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ABSTRACT

Articles in this issue are concerned with reading instruction aimed at preventing reading disability. Topics discussed in the six articles are: classroom practices which aggravate reading problems, a model for individualized reading instruction which allows for several levels of individualization, a data based instructional system for improving learning and preventing reading failure, integration of the language arts as the only basis for successful programing, the importance of capitalizing on children's interests and experience, child authorship, using the camera to aid language arts skill development, and resource materials. Also included are lists of primary dictionaries, books for children to read by themselves from kindergarten to third grade, graded word lists (annotated), and sources of games and game books. (JM)

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Prevent Reading Disabilities!

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AN OVERVIEW

This issue of the Journal addresses itself to concerns in reading instruction and, more specifically, to instruction aimed at preventing reading disability.

The purpose is not to report the status of reading research but rather to generalize from research findings and then to draw implications for practical application at the classroom level. Delwyn Schubert provides an overview of classroom practices which tend to aggravate reading problems. Carl Wallen outlines a logical system which should enable any classroom teacher to "plug-in" at any point along the vast elusive continuum between a total traditional program and the ideal individualized program. Stanley Deno and Phyllis Mirkin's article provides practical suggestions for monitoring pupil achievement as one measure for prevention of continued failure. Elizabeth Thorn examines the need for integration of the language arts as the only basis for successful programming. The article by Grace Walby and Marje McLean serves to identify a key component, that of child interest, to be taken into account irrespective of the formal structure of the school program. Marlene Brayne's compendium of resource materials provides the final complement to the prevasive theme — while programming with a preventative focus is essential, the need for judicious selection of resources cannot be overlooked.

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A NOTE ON CONTRIBUTORS

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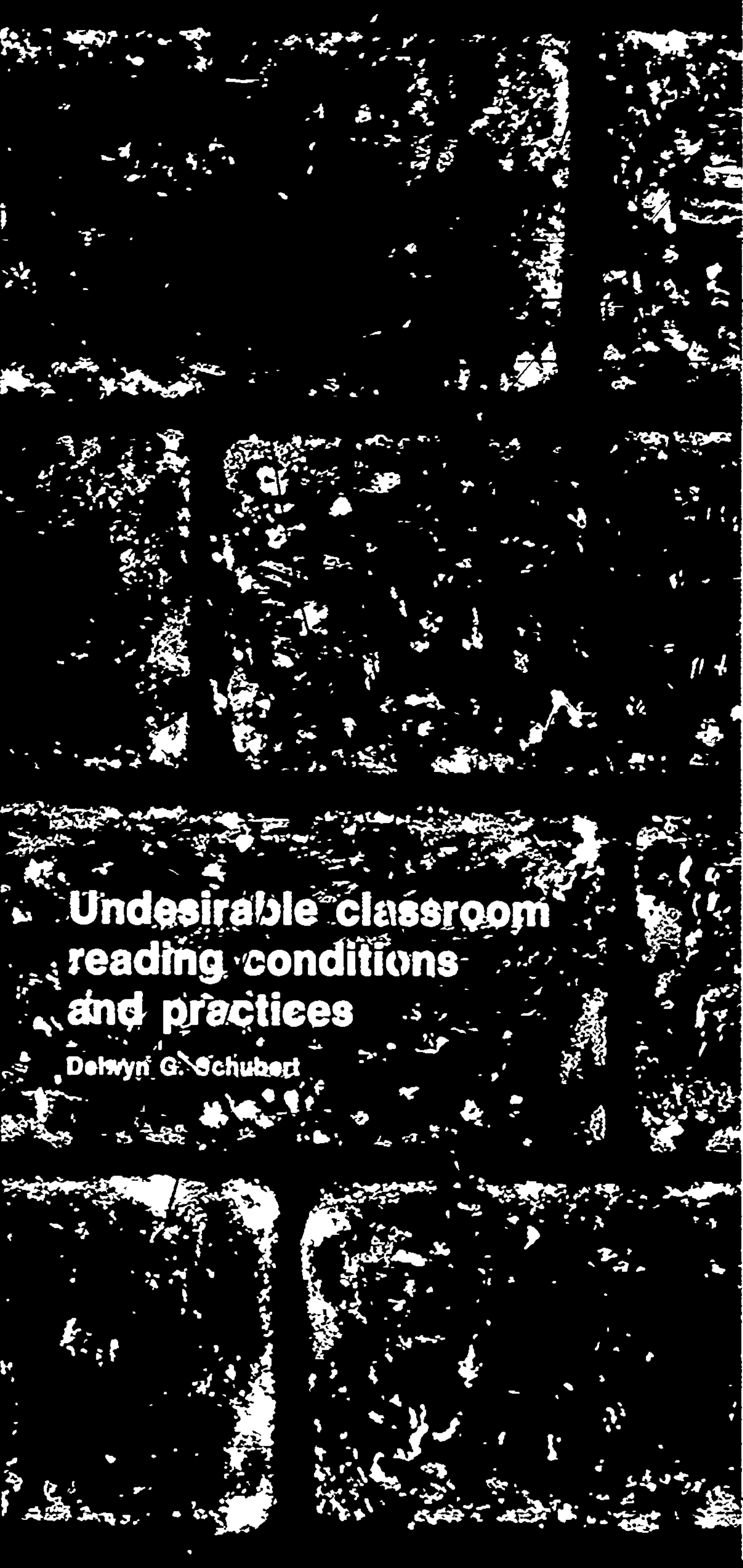


Undesirable classroom reading conditions and practices

Delwyn G. Schubert

Undesirable Classroom Reading Conditions and Practices

Delwyn G. Schubert

Through the years, many research studies and articles have been devoted to the how-did-they-get-that-way aspect of reading disability Those which centered attention on single causative factors have fallen into disrepute since experts in the field have concluded that reading disability usually is caused by a combination of factors One of the most thorough research studies corroborating this principle was done by Helen Robinson in the early 1940's[1]

While very much cognizant of the foregoing, Kottmeyer[2] has said that "The plain fact of the matter is that poor teaching and poor learning conditions are probably responsible for more reading disability than all the other investigated causes put together "

Although no one has proved Kottmeyer's contention, there is no doubt that there are a number of unwholesome and inefficient instructional practices in use today that are contributing to children's reading problems as well as problems in other learning areas Since these are practices over which teachers have direct or indirect control, there is every reason to believe that a modicum of teacher concern could result in tremendous learning dividends for the children involved A discussion of some of these practices follows.[3]

Failing to recognize the basic nature of word perception skills

Some teachers put the cart before the horse by stressing comprehension skills rather than word perception skills These teachers fail to realize that an adequate sight vocabulary is fundamental to all reading skills. Brown and Loper concur in this belief when they state[4]

> . Although comprehension of reading material is the ultimate purpose of reading, there can be little hope that a student will ever be able to understand a passage unless he has sufficient word recognition skills to identify the printed words which make up the passage It is not a question of whether word recognition or comprehension is more important, it is simply an understanding that written words cannot convey meaning to a student unless he is able to decipher them
>
> . . Since beginning reading instruction is so largely concerned with the skills of word identification, it is not at all peculiar to find that most students who experience

difficulty in reading in the first three grades do so because of poor abilities in the area of word recognition rather than comprehension

Children who come from culturally deprived homes may have meager backgrounds which make it difficult or impossible for them to bring proper meaning to the printed page Such children need enriching experiences before they are ready for reading But the average child comes to school with a wide speaking vocabulary With this in mind, it is evident that the job of the primary teacher is one of helping the child learn how to match "those little scratches on paper" with their familiar auditory counterpart Psychologically, there is great similarity between speech and reading. As Buswell states

> the difference being mainly in the sense avenues through which the verbal stimuli are received The essential difference between knowing how to read and how to understand oral speech is the substitution of visual perception of printed verbal symbols for the auditory impression of the same symbols when spoken The thoughts expressed are the same, the vocabulary is the same, and the word order is the same The new problem in reading is to learn to recognize the visual symbols with accuracy and reasonable speed[5]

Failing to eliminate individual difficulties when they first appear

"A stitch in time saves nine." And so it is with reading problems The teacher who overlooks small difficulties or convinces herself that time will automatically take care of everything is setting the scene for future failure and frustration The time for correction is when difficulties first arise and are few in number. Harold has trouble with his initial consonants, Mary confuses certain short vowel sounds, and Jimmy reads haltingly, one word at a time Instead of moving on to more complex skills, the wise teacher corrects these kinds of problems immediately

The golden age of prevention coincides with the primary grades No structure is stronger than its foundation Therefore primary teachers should have as their goal, mastery of reading skills taught at each level. Sherk[6] states "Eighty-five percent of the clinic cases referred to us are cured of their reading problems by simple reteaching of basic skills. This suggests that, if the pupil had been approached properly concerning reading from the beginning, he would not have become a disabled reader"[7]

Failing to help children develop strong self-concepts

A number of research studies have shown that a positive relationship exists between the quality of a child's self-concept and his reading ability[8] Any teacher who wishes to have her pupils improve in their reading ability should do all she can to help them enhance their self-image. Some suggestions are

1. Have confidence in pupils' ability to achieve Teacher expectation is a powerful force in pupil achievement[9]
2. Provide a classroom atmosphere that is warm and accepting.
3. Cultivate humor in the classroom Remember, too, that the teacher who can laugh at herself is likely to have a warm relationship with her pupils.[10]
4. Foster pupils' individuality by
    a addressing each child by his own name
    b supplying material that coincides with pupils' interest and reading levels.
    c encouraging children to keep individual progress charts that are designed to foster self-competition and not group competition
    d showing children who have been absent from school that the class missed them.
    e praising pupils when praise is deserved Derogatory remarks that can negate self-esteem should be avoided

Employing a round-robin method of teaching reading

Traditional round-robin reading with a heterogeneous group is as outdated pedagogically as the dodo. Surprisingly, there still are classrooms where this archaic procedure of teaching reading persists.

Who benefits from round-robin reading? Very few children. When a slow reader is called upon to read, he mumbles and stumbles as he attempts the activity. The more proficient readers in the class are bored to death and read ahead on their own to finish the selection Should the latter attempt to follow the slow and halting reader, it is conceivable that they might acquire some of the bad habits to which they are exposed. And when a proficient reader is called upon to read aloud, he does so with such fluency that the deficient readers are unable to follow what is taking place

Does this mean that oral reading is to be avoided? Quite to the contrary. Oral reading definitely has an important place in the total reading program Some of the values of oral reading are. (1) oral reading is helpful in removing speech defects that may be the result of another language in the home or from a culturally deprived background; (2) oral reading in a group setting may help a shy child gain self-confidence and poise, (3) oral reading provides needed practice in oral communication which may improve conversational skill, (4) oral reading provides the teacher with diagnostic opportunities and can be used to evaluate reading progress, and (5) oral reading is enjoyed by most children and results in increased motivation.

Teachers who wish to improve oral reading instruction will find suggestions such as the following helpful:[11]

1. Provide children with a model of good oral reading This can be done by having them listen to radio and TV programs, commercial or teacher-made recordings of exemplary readers, or to the teacher's reading.
2. Give children opportunities to read material silently before reading it aloud.
3. Minimize round-robin reading activity and substitute meaningful reading before an audience. This can be accomplished in a number of ways.
   a. Children can turn a story into a play by reading aloud suitable parts.
   b Children can read aloud sections from a story as others act out what they have heard
   c. Children can simulate a radio or TV program (the latter can be done by having children illustrate parts of a story or play with pictures or slides) by reading before a microphone over station READ.
   d Children can read, in proper sequence, numbered parts of a story that has been cut and divided. It is advisable to mount the story on oaktag before cutting it into parts.
   e. Children can read aloud announcements, directions or instructions before the group or class.
   f Children can provide general information relating to a topic or subject under consideration by reading aloud before the group or class
   g Children can read poetry or poetic prose in unison or in groups or by parts Choral reading of this kind has many values:
      (1) It develops a feeling of belongingness and helps build self-confidence among shy children.
      (2) It teaches cooperation because the children participating must work together if the speaking choir is to produce results that are pleasing.
      (3) It motivates children to improve the quality of their speech.
      (4) It enhances children's appreciation of poetry.
4. Don't overlook the tape recorder Children love to hear themselves and are motivated by its use In addition, the device is valuable as a diagnostic tool and can be used to provide children with opportunities for self-analysis of oral reading errors.

Requiring readers to use material on a frustration level of difficulty

You can't increase your strength by attempting to lift weights that are too heavy to manipulate. By the same token, a child can't improve in his reading skill when he is given books that are too difficult.

It is widely recognized that extensive independent reading is basic to improvement. One of the things that can be done to encourage wide reading is to strengthen an interest in reading for pleasure. But, pupils will not read for pleasure if they are exposed to material that is too difficult. As a matter of fact, reading on a frustration level is likely to result in an intense dislike of reading and an increased avoidance of it

Finding the right book for the right child in terms of difficulty can be accomplished informally by having a child read aloud short selections from a well-graded series of basal readers Although recently challenged by Powell[12], widely held criteria for determining a child's independent, instructional, and frustration levels are as follows:

Independent Reading Level. This is the highest reading level at which a child can read easily and fluently, without help, with few word recognition errors and very good comprehension and retention Word recognition errors do not exceed more than one per 100 words of running text and comprehension scores based on both factual and inferential type questions are ninety percent or higher The independent reading level is the level of optimum difficulty for recreational reading.

Instructional Reading Level. This is the highest level at which a child can read satisfactorily, provided he receives teacher preparation and supervision Word recognition errors do not exceed more than five per 100 words of running text, and comprehension scores based on both factual and inferential type questions are seventy-five percent or more The instructional reading level is the level of optimum difficulty for textbook reading.

