currently being used in ESEA Title I and Title III schools in the Des Moines Independent Community School District will be briefly discussed as examples.

Instead of thinking of particular materials or programs first, a trend has emerged in which we attempt to identify skills which are necessary in the area of reading. All available materials can be used to teach these given skills. One management system is the Wisconsin Design for Reading Skill Development which was organized by the Wisconsin Research and Development Center for Cognitive Learning at the University of Wisconsin. This was supported in part as a research and development center by funds from the United States Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

The word-attack component in the skill areas is the most extensively developed and was introduced in fifteen Des Moines schools in the fall of 1971. No attempt is made by the Design to describe a total instructional program in reading, assuming this can best be worked out at the local level. With the Design, the aim is to provide a framework, compatible with the concept of individually guided instruction, in which a skill development program can be worked out.

The specific objectives of the Wisconsin Design for Reading Skills Development as listed in the *Teacher's Planning Guide, Word Attack* are listed below, followed by a brief explanation of each:

1. To state explicitly an array of reading skills that, by long-standing consensus, are essential for competence in reading
2. To assess individual pupils' skill development status by means of criterion referenced tests with respect to explicitly stated behaviors related to each skill
3. To provide a comprehensive management system to guide grouping for and planning of skill development instruction
4. To monitor each pupil's progress in the development of specific skills. (*1*)

The expectation is that the Design will be adapted and/or extended in view of local conditions, needs, and resources. The fundamental assumption is a flexible approach in grouping pupils and pacing their instruction. The Design can provide a framework for the total program or monitor skill development for an existing program.

The Wisconsin Design includes several components. It involves an Outline of Reading Skills and Behavioral Objectives. The word-attack skills are divided into four basic areas: Levels A, B, C, D, covering 45 skills following those traditionally taught from kindergarten to third grade. There is a cycle followed in the program. All children are tested to see which of the skills the student is lacking. After testing, students are grouped according to the skills they need. There are several alternative methods for individual and group record keeping.

After grouping, a teacher would check the compendium of published materials and the collected teacher-directed activities and procedures for teaching a particular skill group. These sources would be kept in the Resource File from which plans could be made for instruction. Usually instruction for skills is held twenty-five minutes daily for three weeks. The children are tested again to see if they mastered the skill. Students are then regrouped for another skill.

It is noted that instead of being dependent on one or two basic sources, the teacher is encouraged to use a wide variety of materials. The responsibility for matching materials, activities, and pupils remains with the teacher. The total staff responsible for reading instruction must be involved or the usefulness of the system is limited. To make it most useful, teachers must see the skill session as part of the total reading program—not separate and isolated. Similar programs are available from other publishers.

Another specialized material which is being currently used in nine Title I schools in Des Moines is Project Read which was developed under a Carnegie Grant by Dr. Allen Calvin and Dr. M. W. Sullivan for inner-city children using a programmed format. Programmed materials have certain features in common—the student is required to focus his attention on a limited amount of material at a time. The material requires him to respond in some way. Perhaps these are examples we should follow in all materials.

This linguistically-oriented, code-emphasis program emphasizes a one-to-one, sound-symbol relationship. The advantages are that the student works at his own pace, participates actively, responds personally and individually, and should experience success. One factor which must be understood when using programmed material is that programmed materials are not self-teaching. The same basic good teaching must take place to provide success. After the child has mastered the basic decoding process, it is suggested that he use many other materials to apply these skills in functional situations.

Using Available Materials

It is not that we always need more specialized materials but, rather, more specialized use of existing materials. One of the outstanding examples of an available, inexpensive, and versatile material of which we might make more creative use is the newspaper. When considering any material the following statement might be pertinent:

"If the major purpose of teaching reading skills is to produce children who CAN read, then most any material will do. If our primary concern is

to generate readers who DO read, then materials take on added importance." (4)

Customarily we do not use the newspaper for teaching until upper grades, but it has a functional use even at the preschool level for language development and classification of pictures. Primary students might find words they recognize from advertisements, make an alphabet or word book noting the different type setting, or make up stories about comics before captions are read. There is no "best method" for teaching reading—the newspaper is adaptable to any method.