Frustration Reading Level This is the lowest level at which a child's reading skills break down. Fluency disappears, word-recognition errors are common, comprehension is defective, retention is poor and evidence of emotional tension and discomfort manifest itself Word-recognition errors exceed ten per 100 words of running text and comprehension scores based on both factual and inferential questions are fifty percent or less The frustration reading level is the level that usually reflects the difficulty of textbooks used by retarded readers

Standardized test scores sometimes lead teachers to erroneous conclusions regarding a child's optimum reading level If, for example, Jimmy has a silent reading test score of 4 2, a teacher might assume that an easy fourth-grade book would be just right for him Quite to the contrary It is very probable that an easy fourth-grade book would prove far too difficult The reason? Assuming Jimmy put forth his best efforts when taking the test on which he scored 4 2, the score is very likely indicative of his frustration level Therefore, a third-grade book might be a better choice for Jimmy's instructional level And optimum difficulty for Jimmy's independent reading, might be on the second-grade level

Adhering slavishly to ability grouping

Are teachers groping or grouping? In any event, many adhere slavishly to one type of group — ability or achievement grouping Invariably, children are divided, according to their reading level, into three groups Often group designations such as "bluebirds, robins, and sparrows, oranges, grapefruits, and lemons" are employed. Needless to say, such labels are likely to stigmatize children and dampen their enthusiasm for reading If labels for ability grouping are to be applied, it might be desirable to choose one of the children's names for purposes of designation. Thus, it may be Harry's group or Mary's group. Perhaps, too, the groups may wish to select their own names For example, if the class is studying about the American Indian, they may wish to be called by the name of an Indian tribe.

Another factor of concern is the teacher's attitude toward reading groups. She is likely to consider the number one group as "bright", the number two group as "normal", and the number three groups as "dull" and rather hopeless. Unfortunately, when working with these groups, her demeanor often mirrors her attitudes. She is spirited when working with number one group, somewhat somber with the middle group, and downright depressed with number three group Since children are good detectives, even the smallest behavioral clue may be spotted by them. According to Eric Berne, author of *What Do You Say After You Say Hello,*[13] very minor facial expressions of which an individual may be completely unaware, often are perceptible to others and influence their reactions profoundly.

"Once in the slow group, always in the slow group" This is another danger of ability grouping of which the teacher must be aware It is very important that a teacher maintain flexibility in grouping. In this regard, Harris states.[14]

> Children should be moved from one group to another whenever it becomes evident that their reading needs can be better met in the new group. Children differ in their rates of progress, some outgrow a slow group, while others are unable to keep up with a faster group Sometimes a child who has been floundering as the poorest reader in a group takes on new lease of life when he finds that he is one of the best readers in his new group. Similarly, a child who glides through his group assignments with a minimum of effort may respond with redoubled energy to the challenge of working at a higher level of difficulty.

Successful teachers do not stop with ability grouping in their attempts to provide for individual differences. They may employ special needs grouping, interest and research grouping, and team and tutorial grouping.

These are strongly recommended because they free children from the stigma usually associated with grouping

Special Needs Grouping. An alert teacher frequently discovers pupils in her classroom who have similar problems. For example, a third-grade teacher finds that several children are confused by the short vowel sounds of the letters "e" and "i" As a result, she brings the children together and provides appropriate instructional material When they have overcome their deficiency, the group is disbanded This kind of grouping is a valuable corrective reading technique that can reduce the need for remedial reading by preventing small problems from growing into large ones.

Interest and Research Grouping. When children have interests in common or are interested in finding answers to a specific problem, a teacher can introduce interest or research grouping. For example, several sixth-grade boys may be interested in Indian weapons while another group would like to research differences in the hunting practices of Eskimos and American Indians Poor, average, and good readers may join the groups since the teacher, with the assistance of the school librarian, can provide appropriate reading materials on varying levels of difficulty A tape recorder may be used for a few of the choicest selections to play to the class as a whole

Team and Tutorial Grouping. Because two children share a common interest or need, they may wish to combine their talents and work together Since each may know more about certain aspects of the subject than the other, the team activity is mutually beneficial As the saying goes, "two heads are better than one" If the difference in reading ability between the two children is very great, a tutorial relationship develops Teachers who want to employ team or tutorial grouping may wish to use sociometric techniques to minimize personality clashes that can result when two children work together

Failing to utilize adequate and appropriate corrective material

A teacher needs an array of corrective material in her classroom to meet the varying reading problems of her pupils Selection of the proper corrective material to help a pupil overcome a weakness or problem is very important A child should not be given a workbook or an exercise because "it worked with Jimmy last year" or because "it's time to make use of those extra booklets. Remedies for reading ills should be chosen with care — as much care as a medical doctor exercises when he prescribes remedies for physical ills.

Teachers may use commercial or teacher-made materials for reading correction. And in the case of the latter, children may participate in their construction. This is often true when games are being made. Needless to say, reading games, if carefully selected in terms of content, difficulty, and pupil interest, make ideal individualized corrective material [15]

When designing corrective material, special attention should be given to making it self-directive. With poor readers, group instruction is not always feasible and individual tutoring is impractical The use of self-directive materials enables each pupil to correct his difficulties at his own rate with a minimum of teacher supervision

Failing to promote wholesome teacher-pupil relationships

When questioned as to how she managed to earn a grade of "A" in a science course in which she seemed destined to fail, a high school sophomore said, "Well, we got a new teacher and I liked him."

Perhaps no condition for learning at any level is more important than a wholesome teacher-pupil relationship. The pupil who likes his teacher is the pupil who likes to learn In the beginning the pupil may work to please the teacher because he wants recognition and praise from someone he likes Later, however, this extrinsic form of motivation is likely to turn into an interest in the subject being taught. And in the final analysis, this is what results in excellence. The best kind of motivation comes from within rather than being imposed from without

Some teachers employ the finest methods and use the best materials, but, if they exhibit traits of unfairness, sarcasm, or ridicule, pupils will resist learning. Soon learning is replaced by loss of interest, emotional tensions, and disciplinary problems

Classroom teachers need to be warm and understanding and have a genuine interest in children. These are the basic teacher qualities that give rise to a mentally hygienic classroom atmosphere that can have a magical effect on children and learning.

FOOTNOTES

[1] H Robinson, **Why Pupils Fail in Reading** (Chicago University of Chicago Press, 1946)

[2] W Kottmeyer, **Teacher's Guide for Remedial Reading** (St Louis Webster Publishing Company, 1959), p 16

[3] For a more extensive treatment of classroom conditions and practices which tend to produce and aggravate reading disabilities, see D Schubert and T Torgerson, **Improving the Reading Program** (Dubuque, Iowa, William C. Brown Company, Publishers, 1972), ch 2

[4] D Brown and D Loper, "Word Recognition in the Elementary School," **Corrective Reading in the Elementary Classroom** (Newark, Delaware International Reading Association, 1968), p. 91

[5] G Buswell, "The Process of Reading", **The Reading Teacher** (November, 1959), p 108

[6] J Sherk, "School Clinics", **Reading and Realism,** J Allen Figurel, ed (Newark, Delaware International Reading Association, 1969), p 357

[7] R Bodwin, "The Relationship Between Immature Self-Concept and Certain Educational Disabilities" **Dissertation Abstracts,** 19 1645-1646, 1959

[8] D Lumpkin, "Relationship of Self-Concept to Achievement in Reading" Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Michigan, 1960

[9] R Rosenthal and L Jacobson, **Pygmalion in the Classroom** (New York Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc , 1968).

[10] H Gilliland and H Mauritsen, "Humor in the Classroom" **The Reading Teacher** (May, 1971), pp 753-761

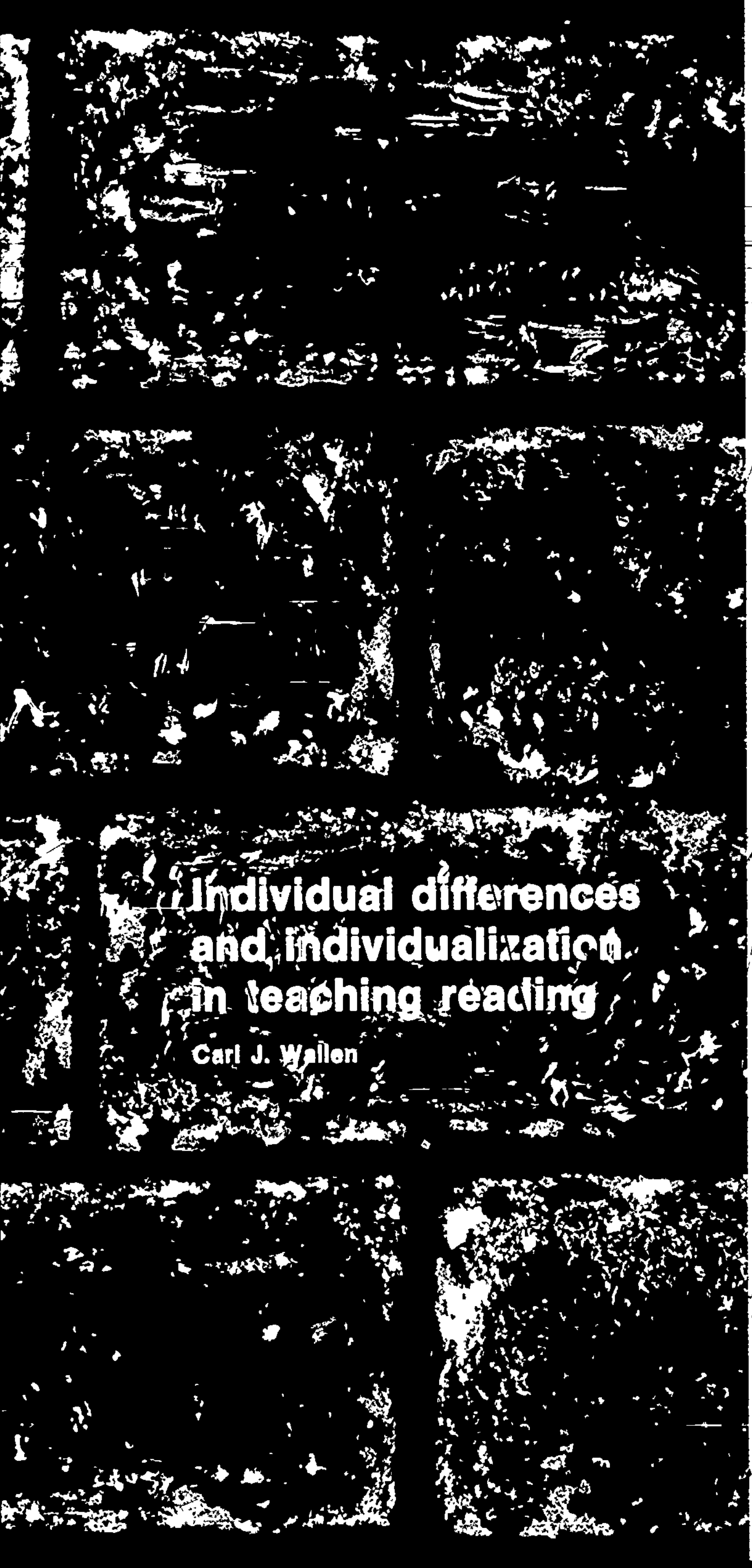
[11] D Schubert and T Torgerson, op cit., pp 83-84

[12] W Powell, "Reappraising the Criteria for Interpreting Informal Inventories", **Reading Diagnosis and Evaluation,** Ed D DeBoer, 1968 Proceedings, 13, Part 4 (Newark, Delaware International Reading Association, 1970), pp 100-109.

[13] E Berne, **What Do You Say After You Say Hello.** (New York Bantom Books, Inc., 1972) pp 245-248

[14] A Harris, **How To Increase Reading Ability,** 5th ed (New York, David McKay Company, Inc , 1970) pp 119-121

[15] See chapters 8, 9, and 10 of Schubert and Torgerson, op. cit.



Individual Differences and Individualization in Teaching Reading

Carl J. Wallen

Most teachers believe that individual differences should be provided for, and feel guilty for not doing enough about them. Yet, they are often less effective in accomplishing this than they could be because of a confusion about how individualization can be accomplished. The misunderstanding is characterized by comments such as, "My principal says that individualization is too expensive" or "I would like to individualize but my principal gets very upset when children are out of their seats a lot." Teachers making the former comment seem to be individualizing with a method commonly called individualized reading. children read trade books of their own choosing, teachers hold individual conferences of seven to ten minutes duration with each child once or twice a week, and conference records are kept by both the teacher and children. Teachers making the latter comment seem to be confusing individualization with a social setting that is often referred to as the open classroom.

A much more useful notion of individualization, and one suggested by most educational psychologists, is the adaptation of instruction to individual differences. The adaptation can occur — or fail to occur — with different reading methods, such as individualized, programmed or basal, and in different social settings, ranging from those where children spend most of the day sitting at their desks to those where they are seldom at their desks. Basic to this psychological notion of individualization is the recognition that individual differences exist in learners, whether or not the teacher is either willing or able to provide the appropriate differentiated instruction. Viewed from the psychological point of view, individualization is not a dichotomous situation that one either has or has not attained. Rather, it is a process of adaption that exists along a continuum, from little provision of differentiated instruction to much provision.

The confusion about individualization on the part of teachers, and their feelings of guilt about not doing enough of it, is probably a reflection of the way educational psychologists typically deal with the topic of individual differences. As early as 1914, the eminent educational psychologist E. L. Thorndike recognized that differences do exist between learners and that, contrary to common belief, equal learning opportunity appears to increase differences in learner performance rather than equalize them Cronbach is chagrined by the way schools have responded to individual differences He stated that "most tactics the school used are intended to minimize the nuisance of individual differences so that it can go on teaching the same unaltered course. This is also true of remedial instruction, which adds onto the common program rather than redesigning it." (Cronbach, 1967, p. 27) But after the educational psychologists point to the existence of individual differences and express a feeling of guilt about the way schools provide for those differences, they then seem to try solving the problem by simply avoiding it.