For older students, many activities in comprehension and critical reading might be developed. A child might be asked to find the main idea of a particular article or to find and categorize articles or parts of articles which can be classified as fact and those which are personal opinion. One could elaborate considerably, but perhaps the point that use of the newspaper can be adapted from first grade to high school is significant. The newspaper holds something of interest for all so it can be used concurrently by reluctant readers and competent readers. Students will not only be learning to read but be availing themselves of opportunities to read.

Only three specific types of materials have been mentioned–hardly a representative sample of the many materials available. Although it is very time-consuming, educators, particularly classroom teachers of reading, can contribute and learn a great deal by judging carefully which materials really fill their needs.

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Set Theory, Psycholinguistics, and Second Grade

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Reading teachers have long been aware that a relationship between language and reading exists. Exactly what that relationship is, however, has yet to be clearly defined and precisely delineated. Many assumptions surround that relationship, just as many assumptions surround the relationship between language and thinking, and reading and thinking. The failure to question and to test the many assumptions about these relationships has not been the fault of the reading teacher as much as of a knowledge gap about language itself. Although man has always been fascinated by his language—as evidenced from Genesis in the Bible to the present day image making through symbol manipulation—his study of it has only recently produced a theory rigorous enough and complete enough to explain it. Man has now a viable theory about his language.

Linguists, dating further back than the Brothers Grimm, have amassed volumes of data about language. They have recorded and described the languages of the world, even preserving many rare languages that claim few remaining native speakers for the future. In their theory building, however, they have not fared so well. A theory about language must be simple, yet comprehensive enough to explain the volumes of data. It was Noam Chomsky who applied himself to the task and shattered the linguistic world in 1957. His *Syntactic Structures* (*1*) did to the science of linguistics what Einstein's Theory of Relativity did to physics—stood it on end. Basically, Chomsky was theory building to explain why a native speaker of a language, say English, would utter only English sentences and no sentences that were non-English. In brief, Chomsky wanted a theory of language to explain the sentence producing capabilities of native speakers. In the process of his theory building about language, Chom-

sky rejected several theories and formulated his own "generative grammar" or "transformational grammar" theory.

A discussion of transformational grammar is far beyond the scope of this paper, but several concepts of the theory are necessary for the reader to understand the study that follows. The study was exploratory, yet it was based on transformational grammar theory; nevertheless, it suggests a direction that a rigorous researcher might take to establish more definitive relationships between reading and language, and reading and thinking. Hodges and Rudorf offer a clear definition of generative-transformational grammar: "A grammar in which all sentences (kernels) in a language are viewed as either simple basic sentences (kernels) or combinations and permutations of these basic sentences by rules (transformations). The grammar assigns structural descriptions to sentences and relates their deep structures and meanings to their surface structures and sounds, and vice versa." (*3*, p. 230)

The deep and surface structure concept is powerful and explanatory. With it one can explain sentences and non-sentences, the functions of constituents, synonymity of sentences, ambiguity of sentences, and the relationship that one kind of sentence bears to others, i.e., question to statement.

Jacobs and Rosenbaum in their book *Grammar 2* discuss and diagram transformations, deep structures, and surface structures. They wrote:

"Remember that every deep structure has one meaning. But, by applying transformational rules, one deep structure may become any one of several surface structures. All of the surface structures, of course, will have the same meaning because they all come from the same deep structure.

"The fact that sentences have both a deep and surface structure explains how we are able to understand as synonymous many apparently different sentences. This understanding, together with knowledge of the transformations discussed in these lessons, shows us how the surface form of a sentence (either its sound or its order on the printed page) is connected or related to its meaning.

"Transformations, then, are very important. They are the processes which change deep structures into surface structures. Knowing the transformations possible in English means understanding all possible surface structures in English. Knowledge of transformations helps us in two distinct ways: In the production of grammatical surface structures from deep structures, and in the identification of the correct deep structures from surface structures.

"Transformations are, therefore, the bridge between the deep and the surface structures of sentences." (*4*, p. 61)

Perhaps, one concrete example can clarify deep and surface structures as well as demonstrate transformations. The sentence "Tom kicked the dog" can be transformed into the passive with "The dog was kicked by Tom." Native speakers will recognize that, although these sentences are different on the surface, they both literally mean the same.