The notion of individualization as being adapting instruction to individual differences can be approached in a useful way by synthesizing the efforts of both psychologists and educationalists. The model of individualization presented here represents my synthesis of ideas presented by the psychologist Cronbach (1967, 24), who refers to them as "Patterns of Educational Adaption to Individual Differences," and the educationalist Betts (1957, 713f), who refers to them as "Levels of Differentiation." The model Betts suggested is now outdated as it refers only to a basal reading series. Cronbach provides an orientation for updating Betts' model

The model here is based on the assumption that individualization in reading is achieved through the interaction of three variables: (1) the provision of instructional options, (2) the appropriateness of specific instructional items (lessons) for each learner at that particular time in his development; and (3) the integration of reading with other instructional activities, such as occurs in natural settings outside the classroom. The greater the degree to which the three variables are present, the more individualization is probably present.

Levels of Individualization

Level one

Characteristics. The same lesson is provided for all children in a given class. There is no grouping The lesson may be from a published series or a program developed by the teacher Any records that are kept deal with lessons completed by children, for example. "Suzy has completed books 1.1, 1.2, 2.1 and 2.2"

Examples. A teacher might be giving a certain lesson from a phonics text or basal text to the entire class. All children in the class are involved, and all receive the same instruction The teacher might have all children read a story from a basal text and answer the comprehension questions.

Level two

Characteristics. All children use the same series of instructional materials but they receive instruction in two or more groups. Each group is at a different place in the series. The teacher spends most of the reading period instructing groups. Any records that are kept deal with the lessons completed by children, as with Level One.

Examples. The teacher might have a basal series, with one group at some grade level and the other groups above or below that level. All children in one group do the same lesson Children will occasionally be moved from one group to another when their reading performance indicates that another group might be more appropriate for their present level of development.

Level three

Characteristics. All children have the same series of instructional materials, but it is organized so that they proceed through the series at their own pace If published, the program is self-instructional and may even be programmed. Teachers devote most of their time to managing the program; doing things such as getting a child into the appropriate book, overseeing the occasional tests, answering questions about confusing items. They devote little time to teaching individual children directly. Records deal with the books or units a child completes, much as in Level One.

Examples. The teacher might be using a programmed reader, where children correct their own responses. The emphasis is on children moving at different rates through a single sequence of instructional exercises, for example, they all do Book 8 in the series sometime in their school career. The teacher might be using an integrated program, such as language-experience, where the children spend much time discussing experiences, writing stories about the experiences, and reading the stories written by others But at this level little emphasis is placed on the specific reading skills attained by a child and the only records maintained deal with the books the child has read.

Level four

Characteristics. All children have the same series of instructional materials, and it is organized so that they proceed through it at their own pace The program is self-instructional. The materials identify a sequence of objectives that each child should attain, provide a test for each objective, and provide or identify a specific lesson that is appropriate for each objective Children maintain a record of their attainment of specific objectives, possibly with some teacher help. Teachers spend most of their time managing the program; doing things such as helping children take and score the tests, identify and locate the appropriate lessons for objectives, and record objectives attained. They devote little time to teaching individual children directly.

Examples. The teacher might be using a criterion-referenced reading system. The program could be published or could be developed by teachers. The distinguishing characteristic of the program, whether published or not, is an identified list of objectives and prepared tests and lessons for each objective A child does the lesson for the objective only is he performs inadequately on the test for the objective. The records deal with the objective the child has attained as indicated by his passing the test for the objective, for example, "Suzy has attained Objectives 21.12, 21.13, 21.14, 21.15, 21 21," etc The records are generally kept on a chart, each child having his own.

Level five

Characteristics. A number of published and unpublished series of materials are used; some may be self-instructional. Some of the materials may be organized into learning centers. Each child is usually assigned to one set of materials, the other materials are used as supplements. The teacher spends roughly half the time instructing children individually or in groups and the other half of the time managing the program Children usually maintain whatever records are kept, with some teacher direction. The records deal with lessons or units the child has completed, as with Levels One and Two.

Examples. Methods are combined. For example, an individualized reading method is used as the basic approach, and the children also spend part of every reading period doing programmed readers. A language-experience method might be used with a criterion-referenced reading system. If a sufficient variety of materials exists, the teacher may try a child out on different sets of materials and then select the one that seems most suitable for the child. Record keeping tends to be focused on the method selected. Little emphasis is usually placed on maintaining other records.

Level six

Characteristics. One published series of materials is used and all children follow the same instructional sequence. Children are instructed in groups; each group is at a different place in the sequence. There are three or more groups The major difference between this level and Level Two is that the teacher uses diagnostic teaching in adapting lessons to each group's reading performance. The teacher maintains records of each child's attainment of each specific reading objective, as with Level Four. The teacher devotes most of the reading period to directly instructing children, and spends little time managing the program.

Examples. Teachers might use a basal reading series, with one group at grade level and others scattered above and below that level Prior to doing a lesson with a certain group, the teacher tests the children on the lesson's objectives to determine which children in the group actually need that lesson. The teacher then provides the lesson only for those children who showed they needed it by performing inadequately on the test. The other children do independent activities. Instruction for the lesson continues until the children receiving it have attained the lesson's objective.

Level seven

Characteristics. One published series is used. The series is self-instructional All children have the same sequence of instruction, but each is at a different place in the sequence The teacher utilizes diagnostic teaching in determining children's attainment of the reading objectives on a list identified by teacher, and then in providing any appropriate supplementary instruction In effect, the teacher runs a diagnostic teaching program that is independent, but complementary, of the program provided in the published series The teacher maintains records of children's attainment of the specific objectives in the list identified by the teacher The teacher spends most of the time directly instructing individual and small groups of children

Examples The teacher might use a certain published programmed reader series or criterion-referenced reading system. The teacher carries out a supplementary program of testing for objectives and then teaching for those objectives not attained The teacher spends most of the reading period carrying out this diagnostic teaching program with individuals and small groups The children spend most of the period doing independently activities that involve using such things as the self-instructional program, doing recreational reading, completing projects for social studies, science, or mathematics and painting drawing or sculpting

Level eight

Characteristics A number of published and unpublished sets of materials are used, some may be self-instructional Some of the materials may be organized into learning centers The teacher utilizes diagnostic teaching in determining each child's attainment of each objective in a list of objectives identified by the teacher, and then in providing the appropriate instruction The teacher maintains records of children's attainment of the specific objectives on the teacher's list The teacher spends most of the time directly instructing individuals and small groups.

Examples The teacher probably has two or more learning centers and activity centers such as reading and language games, science experiments, and art projects Children may be assigned to spend part of each day doing a self-instructional reading program The teacher carries out a diagnostic teaching program that is separate from the learning centers and activities.

Level nine

Characteristics The reading and language arts programs are partially integrated with programs in social studies, science, mathematics, and art The integration is achieved by initiating activities during one of the other programs and then continuing it during the reading period, usually as an independent activity A time for reading instruction is scheduled each day During this period the teacher devotes most of the time to carrying out a diagnostic teaching program that is based on a list of objectives identified by the teacher The teacher maintains records of children's attainment of the specific objectives on the identified list Published reading materials might be utilized, but only incidentally to the unit activities

Examples The teacher might initiate a social studies unit on Mexico As a part of this unit the children do research on Mexico, make maps showing the major features of Mexico, and prepare costumes and sets for a play During the scheduled reading period the children can work on these activities after they finish their reading assignments The teacher instructs individuals and small groups of children while the others complete a reading assignment given by the teacher or carry out the social studies activities

Level ten

Characteristics The total school program is integrated so that children spend most of the day carrying out meaningful and interesting activities they have helped plan No specific period during the day is scheduled for reading Instead, the teacher utilizes diagnostic teaching and relates all testing and teaching in a meaningful way to the activities the children are doing Published reading materials might be utilized but only incidentally to the unit activities The teacher maintains records of children's attainment of the specific reading objectives given on the list used by the teacher

Examples A unit on Mexico might be initiated, as was described for Level Nine But all reading instruction would be related to the unit For example, the teacher notices that some children are having difficulty dealing with conflicting information derived from different sources, and determines that they could benefit from some direct instruction in critical reading The teacher explains the children's difficulty to them in such a way that they agree that they need help in critical reading if they are to successfully complete an activity in the unit on Mexico The teacher might utilize basal readers in providing lessons on critical reading. A teacher in the first grade might use the same general approach with children having difficulty with phonic word attack The instruction might be provided as a supplementary unit, or it might be provided in the context of helping a child with the social studies unit by writing a story or reading someone else s story

Achieving greater individualization

Children's motivation is a critical determiner of their learning. Likewise, the teacher's motivation is important if greater individualization is to be attempted. Teachers should attempt to achieve greater individualization of reading instruction only if they really care to provide more adequately for children's individual differences

Assuming the teacher is motivated to achieve greater individualization, the first step is to identify the level of individualization that is occurring in the classroom at present Read the description of the ten levels carefully ~~and then identify the~~ level in your room.

The second step is to plan strategies for achieving greater individualization The strategies could be of three types: (1) providing more instructional options; (2) diagnostic teaching, and, (3) integrating reading with other school subjects The model should suggest how these strategies might be planned. Perhaps some examples will be helpful

Providing instructional options

If the classroom is presently at Level One — the teacher might be using one published reading series with all children doing the same lesson at the same time — the teacher can move to Level Two by creating three or more reading groups, each of which will be at a different place in the published series. The teacher will need to determine each child's reading level by means of standardized achievement tests or informal reading inventories All children within a range of one-half to one and one-half are then probably assigned to one group, and the appropriate level text in the series is used for instruction

If the classroom is presently at Level Four — the teacher might be using one of the currently popular criterion-referenced reading systems — the teacher can move to Level Five by utilizing another reading method such as language experience. To accomplish this move, the teacher would need to learn about how the language experience method operates, giving particular attention to materials, procedures, and unique classroom management arrangements The teacher would need to develop the children's proficiency in doing the criterion-referenced system independently, so that the teacher can spend most of the time helping individuals and small groups carry out language experience.

Diagnostic teaching

Diagnostic teaching means the ability to identify and provide for children's specific reading skill needs. The diagnostic teacher is competent in using formal and informal instruments to determine a child's functional reading levels. The diagnostic teacher is competent in designing exercises appropriate for specified reading skill objectives. For example, they can design a test suitable for a recognition objective like "phonic word attack-initial consonant t" and a comprehension objective like "interpretation-conclusion-fifth level-social science." It is not important which particular list of reading skill objectives is used, only that the teacher is able to design and conduct testing and teaching exercises for whatever list is selected.

The teacher needs to realize that competency in diagnostic teaching is not something that can be gained by purchasing a set of published materials. It can be gained only by developing one's understanding of diagnostic procedures and one's ability to design and conduct exercises suitable for specified objectives. In short, it can be gained only by active participation in inservice training programs.

Integrating reading with other subjects

Strategies related to developing integrated school programs are the most difficult to utilize because they involve all school subjects In addition to being competent in teaching reading, the teacher must also become competent in designing and conducting units in social studies and science that unify all other school subjects A science unit on the desert or a social studies unit on community helpers should involve, along with science and social studies, subjects such as art, mathematics, drama, reading, writing listening The teacher cannot depend solely on one of the published programs in social studies or science The published programs simply serve as one resource among many in a program that arises from the perceived needs of the children, is related to their environments, and evolves through the joint planning of both teachers and children.

There is a great wealth of literature about unit planning, both in professional texts and in manuals accompanying many published programs Teachers who are already using unit approaches can serve as a very useful resource Their rooms can be observed during school hours, and they can describe how they plan, the materials and procedures they use, and the frustrations that one can expect in any initial attempts to develop integrated school programs They can demonstrate how they carry out units with children

Conclusion

This article is intended for teachers who believe that individual differences are important and should be provided for, but are not sure how individualization can be achieved in their classroom It describes a model of individualization in reading having ten levels

Teachers and administrators interested in achieving greater individualization should realize the wisdom of the ancient adage that "Rome was not built in a day" Highly individualized programs are not either They must be accomplished one step at a time, and in an atmosphere that appreciates growth and accepts occasional failure It is, after all, better to have tried and failed then to have failed to try at all

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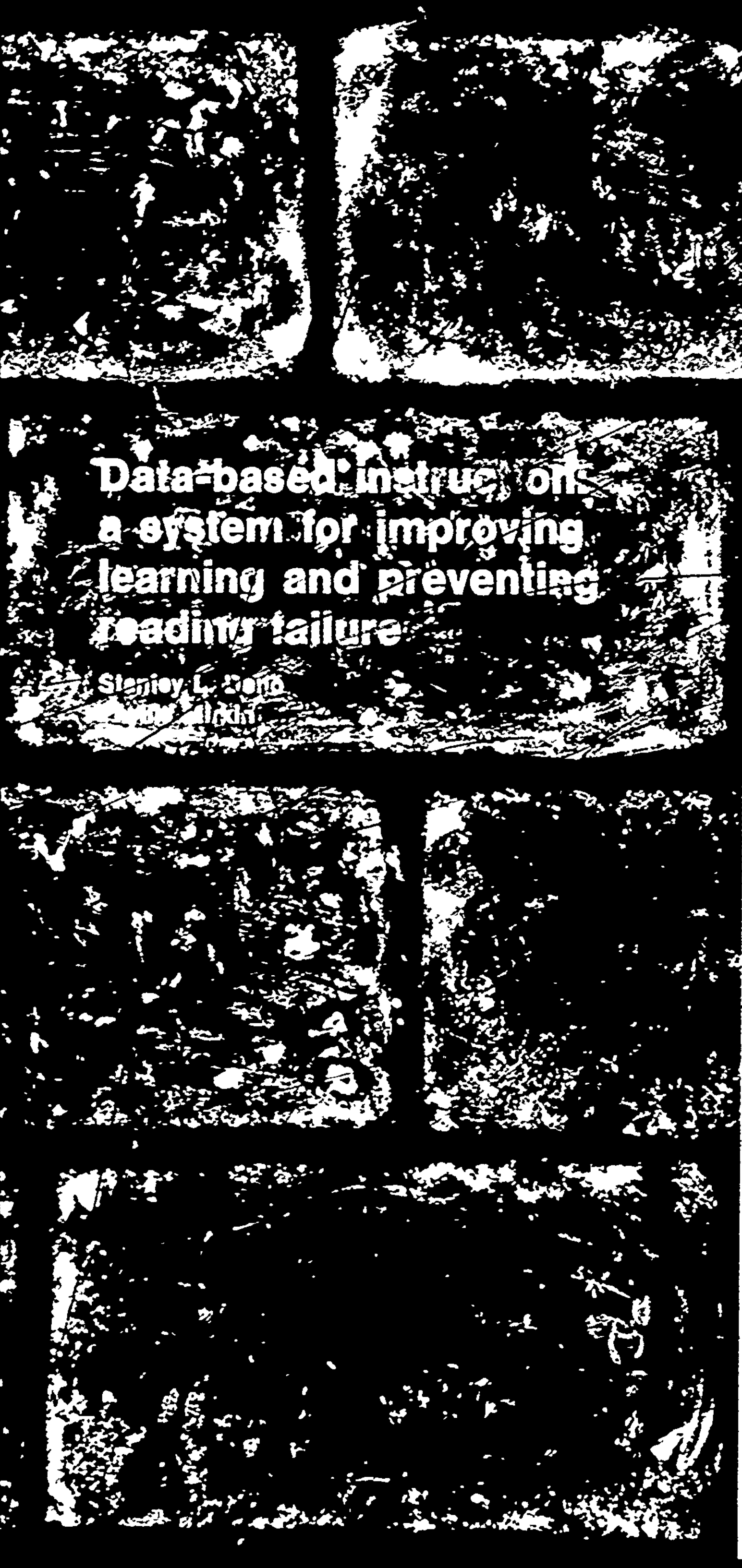

Data-Based Instruction: A System for Improving Learning and Preventing Reading Failure.