Frank Smith in his chapter "Language and Reading" noted the significance of grammar, especially transformational grammar, when he wrote:

"To understand this dynamic function of grammar, two other aspects of language must first be considered: its sound (or written symbols) and its meaning. Then we shall see how grammar is the link between the two. We can consider the two cases of speech and writing jointly if we regard the words, spoken or written, as the surface representation of a message, and meaning as something deeper. . . . The surface level refers to the physical manifestations of language as it impinges on the ear or eye, and the deep level refers to meaning.

"The importance of grammar as a link between the two levels of language lies in the following fact, which is critical for any understanding of language and reading: There is no simple correspondence between the surface structure of language and meaning." (*6*, p. 29)

With the theoretical assumptions that language has deep and surface structures, the writer constructed nine passages for second graders to read and respond to. (See Appendix.) The nine passages involved logic, set theory, and grammar. Surface structures were deliberately made discrepant in logic or grammar. Special focus was given to the choice of functor words, that is, conjunctions. In several of the passages, the conjunctions were misused—discrepant for the logic and/or the grammar of the passage.

The second graders read the discrepant passages and reacted to them by open verbal responses. They were free to say whatever they wished about them since the stock question asked of them was "What do you think about what you just read?" During the children's reading, the writer gave special attention to miscues: ". . . observed oral responses to printed text that does not conform to what is expected." (*3*, p. 230) By focusing on the second graders' oral reading, the writer was alert to any miscue of surface structure from which he could infer that the children anticipated contrary meaning in the deep structure.

Passage II was especially significant for miscues: the students miscued "Because (*my*) pencil is broken" with "Because (I) . . .," then stopped. Apparently the students, in reading the passage, anticipated Mary's response to be something other than what appeared on the printed page.

Passage I best revealed the children's intuitive knowledge of deep and surface structure. In the ambiguous passage, "The horses ran before the storm," some of the children extended the passage to read "before the storm hit" or "before the storm came." The children, thus, removed the ambiguity by bringing to the surface the "time" element from the deep structure. The ambiguity of that passage lay in whether "before" was in "place" or "time." One boy, however, did indicate that "before" might be followed by "place"—the pasture they were in.

Passages III_1, III_2, and III_3 were based on the concept of set inclusion from the work by Copeland, *How Children Learn Mathematics: Teaching Implications of Piaget's Research*. The writer took similar examples from the work and had the students respond to them. Data from observing the responses of twelve children indicate that some children may have the concept of set inclusion for one passage, but not for another. The breakdown was as follows:

	Passage III_1	III_2	III_3
n = 6 Boys	3	6	5
n = 6 Girls	4	4	6

The number given is the number of the children that had a clear concept of what was included in the set. All of the children except one boy responded to Passage III_3 correctly, many with "Dubuque is in Iowa."

Copeland suggested that part of the difficulty for a child to make set inclusion lies in the handling of two or more properties at one time. (2, p. 90) Passage III_2 involved two properties: "birdness" and "redness." Only two of the children focused on one property with "The robin is a bird" or "The robin is red." Some of their answers were highly discriminating with such statements as "Some 'robins' may not be birds" and "Some 'robins' may not be red." With fewer children handling Passage I_1, the writer would tend to support Copeland's findings that children do have difficulty with two or more properties.

Much controversy rages over Piaget's findings about set inclusion, the very important function of logical classification. (5) With the extremely limited sampling of children, and with written materials rather than objects to be manipulated, the writer observed that second-grade children do have some concepts of set inclusion. They may have the concept in one instance and not in another. Thus, from little evidence, the writer concludes that second graders are at extremely varied stages of development insofar as set inclusion is concerned. These findings tend to be consistent with Copeland's assertions and Piaget's research, but what is most important is that some children can read and understand set inclusion without manipulative objects. (2, p. 52)

To determine if second graders could distinguish between conjunctive and disjunction, Passage IV used "but" instead of "and." Six of the twelve children actually said "and" should have been used, while five other children indicated that something was "funny" about the passage. But more importantly, the writer observed that the children miscued the passage when they read it. The miscues were revealed in pitch and stress, surface aspects of language. The writer suggests that these miscues represent the children's intuitive knowledge of their language. Children can and do distinguish between what lies in the deep structure and what should appear on the surface.