Stanley L. Deno
Phyllis Mirkin

The purpose of this paper is to consider how instruction can be organized to maximize a child's rate of progress in learning to read. In considering improving reading programs three questions will be examined. First, are there characteristics of reading instruction as it is "usually" organized that contribute to reading failures? Second, what is data-based instruction and can it be used to prevent reading failure? Third, can a data based instructional program be implemented within the confines of the regular class setting?

Current Reading Instruction

We believe that there are two general characteristics of current reading programs which contribute directly and indirectly to reading failures. They are *norm-referenced instruction* and *program unresponsiveness*. Let's consider each of these characteristics separately.

Norm-referenced instruction

Reading programs, generally, are organized around the basic assumption that students are most appropriately viewed as high, middle, and low in their capacities for learning to read and, therefore, that instruction should be organized to accommodate these differing capacities. This view of the student and its logical instructional outcomes results in programs which anticipate, expect, and accept "being behind" (i.e., not developing minimal reading competence during the first three years of instruction) as a common, "naturally occurring" phenomenon. Given this assumption, failure to develop even functional literacy is viewed as a failure inherent within the child and not as a failure of the instructional program.

A second assumption which creates a norm-referenced reading program is that developmental differences in readiness for reading instruction exist. This means we can expect that whatever is specified as the age/grade beginning of reading instruction (for our school) will be inappropriate for some children who are not yet "ready" and their initial difficulty in learning to read, again, should be accepted as "natural," albeit temporary. Frequently, such an assumption leads to the notion that we should provide more "readiness" activities rather than direct instruction in reading for such youngsters thus further delaying their progress and ability to "catch up" to their peers.

Taken together, these two normative assumptions (i.e. "differing capacities" and "developmental readiness") promote instructional tracking (high, middle, and low groups) where failure, or at least reading retardation, is acceptable. Woe to the child who finds his niche in the retarded reader group. His world expects him to fail

Program unresponsiveness

A second characteristic of many current reading programs which frequently contributes to failure is the unresponsiveness of instruction to the daily learning needs of individual children This unresponsiveness is particularly evident when one analyzes the infrequency with which instructional programs change as a function of the progress of individuals rather than groups While teachers often believe that a day's teaching may have "reached," or been appropriate for only some (if any) of the individuals in a group the next day's reading lesson will usually vary only slightly (if at all) from what is the next prepared lesson in the teacher's manual. Even when attempts to change the next day's lesson are made, such changes are based, essentially, on the teacher's intuitive impressions of "what most of the group needs now," rather than on data regarding the effectiveness of instruction for individual children within in the group.

Reading performance data for individual children, when it is obtained, is infrequent and irregular and is almost never systematically related to specific instructional changes intended to improve individual students' performance. Usually given in the form of achievement tests, these measures are administered once each year, less for the purpose of improving (tailoring) the instruction for individuals that for. (a) certifying which individuals are succeeding or failing, (b) determining general effectiveness of instruction for groups, and (c) administrative accountability. Periodic achievement test results have no formative effect on the instructional programs of individual children and are often used to sanction placement of an individual in a "high," "Middle," or "low" group The net effect of this norm-referenced instruction is that the discrepancy between acceptable performance and the performance of a substantial number of low group children widens rather than narrows

Data based instruction

What are the necessary elements for program success? From the standpoint of systematic instructional design, the essential elements of a reading program which will maximize success and thereby reduce failure are as follows.

1 A *clear index* of the individual's development of reading proficiency
2. *Regular and frequent reporting* of this proficiency index for each individual in the program.
3. A *program adjustment mechanism* which insures frequent and systematic changes in instruction when an individual's proficiency index indicate a change is necessary.

A reading program which contains these three elements is organized around individual student performance, is responsive to the progress of individual students, and evolves in such a way that individual student progress is maximized despite prior assumptions regarding "capacity for learning to read" In such a program, assessment of student progress and evaluation of instruction is ongoing and provides objectives and quantitative data on how best to teach a particular child. Various curricular, instructional, and motivational changes in program are monitored in relation to learning and the results are used in making systematic decisions among alternative instructional prescriptions. An instructional program containing these elements is *data-based* and for present purposes is referred to as *data-based instruction*[1]

An example of data-based reading instruction

We have been working in an elementary school whose reading program is part of a large federally funded project for culturally different (disadvantaged) children. The schools involved in this project use the same

Student: Ricky School: ____________ Curriculum: ABC Reading Series

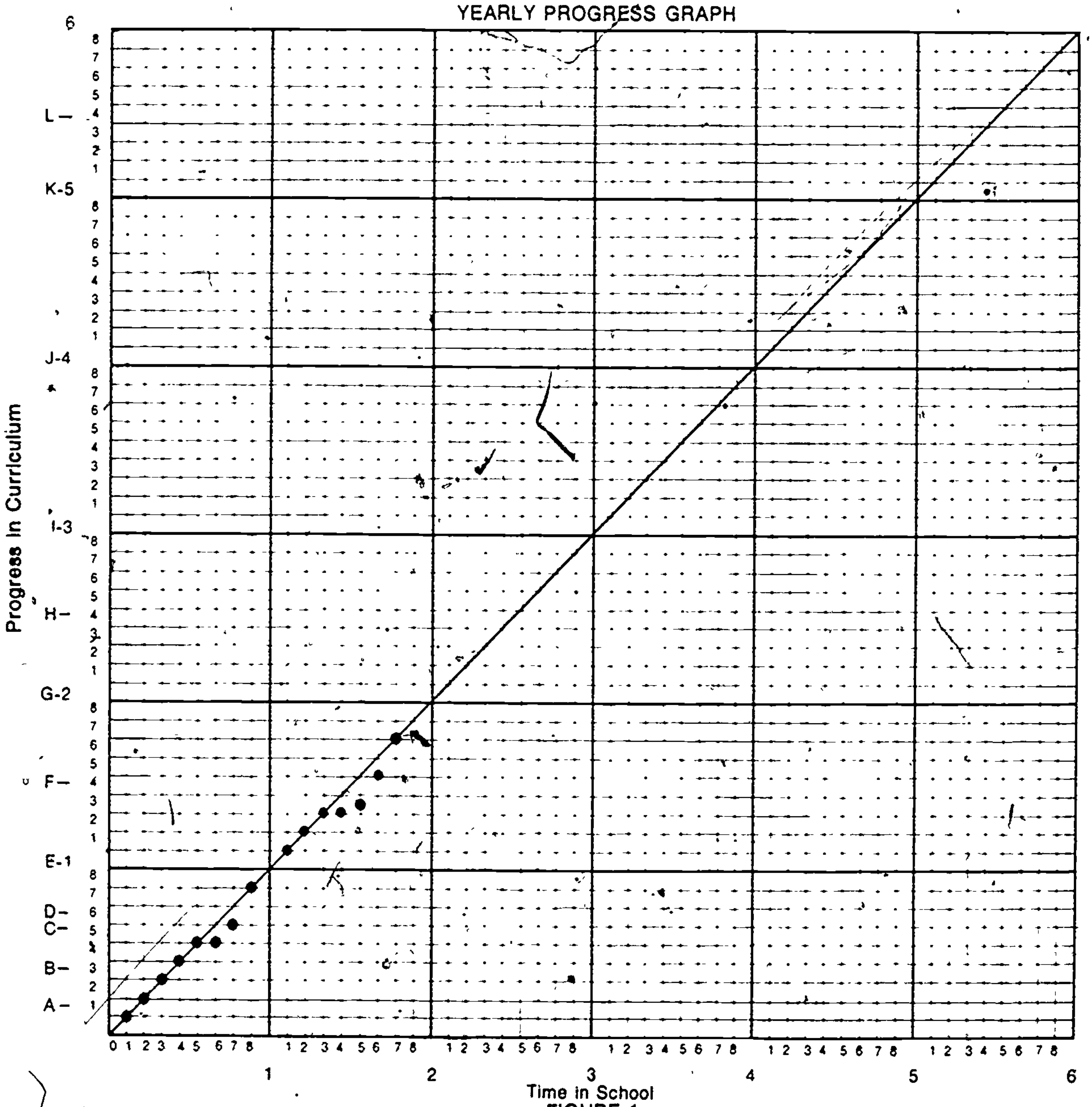

FIGURE 1

commercially produced basal reading series Desired rates of children's progress through the basal series are designated and significant amounts of human and material resources are supplied to individual teachers and schools in an effort to achieve the designated rates of progress with children. While there are some yearly improvements in the project achievement test scores, remarkably high proportions of children fall behind the desired rate of progress. In an effort to develop more effective programs for those handicapped children who were failing and to train resource teachers to help these children we have been involved in a program which as it evolved has as its components the three essential elements for reducing reading failure presented earlier in this paper.

A clear index. The index of progress is "rate of progress through the curriculum" which is defined as the relationship between "current level of proficiency" (or mastery) and "time in instructional program." The defining equation is, simply:

$$\text{rate of progress through the curriculum} = \frac{\text{current level of proficiency}}{\text{time in instructional program}}$$

This relationship is represented graphically in Figure 1.

The numerical sequence on the vertical axis of the graph represents what is commonly referred to as "grade level" in years and months. The alphabetic sequence represents the sequence of basal readers through which children progress and in which it is hoped they will be proficient. A child who can read proficiently in Books A. B. C. and D would be described as having progressed one year through the curriculum. Whether or not that child's progress is satisfactory, however, depends on the duration of his instruction. If he has received reading instruction for one *school year* (nine months) his rate of progress is satisfactory since

$$\text{rate of progress} = \frac{\text{1 year (level of proficiency)}}{\text{1 year (time in program)}} = \text{1 grade level/year}$$

Of course, should his time in the program have been two years, then his index would be unsatisfactory.

$$\text{rate of progress} = \frac{\text{1 year}}{\text{2 years}} = \text{.5 grade levels/year}$$

Other examples of satisfactory progress are:

$$\text{rate of progress} = \frac{\text{24 months}}{\text{18 months}} = \text{1.33 grade levels per year}$$

$$\text{rate of progress} = \frac{\text{12 months}}{\text{6 months}} = \text{2.0 grade levels per year}$$

And other examples of unsatisfactory progress are:

$$\text{rate of progress} = \frac{\text{24 months}}{\text{36 months}} = \text{.67 grade levels per year}$$

$$\text{rate of progress} = \frac{\text{9 months}}{\text{12 months}} = \text{.75 grade levels per year}$$

What becomes obvious from these examples is that satisfactory progress rate indices are always equal to, or greater than one (1.0), while unsatisfactory progress rate indices are always less than (1.0). This satisfactory progress rate is shown on the graph as the heavy diagonal line Students falling below the line are not progressing satisfactorily and are our major concern.

A final word needs to be said about "level of proficiency." Describing a child as "proficient through Book D" requires further definition in terms of the measures used to ascertain that proficiency. In our data-based instruction system, proficiency is defined in terms of the student's oral reading rate and his accuracy in answering comprehension questions. For Grades One and Two, a child is considered proficient if he can read orally at the rate of 50 words per minute with two or fewer errors from the Grade One or Two reader (Starlin, 1972 and Haughton, 1972) and can answer eighty percent of the comprehension questions which are directed to him. Proficiency in Grade Three and beyond require oral reading at one hundred words per minute with two or fewer errors and a continued accuracy of 80 percent or better in comprehension.

Regular and frequent reporting. Given the numerical rate of progress index varying around one (1 0) as the *clear index,* data-based instruction requires that this index be shown graphically at the beginning of each month A graph with at least monthly plotting of progress, is maintained for each child The Progress Graph becomes a public record which contains regular reports of an individual child's index of development in reading The plotted progress entered in Figure 1 illustrates such a graph for one student.

Program adjustment mechanism. While regular and frequent public recording of progress may itself be interesting to teachers, parents and administrators, in data-based instruction the value of the progress data is maximized when it is used to fashion a program of instruction which is increasingly effective for the individual child To ensure the continued adjustment of instruction relative to the individual child's reported progress index a set of operating procedures tie the progress index to program adjustment in a kind of continuous cybernetic (feedback and adjustment) loop. These operating procedures are as follows.

1. *Monthly progress graph sharing.* Progress graphs should be shared at least once a month with colleagues for professional feedback.
2. *Shift to daily progress recording.* As soon as an individual child's graph shows a drop below the desired progress rate (below the diagonal line on the graph) a shift should be made to daily recording of the individuals level of proficiency.

   Daily progress recording increases the sensitivity of measurement to variations in the child's progress rate, establishes the conditions for evaluating the effectiveness of successive changes in instruction, and thereby increases the probability that an individualized program will be fashioned which will improve the child's rate of progress
3. *Consistently implemented and evaluated changes* Daily progress recording establishes the conditions for evaluating instructional program changes, however, changes designed to improve a program (i e , increase the child's rate of progress) can only be evaluated if they are implemented consistently and held constant over a period of from 5-10 days of instruction (While it is tantalizing to make "more effective" changes in the instructional program as we think of them, in data-based instruction "effectiveness" is always defined by our index of progress, which should not be computed for a program interval of less than 5 days and is more reliable the longer the program interval Since we need to know which changes in the instructional program are effective in order to build a program which accelerates a child s progress we cannot afford to carelessly drop out or add instructional changes until the relative effectiveness of each change is known)
4. *Minimum frequency of program changes* A minimum of one consistently implemented change in instruction should be evaluated for each unsatisfactorily progressing child every two weeks.

Figure 2 illustrates a series of changes in instruction designed to increase the progress rate for an individual child.

The teardrop number for the interval *before* "Change 1" shows the unsatisfactory progress index which led to daily progress recording.
The effectiveness of each change can be determined by comparing the numbers (average progress index) in each successive teardrop on the graph.
A label for the type of change is written at the top of the graph above the progress data for the interval during which the change was consistently implemented. As can be seen from the example in Figure 2, not all Changes are equally effective. A comparison of the progress rates in the successive teardrops shows that "Change 1" produced a doubling in rate of progress, "Change 2" produced no increase in rate (over Change 1), and "Change 3" brought a small increase (over Change 2)

Does data-based instruction work?

Over a period of approximately two years teachers in training as Special Education Resource Teachers have learned to use the data-based instruction system for teaching as described above. Working with children ordinarily called mentally retarded and learning disabled each trainee has been able to effect an improvement in the child's rate of progress in reading at least

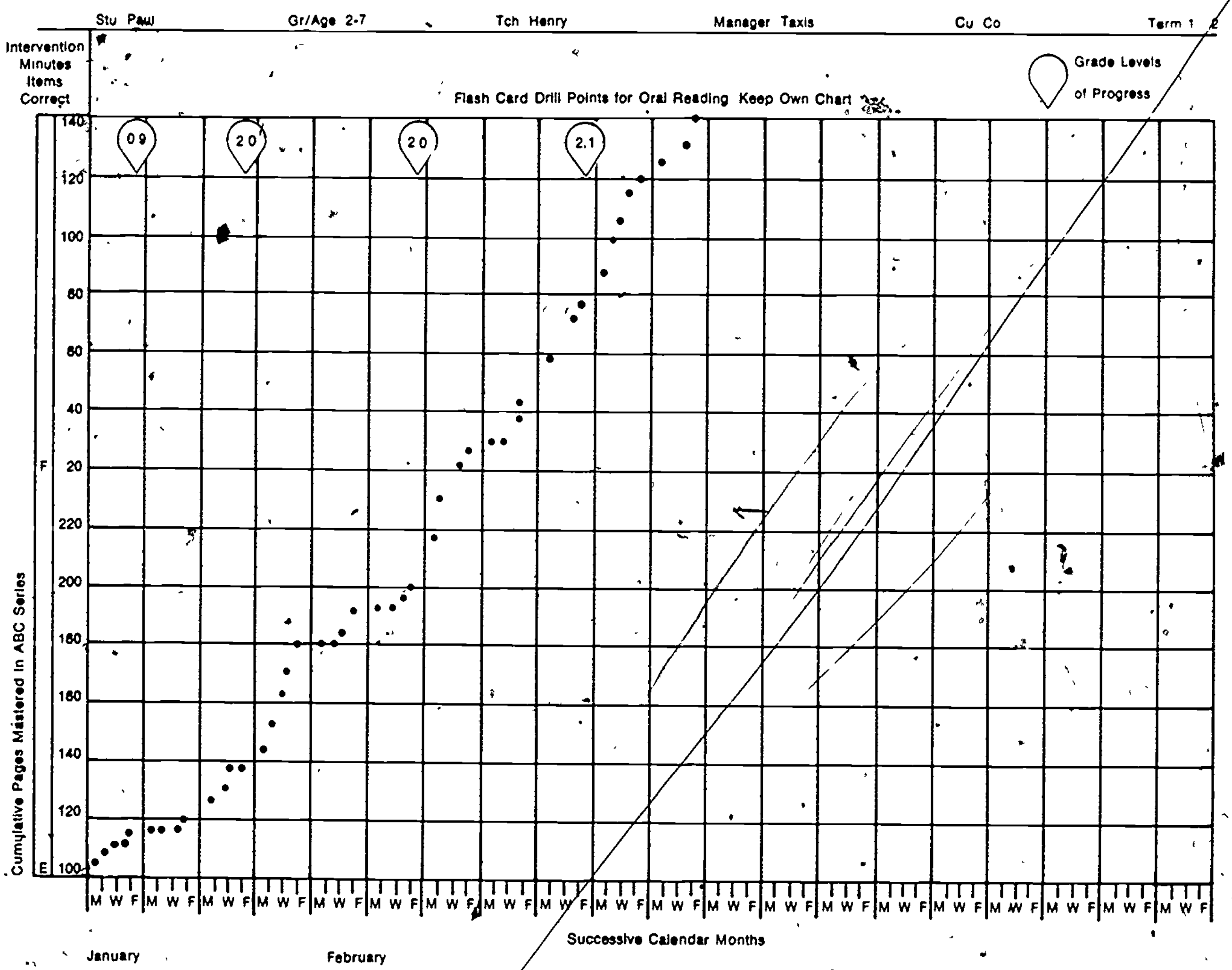
Stu Paul
Gr/Age 2-7
Tch Henry
Manager Taxis
Cu Co
Term 1 2
Intervention Minutes Items Correct
Flash Card Drill Points for Oral Reading Keep Own Chart
Grade Levels of Progress
0 9
2 0
2 0
2.1
140
120
100
80
60
40
20
220
200
180
160
140
120
100
F
E
Cumulative Pages Mastered in ABC Series
M W F
Successive Calendar Months
January
February

FIGURE 2

two times (one hundred percent) or greater over what had been the child's rate of progress prior to entering the data-based instruction system In some instances the increase in progress rate has increased between five and eight times.

In a study by Anderson (1973) the effects of data-based instruction were revealed by contrasting the development of reading vocabulary in two groups of children. A reliable difference in the acquisition of reading vocabulary occurred in favor of those children receiving instruction from resource teachers using daily recording and graphing as opposed to children whose teachers were not daily recording and graphing progress. In a study by Langer (1973) the same general results were obtained. Three interesting variations occurred in Langer's study, however. First, the "resource teachers" in the study were cross-aged tutors, and second, reading achievement was measured by oral reading performance Third, the contrast was obtained by contrasting the oral reading performance of the same child under conditions of daily recording and graphing as opposed to conditions where his oral reading performance was not recorded and graphed. Further support for the effectiveness of data-based instruction is reported by Jenkins and others (1973). In their study a single adult resource teacher taught two sets of reading vocabulary words to her students. Progress on one set of vocabulary words was recorded and graphed each day while progress on the other set was not recorded and graphed. The students in each instance learned more of the words on which their progress was recorded and graphed each day.

The argument made here is not that [illegible] improvements obtained under data-based instruction are simply explained by the use of daily recording and graphing. Surely each teacher and his students in the studies summarized above constitutes a unique set of relationships, and the actual changes made by each teacher were not rigidly prescribed for all the teachers in any one of the studies. What we do maintain is that in each case the instructional programs included the three essential elements of data-based instruction — a *clear index, regular* and *frequent reporting* and *program adjustment mechanism,* which, in a sense, guaranteed increased instructional effectiveness and decreased reading failure.

Program Implementation:

are there problems in implementation?

While the studies cited above support the efficacy of data-based instruction as a problem solving tool for teachers attempting to improve the quality of source to handicapped children within the regular education setting, the question remains as to whether a data-based instruction program can be implemented by one teacher for larger groups of children. While these procedures have not as yet been specifically utilized with regular classroom groups, it is the considered judgment of the authors that data-based instruction procedures can be adapted to regular education programs and should serve to enhance both efficiency and effectiveness in program implementation.

What is required is some initial program organization which, if done on a schoolwide basis, requires minimum time to be expended by each individual teacher.

The procedures for implementation are as follows.

1) Determine the "expected" rate of progress through the Basal Reading Series for your school. This represents the minimum rate at which you calculate a child in your school can progress in reading and still be considered "progressing satisfactorily."
2) List the letter name, or numerical designation for each book in the reading series next to the corresponding month and year in which the progressing at the minimum acceptable rate is expected to begin this book. These numbers are designatd along the vertical axis of the graph.
3) Draw a solid diagonal line through the yearly intersection points on the graph to indicate "minimally acceptable" progress i.e., a proficiency index of 1.0 per year.
4) Set schoolwide criteria for determining a student's proficiency level. This again will vary and should be "internally valid" for each individual school.[2]
5) During the first week of school administer a proficiency test to each of your student's at the expected reading level for his grade.

6) If the child does not succeed at his expected level continue to sample his reading at succeedingly lower levels until "proficiency" as defined by your school is achieved.
Conversely, if the child does succeed at his grade level continue sampling at successively higher levels.

7) Compute the proficiency index for each individual child in your class. As you will recall the formula is:

$$\text{rate of progress} = \frac{\text{\# of years of progress (as determined by present proficiency level)}}{\text{\# of years in school}}$$

or

$$\frac{\text{\# of months of progress}}{\text{\# of months in school}} = \text{grade levels of progress}$$

8) Represent this number graphically for each individual child. (see Figure 2)

At this point, the major task is completed for the majority of children in the class. Subsequent monthly plottings of progress can be readily included as part of the regular reading program as it is only necessary to note the student's present placement and proficiency rate and record this data using the same formula as above. For Grades Four and above the students themselves may become proficient in this procedure.[3]

For those students who do not achieve proficiency commensurate with expected progress, daily progress recording should be instituted. Here again, students can be taught to record their progress rates.

In addition, other more able students, aides or cross-age tutors can be trained to assist in these procedures (See Langer, 1973).

Daily performance recordings should be the same as those which have been decided upon as measures of proficiency for your school. When the student achieves at the accepted proficiency level, this signals a move to the next instructional level in your program. Failure to achieve proficiency signals another instructional program adjustment. Thus instructional decisions are data-based as program adjustments respond to changes in performance rates for individuals. Efficiency and effectiveness increases as the teacher is at all times aware of the degree to which each of her students are succeeding as well as being knowledgeable about "what works or doesn't work" for individuals who are having difficulty.

In summary then, the salient features of a data-based instruction program in reading may be characterized as follows:

1) The child's rate of progress is calculated monthly in order to develop a *clear index* of progress.
2) This progress index is represented graphically on a monthly progress graph in order to provide *regular* and *frequent* reporting of progress.
3) Changes in the index below 1.0 signal the teacher to institute daily progress recording for purposes of instituting systematic *program adjustments.*
4) Daily progress recordings are summarized a minimum of every two weeks and further *program adjustments* are responsive to changes in performance as expressed by this data.
5) Continued evaluation of student progress on the monthly proficiency index makes it possible to determine if the *program adjustment* is more successful than the regular program in maximizing the student's rate of progress.

FOOTNOTES

[1] We wish to acknowledge that the term "data-based instruction" as far as we are concerned originated with M. Stephen Lilly of the University of Minnesota at Duluth who passed it along to us in personal communication

[2] See references by Starlin and Haughton for further discussion on this point.

[3] Starlin (1972) and Bates (1971) have successfully trained first grade youngsters to use charting procedures

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Integration of the language arts and the prevention of disability in beginning reading

Elizabeth A. Thorn

Integration of the Language
Arts and the Prevention of
Disability in Beginning Reading
Elizabeth A. Thorn

Language is a "method of communicating ideas, emotions, and desires by means of a system of voluntarily produced symbols" (Sapir, 1921, 8); language is a "vehicle of thought" (Early, 1960, 307), language is "man's ability to communicate by using arbitrary, self-initiated symbols" (Molyneux, 1972, 20), language is "a vast pattern system . by which the personality not only communicates, but also analyzes nature, notices or neglects types of relationships and phenomena, channels his reasoning and builds the house of this consciousness" (Whorf, 1956, 252), language is . . .

Definitions of language are as numerous as the people who write about it but the reader must be impressed by the degree of commonality among them. Language is concerned with the production and symbolization of ideas, its primary function is communication, whether interpersonal or intra-personal. It has strong social functions as well, linking the user with family, peers and community, yet it is intimately related to the user's personal development.

Language and personal development

Language is an intensely personal matter. It has a role in establishing an individual and social identity and it functions in terms of the feelings, ideas and the experiences of the individual. Indeed it would appear that language is both the product of ideas and the vehicle for generating them. As the young child has repeated encounters with certain experiences he finds names for things, thus bringing order to his environment. For example, the word *bird* represents for the child various experiences that have a common quality.