The writer examined "transduction" with Passage II. Copeland defines "transduction" as ". . . a form of reasoning that proceeds from particular to particular without generalization of logical rigor." (2, p. 123) All of the children indicated that Passage II "didn't make sense." But, when the children responded to Passage VII, some evidence of transduction became apparent. Many responded, not about the additive properties of candy, but about trips to the dentist and cavities. They did not put "goodness" and "sweetness" and "cost" together.

The most difficult passages for the students to discuss involved the use of the correlative conjunctions "either—or" and the comparative conjunction "as well as." Some children responded to Passage VI, the correlative, by giving such highly creative answers as "A water truck may have come along" or "Maybe a fire hose was used."

Few students could see the comparative discrepancy in Passage V. One little girl who had much difficulty reading her passages orally (on the surface a crippled reader) gave the most incisive response of all the children: "Tom runs faster than Bill" and "as well as" does not mean that. Clearly she was not a crippled thinker.

Generalizing, the writer can make no definitive statements since the rigors of research were not followed. The nature of the study was exploratory, to ascertain what directions a more extensive study might take, but the writer will draw some tentative conclusions. The generative-transformational concept of langauge as applied to the teaching of reading offers considerable possibilities as an aid for diagnosis of children's reading. The deep and surface structure concept offers a means of getting at children's comprehension because *"meaning" lies in the deep structure*, the semantic component of the language.

Far too little attention has been paid to the importance of the functors in reading. A cursory look at ten texts indicate that the experts have totally ignored the conjunction. The conjunction offers a link between reading and language, and reading and thinking. It may well be one of

the most fruitful sources for diagnosing by the reading teacher. Rigorous research might well employ the conjunction as a means of demonstrating illusive relationships between reading and language, and reading and thinking.

Appendix

Passage I: Sally said, "The horses ran before the storm."
Jim said, "Storms scare horses."
Then Sally said, "Yes, horses run."

Passage II: Mary asked the teacher: "May I get a drink of water?"
The teacher asked, "Why?"
Mary answered, "Because my pencil is broken."

Passage III_1: Bill said, "All roses are flowers."
Jim said, "Some roses are red."
Bill then said, "But no flowers are red."

Passage III_2: Bill said, "The robin is red."
Jim said, "The robin is a bird."
Then Bill said, "Either the robin is red or it is a bird."

Passage III_3: Bill said, "I live in Dubuque."
Jim said, "If you live in Dubuque, then you live in Iowa."
Bill then said, "I don't live in Iowa because I live in Dubuque."

Passage IV: Bill said, "Tom went to the movie."
Sally said, "Mary went to the movie."
Bill then said, "Tom went to the movie, but Mary went to the movie."

Passage V: Bill said, "Tom runs as well as I do."
Mary said, "But Tom always beats you in a race."
Bill then said, "Tom still runs as well as I do."

Passage VI: Sally said, "Either it rained last night or did not rain."
Jim said, "The street is wet."
Then Sally said, "Because the street is wet, it did not rain."

Passage VII: Sally said, "Candy is good."
Bill said, "Candy is sweet."
Jim said, "Candy costs money."
Bill then said, "Because candy costs money, it is neither good nor sweet."

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A Community College Reading Program

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Research shows an indisputable relationship between reading skills and college grade-point average. When Francis P. Robinson (*The Reading Teacher*, September, 1961) points out that even Phi Beta Kappans study quite inefficiently and that their study skills can be improved, he whets the appetite for more information.

Need for Reading and Study Skills Centers

Why have reading and study skills instruction become a regular part of most community college, four-year college, and university programs? Review of the conventional format of reading instruction in elementary schools focuses on the fact that it is customary for basic instruction to cease with the completion of sixth grade. *If* there are junior high reading classes, they may lean toward literary rather than skills development. The training and experiences of most secondary teachers have not prepared them to cope with the problems of divergence in reading skills. Ordinarily junior and senior classes in high school have a range of twelve or fourteen reading levels, and in college classes there may be additional levels. The statement is frequently made that a student has little reading ability when the proper comment should be that there is a lack of reading skills. The two terms, as used in this discussion, need delineation. Ability is defined as potential, and skills are techniques which, when properly employed, result in achievement relative to inherent ability. This discussion pertains to transformation of skills to the content area.