> This is classification. Grouping and classification lead to generalising or abstracting that which holds these experiences together as a class The name doesn't necessarily stand for any single idea but rather for the idea of all similar ideas When using it the child has pooled a number of sense impressions. His sense impressions have grown into clear ideas The quality of these ideas dpends on the intensity and variety of the experiences which preceded them and with which they will continue to be associated. (Yardley, 1970, 13)

Thus language is seen to grow in relation to experience and at the same time to clarify and consolidate experience.

The primary child playing alone at the sandtable talks to himself — "a road here . . . no . . . here . . . up the hill . . higher and higher . . . that's better . . . where's my car? . . . up . . . up . . . up . . there! . . . now down-down-down, fast, Wow!" At a later stage he will likely be able to visualize a design that will call for the labored uphill climb and swift descent, and act on it without overt verbalization, but at this stage he uses oral language to help him understand and internalize experience. (And all too often he is reminded to "play quietly" and his learning is minimized.) Children talking together about an experience share and extend individual impressions. Emerging ideas can be questioned, enlarged, defined, as the child relates his perception of a situation to that of other people.

> The development of thought is seen by Piaget and his co-workers as the result of continuous interaction between the child and his environment The child endeavors on the one hand to fit information he gains from experience into the developing world within himself, and on the other hand to modify his behaviour so that he fits into the developing world outside himself . .
>
> It is through the use of language and in his relationships with other people that the child comes to realize that his is not the only point of view, that all he finds in the world is not only related to him but to other people as well. . .
>
> As these developments take place, the child is also learning how to store his external experiences in the form of thought. Not only can he store his impressions as ideas, he can recall them, relate them and manipulate them. He can reflect, use previous experience in existing circumstances and even deal with hypothetical situations This process provides the foundation for intellectual growth. (Yardley, 1970, 38-9)

For the young child then, the development of language and the development of thinking seem to be interwoven inextricably

By the time the child begins school, he uses language to organize his experiences and to share them with others. He has built his language on the immediate, the personal, and the concrete. He has mastered an extensive vocabulary firmly based on immediate experience and developed a more tentative vocabulary based on second-hand experience, he has learned the grammar of the language and generates sentence patterns suited to his communication needs, he seems aware that expressing what he thinks and feels through language helps him to understand himself and his environment; he has learned to share the ideas of others when these are expressed through language.

Seemingly unmindful of the tremendous achievement this represents, a literate society is not content with the child's growing oracy — its language has a written dimension and so to the developing abilities of listening and speaking must be added reading and writing. Traditionally schools have been assigned the task of introducing the child to the written form of his language and it has been decreed that this introduction take place during his first post-kindergarten year. At this point in language development a paradox becomes apparent — a society that in actual practice is orally oriented, takes for granted the developing oracy of its children and places a priority on reading achievement. Indeed many primary teachers consider teaching their pupils to read to be their main concern.

Theoretically, learning to read should not be difficult for the vast majority of children. They have already developed a degree of efficiency in listening and speaking, language skills that are surely as complex as reading an already familiar language. Furthermore, if reading is considered in a broad sense as "interpreting ideas represented in visual symbols," they are already "readers" whose proficiency must be recognized: they wait until the red traffic signal turns green before crossing the street, with unerring accuracy they choose the preferred cereal from the grocery shelf, they know whether they want to go up or down and press the appropriate elevator button. That the symbols to be interpreted now are words should not impede their efficiency.

Language experiences and the school

Perhaps a major cause of reading difficulties and disabilities (these should both be considered since many children who do not have a reading disability nevertheless spend an undue amount of time and effort learning to read) can be found in school practices that attempt to teach reading in a program cut off from the children's own experiences and ideas and separated from the totality of language itself. For the first time, children meet language that does not communicate in a meaningful way and that is not a natural part of their attempts to interpret and organize their environment. For the first time they see language as something that is artificial and imposed and as something that causes uncertainty and brings in its wake disapproval This should not, and need not, be so If written language is introduced as a natural extension of oral language, and children from the beginning recognize it as a tool for organizing their own reality, serving their needs as surely as oral language.

Reading, whether performed by the beginner or the mature reader, is the interpretation of and reaction to ideas represented in print It is a communication between the author and the reader during which the reader reflects on his own past experience in the light of what the author has said, *and* reflects on what the author has said in the light of his own experience Success in reading requires that the reader have an adequate experiential base to which he can relate the author's ideas and that he be familiar with the oral language that the print represents Since meaning resides originally in the oral word, it is pointless to introduce reading without the requisite oral development.

The wise primary teacher accepts that children need to talk to provide a conceptual foundation for language and so encourages much discussion of pupil experiences. In a program designed to reduce reading disability she will base initial instruction on the resultant language

In a recently observed classroom incident a group of children talked about a picture of two boys fighting on the playground[1] After several comments about the picture, the following conversation took place

"I saw that at recess."

"That?"

"Not *that* but just like it"

"Roy and that big guy"

"You mean Martin?"

"Yeah, him. He was really pounding at Roy"

"Roy could have taken him."

"Why didn't he then?"

"The teacher broke it up"

"Why?" (teacher question)

"It's against the rules to fight."

"Someone might have got hurt."

"No! My friend and I beat up on each other all the time and it doesn't hurt."

"Do you think Roy and Bob Martin were trying to hurt each other?" (teacher question)

As the conversation continued the children discussed the problems causing and resulting from fighting on the playground. Then they commented on the rules It was obvious that, as they did so, opinions were shifting and snap judgments were being replaced by more considered ones Language was growing in a social context and being exercised as a tool for thinking

> Over and over again Piaget indicated that it is in the context of *social interaction* as a member of a learning group that a child forced to take cognizance of the ideas of others and forced to become increasingly cognizant of his own thoughts and then reliability and validity emerges as a sociocentric, objective scholar (Stauffer, 1970, 10)

As children shared ideas, they used in the familiar oral form, words and language patterns that they would later use in writing.

Writing demands that ideas be assembled and recorded in an organized form Under the teacher's direction the children dictated.

> We saw a good fight at recess Two boys were pounding each other. They were really angry and not just playing. We wanted to watch but the teacher stopped it so no one got hurt. Maybe the "no fighting" rule is a good thing when kids get angry But we still like to play-fight.

They watched their ideas being recorded in written language — and as the teacher, then the pupils, read the completed composition they recognized the relationship between oral and written language, between writing and reading. They recognized that what they could say could be written; and that what was written could be read. For these children, the sequence in each experience with written language is from experience (through the medium of oral language) to ideas, to print; and then through the reading act, from print to ideas or experience. They are fully aware of the source of the printed word; they know that it represents ideas; and they recognize the reader's task as interpreting those ideas The material they are asked to read is at their present level of development in language, because they have produced it — and so their level of language and their reading grow hand in hand. The built-in success that accompanies the reading of such material prevents the frustration felt by many beginning readers whose material is not as well adapted to their language level — a frustration that often results in a dislike of reading that interferes with progress.

As children have daily experiences in reading their own compositions they build up a store of sight words; the function words of English are learned readily because of their frequent use in the normal patterns of language, other words are learned because of an immediate appeal to a child's personal experience or interests. Because of the strong meaning the written material has for the readers, context becomes a key to word identification from the earliest stages. Under the teacher's direction useful principles of phonics and word structure are learned as the need arises. In this way the mechanics of word recognition become an integral part of the reading activity without violating the supremacy of meaning in the reading act.

It is crucial that the children meet written words organized in the patterns made familiar through oral language

> Perception in language use cannot be viewed as a simple series of sound perceptions or word perceptions It must be understood in relation to the grammatical structure of the language and the structure of the meaning which is being communicated. (Goodman 1970, 14)

Expecting the young reader to cope with words in isolation or to read language that differs from natural speech patterns inevitably leads to difficulty and frustration. Goodman (1970, 25) points out that

> vocabulary development outside of the context of new ideas and preexisting language is not possible

And Yardley (1970, 82) stresses that

> the most meaningful words to the child are his own that he has selected . . as being of interest and of use to him . . . When we help to make his own reading material . . . we are fitting his use of the printed word into the pattern of individual learning. Yet some teachers are guilty of introducing words in print which bear no relationship to the child's experience as the first step in recognizing printed words.

While the children *can* be taught to make an automatic response to the words on the page — to say the words — this only becomes reading when the ideas represented by those words are related to the child's personal experience and become important to him.

In contrast to an integrated language approach that maintains the unity of language by having the pupils speak and listen, write and read about a topic and highlights both the social function of language and its role in organizing experience, an approach that *begins* with prepared printed materials frequently isolates reading from the natural development of language. The child without experience in composition may not recognize the relationship between written language and oral, faced with a page of print, he sees *words* rather than an idea represented in print, he sees his task as identifying the words rather than analysing the ideas Words frequently become a problem for him because they are embedded in unfamiliar language patterns In an effort to simplify the learning problems, by reducing the word count and shortening sentences, some authors remove the child's most powerful support in learning to read — his well developed knowledge of the oral patterns Picture his quandary. He knows that Bob and Joe are dashing down the street to catch a waiting bus. He reads, predicting on the basis of his knowledge of language, "'Come on, Joe,' said Bob" But that is not right. the words are "'Come, come Joe' said Bob. 'Come come'." (How much more natural, and how much easier to read was one child's dictated version. "Come on Joe," said Bob "Let's go!")

As words become a problem, all too often teachers react by isolating them for study, by providing artificial drills. Acknowledging the dullness of the task they impose they devise games to lend interest to word drill — and the pupils believe that reading has no intrinsic excitement. Such procedures fail to recognize that the excitement of language lies not in the words but in the ideas they represent; much more satisfying is the self-imposed "word drill" that takes place when children return again and again to read compositions they have written. And gradually, just as they earlier mastered speaking vocabularies from frequent encounters with oral language, they develop individual sight vocabularies.

Moreover, an introduction to reading that is word-oriented and based solely on books is often destructive of the thinking aspects of reading. Children not sufficiently aware of the source of the written words do not recognize the reader's task as thinking about the ideas represented, and often they do not have the appropriate background in language or experience to cope with them. There seems to be everything to gain and nothing to lose by introducing children to reading using their own compositions.

Nevertheless one learns to read in order to communicate with others, and children's reading material must be extended to include books as well as their own compositions It is suggested that this does not in any way reduce the importance of the integrated approach. It does not in any way reduce the importance of an adequate oral and experiential base for the reading.

> Numerous studies have demonstrated that our past experiences form a basis for our new experiences Thus the one who takes the most to the printed page gains the most (Smith, 1961, 22)

One teacher of beginning reading identified the theme of the story[2] that was to be read as "we should be responsible for our own things " She took her group on a tour of the cloakroom where they collected abandoned balls, single mitts, a scarf and various other items They recalled an instance when a classmate lost her lunch and it was found where she had been sitting watching a ball game One pupil mentioned the lost-and-found box, then they wrote about their "lost-and found" experiences The next day they read a story in which three children claimed "somebody" was responsible for their lost mitts, hat and boot while their mother, as mothers will, insisted "*You* had your mitts, *not* somebody!" One of the first comments from the group was, "They're just like us! Bet they left those things at school!" And a sympathetic but critical discussion of the children's behavior followed

The teacher contrasted this group's reaction with that of another group which she had asked to read the story without any preparation "They finished and their attitude was, 'So what?' and 'What's wrong with them, always losing things?' " (Any teacher who has ever tried to find someone to admit ownership of "lost-and-found" articles knows that children don't easily identify with losing things) If teachers want children to relate an author's ideas to their own experience, it is sometimes necessary to raise that experience to a level of consciousness so that it is readily available to them as they read

> In reading the critical element is not what is seen on the page but rather what is *signified* by the written symbol (Smith, 1961, 23)

And what is signified depends on the prior organization of the reader's relevant experience and his familiarity with the language in which the author expresses his ideas

At this point children are beginning to engage in a "total language experience." They discuss a theme, growing *speaking* and *listening* skill as well as building the language and conceptual background for their reading, they develop a composition, further refining their ideas and learning to *write* effectively; they *read* someone else's views extending their own ideas related to the theme by recognizing those of the author. Then as they discuss the author's ideas, relating them to their own, they use oral language or organize the new experience with the old From the very beginning of instruction the reading-to-learn phase takes precedence over the learning-to-read phase" (Stauffer, 1969, 294). Given reading materials that offer a high pay-off in terms of ideas and given the opportunity to talk and listen and write in relation to those ideas children accept reading as a full partner with other language skills. It is introduced and maintained as a vital part of language, contributing to thinking and conceptual growth

Such an integrated approach would seem to contribute to the prevention of reading disabilities in several ways. Children understand the function of reading and its relationship to language and learning, and so work purposefully. Steps are taken to insure that children have an adequate oral base for reading development. Command of oral and written language develops together. Reading materials are at the appropriate language and interest level for individual children. Initial success in reading promotes a confidence and enthusiasm that facilitates learning.

FOOTNOTES

Discussion Motivator #3 Elizabeth A Thorn et al **Language Experience Reading Program** (Toronto Gage Ed Pub 1970)

[2] Somebody" in **For Me**, Elizabeth A Thorn et al **Language Experience Reading Program** Level 2 (Toronto Gage Ed Pub 1970)

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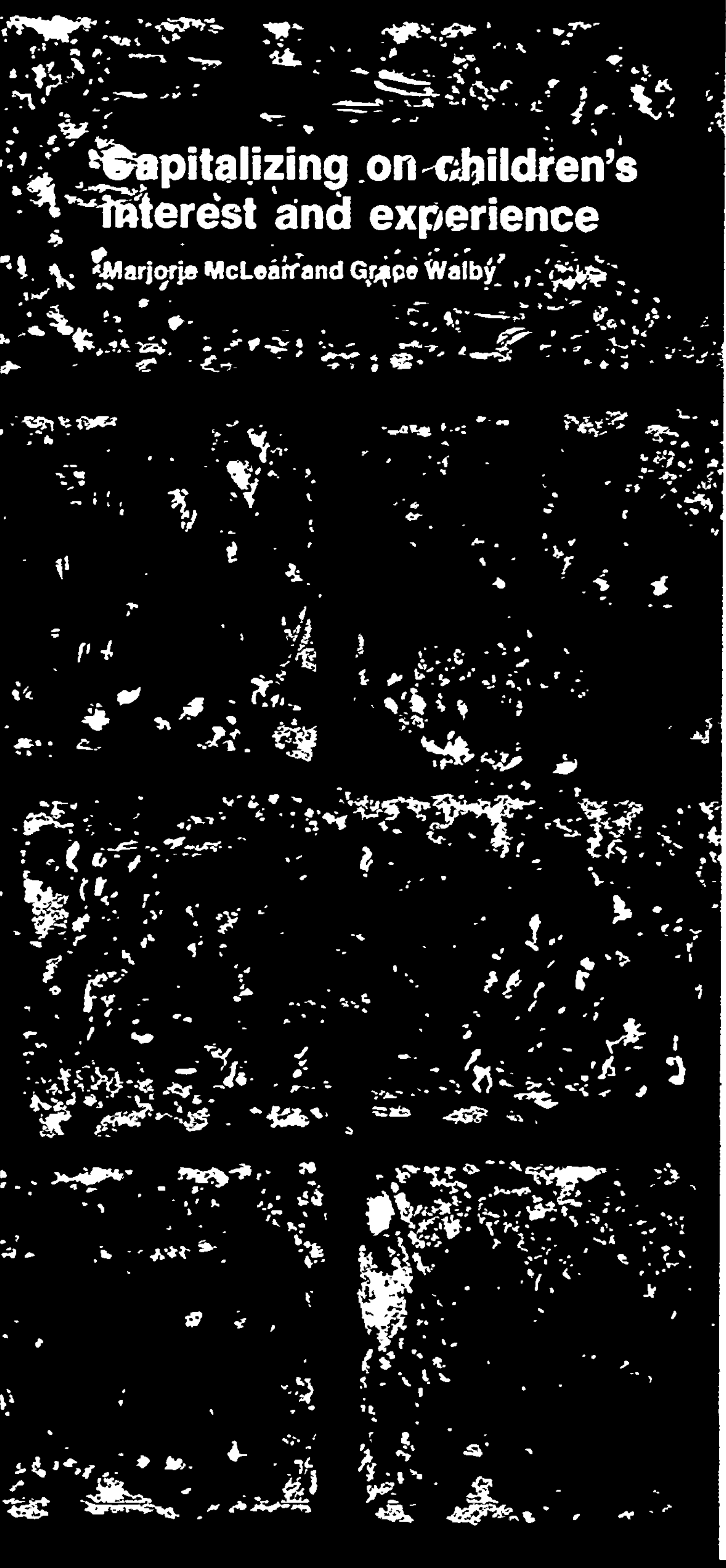

Capitalizing on children's interest and experience
Marjorie McLean and Grace Walby

Capitalizing on Children's Interest and Experience

Marjorie McLean and Grace Walby

> To increase reading skill, promote the reading habit and produce a generation of book lovers there is no factor so powerful as interest"
>
> George W Norvell[1]

Interest is an active and dynamic force which provides a strong impetus for learning. One has only to observe the tremendous effort put forth by a lad intent on becoming a a good hockey player or the patient persistent efforts of a child engrossed in observing the antics of an ant colony to be convinced of the powerful impact of interest upon activity. How can we capitalize on the specific interests of the children we teach in such a way as to nurture each child's interests and at the same time provide opportunities for learning the skills of reading?

As teachers we are concerned with two aspects of interest — using children's interests to motivate reading and developing interests in reading As Huck[2] has said. "If we teach a child to read, yet not develop a taste for reading all our teaching is for naught. We shall have produced a nation of illiterates — those who know how to read but do not read."

Every teacher knows that the children who come to her classroom are different, not only in size and appearance but in experience, hopes, fears and interests She also knows that one of the most important maxims in teaching is "know each child" One activity that can provide insight and at the same time build upon individual interest is to ask each child to bring a snapshot of himself to school These pictures can be mounted and used in ensuing days for the development of individual stories which were posted about the room, shared and talked about with the other children. A story such as Dalgleish's *Bears on Hemlock Mountain* read by the teacher at this point can expand the children's world to other children who may be met in books

A teacher who really listens to children will also find many clues to their interests. Perhaps one of the children has received a new pet. An announcement about this can evoke much discussion and comment about other pets.

Children live in a real world and are affected by the events of their community. A discussion of some of the problems encountered by the children in one class lead to this story. "The policeman comes to help us. If we have no food he brings us some. When boys steal money he comes to pick up the boys to take them to a foster home. He comes to pick up drunkards. When a man shoots another man he takes the gun The policeman is our friend ' Surely there are concerns here that a perceptive teacher could use to promote compassion for and understanding of problems faced by many in our world Informal sessions with community workers can provide opportunities for children to explore the options open to them Biographies and myths as well as fiction such as Gates *Little Vic* (Viking) in which a boy copes with racial prejudice can lead to understanding of how others have dealt with problems.

It may be only when we have tapped an interest vital to a child that we can help him see reading as a valuable activity, one in which he is willing to expend the energy necessary to learn When we have achieved this commitment we are on the way to preventing reading failure As he grows in reading and finds satisfaction in books, reading as an activity may become an interest in itself. According to Smith and Dechant[3] "A child learns to read because he is motivated by basic personal needs. But gradually, as he becomes skilled in reading, reading becomes a motivating force of its own "

Implicit in these comments is the need for teachers to be constantly tuned in to the feelings and interests of the child This sensitivity aids the teacher in monitoring clues not only regarding substantive interests of children, but also helps in receiving signals regarding "Readiness" of the child for specific learnings For example, she will be aware of signs that a particular child is beginning to associate ideas with printed symbols or that the child is displaying curiosity about signs and labels in the room. This same sensitivity will facilitate knowledge of what is appropriate for the individual child at any given time both with respect to materials and methodology

Much has been written relating materials to the needs of children. Usually these needs are identified through lists such as those of Maslow[4] and relate to secuirty, acceptance, and the concept of self. Is it that learning materials meet or satisfy these various needs in the traditional sense, or is that the writer through some universal or particular experience has linked up or connected with some aspect of the material because of the common elements of the experience? Perhaps the basic need has to do with the interaction of the mind and heart of learner and writer This point is crucial to capitalizing on the interest and experience of children. There may be only one connecting thread, but this is sufficient to involve the child as a fluent reader in venturing forth with the writer Perhaps it is not enough to find materials "about" this subject or that, but books by certain writers who not only have something to say about a particular subject, but who speak with conviction, with feeling, with integrity, and who have the power to leave their reader somewhat enriched because of their meeting The magic lies in something that happens to the child as a result of a learning experience. Each activity enjoyed should strengthen his desire to read further. If he becomes really interested nothing can stop him.

This focus on capitalizing on the child s experience and things he is interested in can be translated into classroom action in a variety of ways The papers by Stevenson and Hoehn suggest only two possibilities for such translation

FOOTNOTES

[1] George W Norvell Some Results of a Twelve Year Study of Children s Reading Interests **The English Journal,** 37 (December 1948) p 536

[2] Charlotte S Huck Strategies for Improving Interest and Appreciation in Literature " **Reaching Children and Young People Through Literature,** Newark International Reading Association 1971 p 37

[3] Henry P Smith and Emerald V Dechant **Psychology in Teaching Reading,** Englewood Cliffs Prentice Hall Inc 1961 p 272

[4] A H Maslow as interpreted by Sr Rosemary Winkeljohann ERIC/RCS Report Children s Affective Development Through Books **Elementary English,** 51 #3 (March 1974) p 410

Child authorship

Joan Stevenson

Many children in beginning reading mouth words in response to the squiggles on the page, attaching little or no meaning to these words While they may be developing isolated skills that may or may not have utility, this unfortunate experience leaves the child with at least two vital deficiencies. First, he fails to develop the concept that reading is in a very real sense a means of communication. Further, such a meaningless exercise can only stifle rather than stimulate interest in reading. The position taken in this paper is that encouraging child authorship provides one means by which many reading difficulties could be circumvented as it is in this role that the child is in a prime position to capitalize fully on his interests and his experiences.

The complementary relationship between reading and writing is well documented. Heilman & Holmes (1972) defend the position that encouraging early writing is beneficial as a basis for reading success since learners soon discover that their writing actually becomes reading and they can improve their reading ability by reading what they and their friends have written. Van Allen (1970) author of *Language Experiences in Reading*[1] explains it in this way. "Children who write read! They have to!"[2]

Further, in an explanation of how children's writing creates within them a desire to read more and to become more involved in their language, James Moffett says "They get caught up in cycles of giving and taking words that gather momentum and accelerate progress in both reading and writing."[3] Finally, Mary-Anne Hall speaks of this same interrelationship between language, reading and writing when she says:

> "As children transform their thoughts into writing form through the encoding of their speech, and as they read their stories they are integrating all of their communication skills."[4]

Scope of the term 'child authorship'

When is a child considered an author? Early writing experiences may be as simplistic as completing the sentence: my name is —. The scope of the term is intended to be very broad It includes one-word or one-phrase picture-stories printed in manuscript letters by the teacher It also includes a collection of pictures below which there appears a complete sentence describing each And it includes the more mature work of a series of drawings picturesquely described by well-formed complex sentences produced by an independent writer or dictated by a child to another independent writer.

Hopefully, within his scope, *every* child should be able to put forth his feelings and ideas into print. This will encourage the feeling within a child that 'he' can produce language and 'he' can create stories. And it will help provide an early awareness of the natural link between written and spoken words.

Suggestions to encourage child authorship

Stimulation

Expose children to various and assorted kinds of writing. They should listen to and or read a variety of materials (rhymes, jingles and alliteration (Monroe, 1971)) and do this often. For example, poetry for children such as that prepared by Dorothy Aldis[5] and A. A. Milne[6] should be readily accessible. Stories suitable for reading-along or for dramatization, for example those by Bill Martin Jr.[7] should be bursting the seams of the classroom library.

Foster creative work by providing a variety of working materials. Make readily available different kinds of paper for writing, materials for making attractive covers, pictures for illustrations, pencils, markers, paints, crayons plus many other delightful things which will help the child realize the success of his endeavor. The necessity of providing stimuli was once expressed in this way:

> "Inventing is difficult for children if they are merely told to 'make up a story'. They need definite stimulants and frameworks that prompt the imagination."[8]

Individuality

Encourage individuality in creativity by helping children focus-in on their own interests. Guide them in the appreciation of their own thoughts, feelings and ideas and kindle their willingness to be unique.

Encourage children to write using the naturalness of their spoken expression. For example, if a child is notably humorous in conversation, help him to show this in his written work. That is, their writing should be imitative of their own mannerisms as opposed to being carbon copies of adult writings. Encourage each child to develop *his* language personality.

Publications

The term 'publication' used here implies all levels of displaying or sharing completed writing It includes the posting of stories or poems, the stapling together of a series of stories, the editing of a class newspaper, the oral sharing of written ideas and more. Publication provides an immediate reward for the author and at the same time creates ideas and models for readers.

These publications may become part of the school library so that children have an opportunity to enjoy the varied contributions. The importance of such publication is described here·

> "Children whose writing is published see themselves as creators of ideas, as producers of language and as functioning members of the language community They want to master technical language skills, to modify form and style, and to read books by other authors to become acquainted with their language and ideas "[9]

Conclusion

If the importance of child authorship is established in terms of increasing reading proficiency and improving reading interest it seems reasonable to suggest that such activity can then "lead to reading the more conventional materials that the school cherishes so highly "[10]

FOOTNOTES

[1] Roach Van Allen and Claryce Allen, **Language Experiences In Reading.** Encyclopedia Brittannica Press Toronto, 1970

[2] *Ibid*, Level 1, p 20

[3] James Moffett, **A Student-Centered Language Arts Curriculum** Houghton Mifflin Co, Boston 1973 p 125

[4] Mary-Anne Hall, **Teaching Reading as a Language Experience.** Charles E Merrill, Columbus, Ohio 1970 p 39

[5] Dorothy Aldis, **All Together.** G P Putnam's Sons, 1925

[6] A A Milne **When We Were Very Young.** E P Dutton & Co, Inc 1924. Renewal 1952.

[7] Bill Martin Jr **Sounds Series.** Holt, Rinehart and Winston of Canada Ltd 1965

[8] *Op Cit*, Moffett, p 118

[9] Joy Hebert, Consultant Language Arts Department **From Cover to Cover,** unpublished paper Encyclopedia Brtannica Educational Corporation, Chicago, Illinois, 1974

[10] Arthur W Heilman and Elizabeth Ann Holmes, **Smuggling Language into the Teaching of Reading.** Charles E Merrill Publishing Company Columbus Ohio 1972 p 69

Using the camera to aid language arts skill development

Ruth E. Hoehn

A crucial task of the primary teacher is to find ways of aiding the child in translating concrete experiences into thought and meaningful symbolic experience. There is perhaps no better way to accomplish this than to bridge this gap by judicious use of pictures. Capturing children's experiences with a camera provides a source of pictures which can help to achieve the transition. This is so particularly since photographs often provide the additional dimension of personalism and interest.

This article illustrates how a teacher can capitalize on an experience with children to develop any number of language arts skills.

"Experience" may be defined to include a happening as spontaneous as a child feeding the classroom gerbils or a planned experience involving the process of butter making.

The process of butter making is used here to illustrate specific skill development that could ensue from use of camera shots of various stages of the process.