Modern man requires mature skills to read comprehensively and critically in all aspects of life—vocational, civic affairs, and for personal satisfaction. A child's immaturity prohibits acquisition of advanced reading skills. Maturity and experience are necessary to recognize organization

of material, vocabulary development, identification of fallacious communication (propaganda), interpretation of inference, and figurative speech. Such skills must meet new demands in subject matter, handle complicated technical and professional reading, keep pace with changing and maturing interests, develop high-level interpretation and critical thinking, and even those with high potential need training to achieve to their level. Martha Maxwell (University of California, Berkeley) in a seminar at the 1970 IRA Convention, Anaheim, notes that "75 percent of academic failure in college is due simply to poor study and examination techniques." The importance of effective study habits cannot be overemphasized.

The community college occupies a unique position in the educational system. It serves the community in multiple ways. Less affluent students can gain two years of higher education more inexpensively than they can in four-year colleges. With the "open door" policy of admissions, the student body consists of unsuccessful or underachieving ex-high schoolers, veterans, and adults getting a late start. It is no wonder that the major portion of the students demonstrate deficient maturation of sound learning and study techniques whether they are the marginal or high-level achievers.

The Center and Its Program

What is a reading and study skills center? It certainly is *not* remedial in nature. The initial establishment of a center will face, no doubt, an all-staff misconception of the philosophy and objectives of the service.

The program at Iowa Central Community College was a co-vision of the chief administrator and the chairman of the English department. Hurdles to establishing a center include philosophy, objectives, physical location, equipment, supplies, materials, and procedures. Mechanical "gadgets" without a knowledgeable director will probably be inept in meeting the primary needs of a heterogeneous school population. The strength of the program will be in direct relation to the understanding of the administration and the staff.

Is this a new concept in education? Definitely not. Colleges and universities first started such programs during the 1920's. Dr. Ted Harris (Puget Sound University), president of the International Reading Association, established a center at Oklahoma University during the mid-forties; however, the past decade has found centers located in the community colleges—where the need is even greater than at institutions with a policy of selective student admissions. Many community college students have a poor self-concept but a broad background of life experiences. These people need to become aware that their maturity is a step toward working effectively.

An operative program requires a director, with adequate training and background, for development and evaluation of programs that can and will meet students' needs realistically in Arts and Sciences, Vocational-Technical, and Independent Learning Centers. The director needs to be eclectic in programs, procedures, and individual assessment. This person needs a multifaceted personality to create rapport with staff, students, and administration. The assistance of a para-professional and part-time secretarial help is advantageous.

Philosophy of the Center

The philosophy of the Reading and Study Skills Center at Iowa Central Community College is uncomplicated: "Everyone can improve reading and study skills. Improvement requires willingness to work, systematic practice under pressure for some time, development of critical thinking, and increased vocabulary. The course is non-competitive and designed to develop each student's optimum reading and study efficiency."

Initial student contacts in the Center have amounted to 14 or 15 percent of the regularly enrolled student body this year. We have grown from less than 5 percent to our present numbers. One-third of the people are pursuing a basic English course which meets three times each week in the Reading Center and biweekly for composition skills with a member of the English department (total 5 hours per week) for one semester and receive four semester hours basic English credit. The rest of the students and those who feel an inadequacy of skills and thus come of their own volition for a conference concerning reading and study skills. The majority seem to find a sense of direction and return for individual instruction from two or three visits to a schedule of bi- or tri-weekly sessions extending from six weeks to an entire semester.

The Diagnostic Reading Test (Triggs *et al.*, upper level, forms A or B) is given to those in basic English and those planning 25-30 hours work in reading skills or a full semester. Another form of the same test is given at the conclusion of the work to serve as a measuring device in reading rate, comprehension, and vocabulary skills. All students are administered the Preston-Botel Study Habits Checklist (1967, SRA). During a conference early in the semester, an evaluation of the checklist is made to determine which study habits are of inferior quality, and these receive priority in efforts to improve. Those items checked "about half of the time" are rated as second-level priority and are the student's responsibility. Identification of those habits checked as "less than half the time" or "never" receive top priority for improvement. These seem to fall into three general categories for interpretation.

Note-taking, including underlining and/or hi-lighting of textbook ma-

terials, apparently is a major problem. Fewer than 30 percent of the students attempt a synthesis of lecture and reading materials suitable for pre-exam review; two-thirds fail to read assignments or do any collateral reading. More than half are unaware of profitable use of the table of contents as a frame of reference when studying. Not quite 50 percent of the students fail to create questions to direct study-reading regularly. Compiling results of these checklists presents the following data:

Inferior Study Practices

Part I Note-taking

53% do not revise class notes soon after class
45% do not make a master outline of course by correlation of reading materials and class notes
45% spend little or no time reviewing notes when completed
25% took few notes from assignment reading

Part II Reading Related Skills

67% do little or no suggested correlative reading for courses
60% seldom preview the table of contents as an initial activity for a new course
47% usually do not have questions in mind to answer while reading
65% rarely lip read but always use vocalization to accent mental impression and feel this cannot be controlled
30% do not know how to use book clues: headings, illustrations, and chapter summaries

Part III Study Practices

60% never try to identify possible questions to be asked on an exam
48% usually start writing essay exam answers without a mental outline of material
44% are unaware of the advantage of distribution of time for study of lengthy assignments
39% make no effort to relate content and skills in one area to another area
30% do not distribute examination preparation over at least two sessions
40% practice little or no time management in studying various subjects
40% rarely plan suitable time distribution among questions when writing examinations

One recognizes the specific study habits which are deficient, and at the conclusion of the work in the Center the checklist is presented at a second conference. The student frequently is amazed at the renovation from the initial check. The modifications do not just happen but are the result of two or three fifty-minute periods each week which include a variety of

activities and experiences to develop acuity of perception, both auditory and visual, application of SQ3R technique (Robinson, 1961), note-taking practice, exam preparation and writing, vocabulary development, and comprehension skills practice.

Policies of the Reading Center

The administration foresaw the necessity of a separate physical area, and, regardless of potential, assessment of student strengths and weaknesses, the need for the director to serve as consultant to the staff for their edification and cooperation, varied and adequate materials, staff referrals of students, and availability of multiple programs were perceived as basic. The director must exercise empathy and serve as "sounding board" and unofficial counselor for students. There may be few eight-hour days with record and chart maintenance as evidence of progress. Search for new materials and approaches require time. Promotional activities make use of such media as campus newspaper, radio station, posters, and "Charlie Brown" advertisements. Not only is it necessary to recognize the reading level of students, but time must be spent assessing the approximate reading level of textbooks used in various courses.

Constant appraisal of skill development employs questionnaires, director-made tests, informal observations, records, interviews, and standardized tests.

Reading Skills and Content Areas

"Open door" policy of admissions recruits students with reading rate, comprehension, and vocabulary levels ranging from less than sixth grade to university upperclassmen. Regardless of reading level, all will benefit from directed skills practice. The new skills are constantly applied directly to course textbooks of each of the students. Results usually begin to be tangible by the end of five or six sessions. An explanation of the "plateaus of learning" and how they will be in evidence throughout the work is made at an early meeting to avoid a feeling of failure. Regular comparison of change and development can be encouragement to the individual.

Student evaluation tells effectively whether any objectives are realized.

Examples:

1. I have learned here in the Reading Center how to
   - read faster
   - plan a good study schedule
   - take better lecture notes

   I think every college student should take this course.

2. I have become conscious of reading ideas instead of words

3. The three things which I found to be most useful to me were:
   a. learning to survey the material
   b. learning how to pick out important items of an assignment
   c. building my vocabulary

Conclusions

Based on statistics, the mean scores in Arts and Science students show: 20% increase in reading rate, 22% growth in vocabulary; Vocational-Technical students show: 40% increase in reading rate, 106% growth in vocabulary; Independent Learning Center students show: 45% increase in reading rate, 60% growth of vocabulary.

In all three areas, the scores showed an increase of 41 percent in comprehension skills, and others maintained equal comprehension with increased reading rate of at least 20 percent.

As statistics are compiled and evaluated, reading and study skills advance hand in hand. The emphasis must be equal. To create a balanced program requires cooperation of both the content area teachers and the Reading Center.

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