Vocabulary development

Naturally the best time for oral language development and extension is during the actual activity. However, often the amount of input and opportunity for "practice" is limited during the activity. Pictures of the stages of process (in this case butter making) provide this kind of additional input. For example, a picture of Janice shaking the jar is exposed. "How is Janice shaking the jar?" Words like "vigourously" "energetically" could be introduced or reviewed here. "How did the consistency of the cream change from picture one to picture three?" An activity like this can provide an ideal opportunity to elicit and provide descriptive and picturesque vocabulary. For example, "the butter tastes like ...., it is as smooth as ...., as soft as ...." etc. Again a wide choice of words can be elicited or introduced. There is no reason to limit vocabulary to listening and speaking dimensions. Once the photographs are mounted space can be left so that children can dictate descriptive sentences for the teacher to record underneath the picture.

Sequence skills

It is one thing to talk about the sequence of a process in retrospect but quite another to have pictorial reference available to aid, recall and clarify thinking. In this case the teacher can jumble the pictures and ask children to arrange them in order on the desk or chalkboard ledge This provides a good opportunity for concomitant oral discussion. "Why must picture four come before picture five?" This further provides an excellent avenue for development of connectives that are important first in thought — then in speech and writing. For example, "First we poured the cream ..., then we ... after that ... soon ... before long ... etc."

Main idea

After children have talked about the sequence of pictures they talk about 'what are all these pictures about.'' Let's put them into the correct order and make a book out of them. "What is a good name for the book?' Then discuss why the title is appropriate and why perhaps certain suggested titles were not appropriate because they related only to specific pictures rather than subsumed the total sequence. Again, children who are able to read the recorded statements below the pictures should be encouraged to rely less on the picture for main idea and more on the words. The intent here is to develop main idea skills first through listening and speaking and then transfer the skill to reading bearing in mind that the essentially the same thinking component is common and crucial to all three language arts strands.

Outlining skills

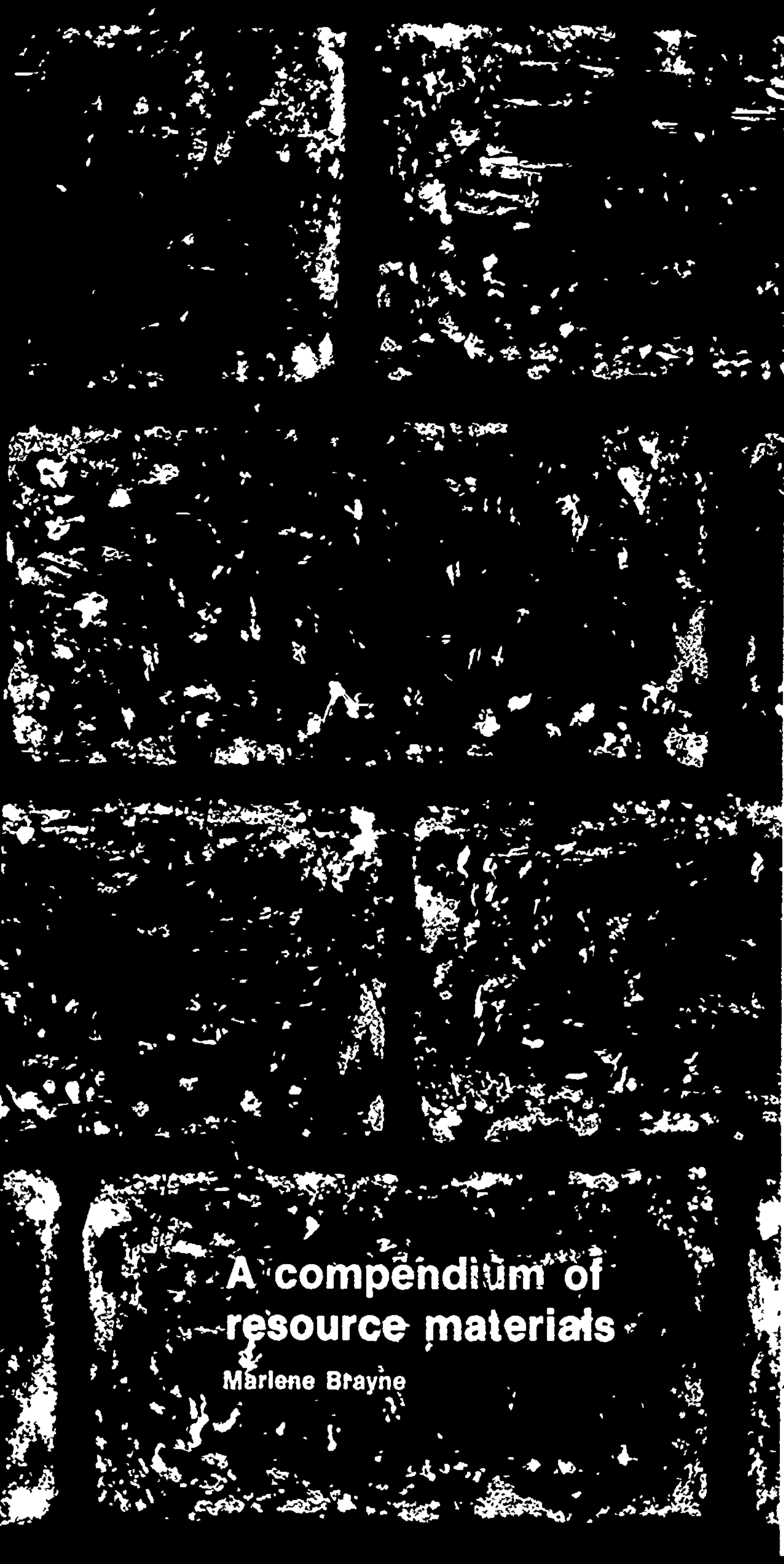
Again using content of immediate interest and based on pertinent experience provides a more realistic starting point for teaching a skill commonly recognized as difficult. Once children have identified the main idea or "what it's all about" the teacher can take sub-sets of pictures from the total set and probe for ideas suggested by the sub-set, for example, the first three photos may detail with "preparing for butter making." This becomes the first main heading and the content of each of the three individual pictures become the supporting details.

Left to right progression

Photographs can be employed to develop a wide range of pre-reading skills. One of these is the development of left-to-right progression. This can be done by arranging the pictures in logical order and moving along from left-to-right as the pictures are being discussed. At a later stage the dictated stories can be used to extend the same skill incorporating words rather than pictures.

Conclusion

The suggestions above by no means exhaust the possibilities for language arts skills development through photographs — the suggestions provide a mere sampling. The possibilities for the pictures to be used for sight vocabulary development, contextual clue development (listening or reading), visual and auditory discrimination, etc, are limitless. Further, only one activity has been cited for illustration. The everyday life of the classroom and of the individual child provides "content" and scope that can be captured with a camera and capitalized upon as a vital source for interesting skill development.



A Compendium of Resource Materials

Marlene Brayne

When a grade one child is asked what he is going to learn in school, he usually states that he is going to learn to read He has learned from parental and other sources that one key to success in school is based upon his ability to read

The philosophy of the teaching of reading, especially at the primary level, should be oriented to success in reading and the prevention of reading failure It is easier to correct reading problems as they appear than to wait until the child reaches a frustration level that transforms a reading problem into an emotional problem. The appropriate use of a variety of materials can play an important role in the prevention of reading failure Children require work not only in the basal reader and workbooks, but also with library books, newspapers, commercially made and teacher made games, dictionaries, thesauruses In addition, children should have access to a multiplicity of media, including, filmstrips, slides, records and films Moreover, children require a scope of reading experiences to become independent readers An enriching program of recreational reading, using easy to read books, paperback books and library books, is essential A teacher needs instructional material, such as reading games, books and exercises differing in difficulty and content, in order to meet the varied needs and interests of the child Generally, each child has his own unique skill area difficulty, self-directed instructional materials should be employed to remediate weak skill areas Consequently, a school with adequate supplies of supplementary materials is one of the prerequistes for over coming reading failure. Also teachers should know when to employ these materials at the appropriate time and to the proper children as the needs of the children are diagnosed.

The basal reading series, alone, is not sufficient for many children For those children who require supplementary help, an abundance of resource materials are a prerequiste to their success These children may require additional activities, such as, phonic or word drill, motor and coordination practice, and comprehension practice. A child's inadequacies in skill areas can be partially mitigated by supplementary materials One advantage of utilizing these resource materials is that they are generally regarded by children as fun Failure is not usually associated with them. Some children, failing to learn to read, develop feelings of frustration and anxiety towards anything which looks like a basal or any basal related material. Resource materials can be used to help alleviate the child's anxieties and to assist the child in regaining confidence in his reading ability For this problem, easy to read paperback books are good They can be employed to spark an interest in reading. When the student's weak areas are remediated and he has regained confidence in himself, the child can gradually be brought back into the basal stream.

The following sections will contain annotated bibliographies of sources in the areas of children's dictionaries and thesauruses, word and skill lists, short "Easy to Read" trade books and games to develop reading and language skills.

Primary dictionaries

V. Olchewecki

In learning to read, children develop an awareness of the world of words, and a curiosity to know more about them. The primary school years seem a natural time to develop a confidence in using the dictionary so that children can acquire such attitude, habits and skills that will encourage life-long use of this reference text It would seem that judicious selection of appropriate dictionaries would aid in developing these attitudes and skills.

The list below is certainly not complete, but would meet a variety of needs.

Brown, A., Downing, J., and Sceats, J., **Pyramid Primary Dictionary Series.** New York, Pyramid Publications, 1972. Set of four, graded in fullness of definition, amount and kind of illustration, and type size. **Dictionary 1** intended for ages 4-7, **Dictionary 2** for ages 6-9 Definitions adapted to style of children's talk. Soft cover, 4 by 7 Handbook and Teacher's Guide.

Drysdale, Patrick. **Words to Use, A Primary Thesaurus.** Toronto, Gage Educational Publishing Limited, 1971. Words to do with same subject are shown together. For example, ninety-eight words having to do with Flowers are further grouped on two facing pages. Headings, pictures, page numbers, colour and index help child locate words Hard cover, 8 by 10, 178 pp.

Monroe, Marion and Greet, W. Cabell. **My Little Dictionary of Words I Know or Want to Know.** Toronto, W J. Gage Limited, 1970. By lists and illustrations, 1341 words are grouped according to their meanings and functions. words for people, words for places, words that help tell where, etc. Indented as source book of words for children learning to read and write. Primary type. Soft cover, 6.5 by 8.5, 83 pp.

Morgan, Joyce and Wilbur, Beverley. **Dent's Primary Dictionary,** Level I. Toronto, J. M. Dent & Sons (Canada) Limited, 1959. Word lists, some words illustrated clearly with line drawings, grouped by beginning letter. Intended as aid to children's story writing. Hard cover, 6 by 9, 57 pp. Level II, 1970. Coloured illustrations. Intended as speedy spelling guide to creative writing. Hard cover, 7.5 by 9, 94 pp.

Reed, Mary and Osswald, Edith. **My First Golden Dictionary.** New York, Golden Press, 1969. Colourfully illustrated are 243 words for beginning readers. Beneath each word is a sentence which repeats the object-word and tells something about it. Hard cover, 9.5 by 13, 16 pp.

Scarry, Richard. **Storybook Dictionary.** New York, Golden Press, 1971. Over 700 entries. Each entry, colourfully illustrated, tells a separate and complete little story, with setting, cast of delightful animal characters, and plot. Hard cover, 10 by 12, 125 pp.

Schulz, Charles M. **The Charlie Brown Dictionary.** New York, World Publishing, 1973. Contains 2400 entries. The Peanuts Gang helps define words through colourful illustrations and context, using explanation further information, synonyms and antonyms, all in the language of children. Hard cover, 8.5 by 11.5, 399 pp.

Watters, Garnette and Courtis, S. A. **The Picture Dictionary for Children.** New York, Grossett and Dunlop, 1970. Contains 2177 basic words and 2902 variants. Word given in context, with definition and/or illustration. Hard cover, 8.5 by 11.5, 383 pp.

Whitman, Doris. **Word Wonder Dictionary.** New York, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., [illegible]66. "A linguistic approach to vocabulary development." Meanings developed within various contexts. Focuses also on structure of language and dictionary skill development. Illustrations. Teacher's edition. Hard cover. 8 by 9.5, 377 pp.

Woodward, Ken. **My Word Book.** London, Collins. Colourful full page illustrations are titled At Breakfast, In the Toyshop, In the Park, At the Zoo, and so on. The facing page separately illustrates and names at least nine of the items in the composite. Hard Cover, 8.5 by 11, 40 pp.

Books for children to read by themselves at the kindergarten to grade three level

Lois C. Scott

Most children are fascinated by books. They see their parents reading them and often they have had books read to them. Long before they are able to read they have come to know that books contain all kinds of interesting and informative stories. Thus, as soon as they have mastered a few very basic reading skills they are very excited about reading books. Teachers are frequently at a loss to find a readily available supply of appropriate books at very easy reading levels to satisfy the varied interests of their children. How can children be allowed to read extensively and to develop life-long interests in reading if their

growth is stunted at the very time of their life when it should be encouraged? Perhaps, if teachers were given a guide as to publishers, prices, and kinds of books available in this area, they would find it easier to make wise and extensive selections. The following annotated bibliography of books and sets of books for supplementary reading at the K-3 level might be helpful.

Adventures in Discovery, Western Publishers (Fitzhenry and Whiteside Ltd.)

These books were written under the supervision of Paul A. Witty, Ph.D., Northwestern University, and comprise part of a developmental language program for children at the pre-school and grade one levels. The youngsters will enjoy these self-discovery books that encourage them to make new observations and acquire new experiences about everyday things in the world around them. There are twelve pupil books with titles such as "Adventures With Color," Understanding Shapes," and "The Thinking Book." $49.00/set.

Adventures in Storyland, Grolier of Canada Ltd.

There are forty-five paperback books and records in this series. The books are suitable for children from K to III. The children will enjoy reading these books on their own and listening to the records that accompany them. $37.11/set.

Bambi Readers, Saunders of Toronto, Ltd.

This is a set of six very little books. They contain real life photographs of a little boy and a pet fawn named Bambi. The print is easy to read for children at the grade one level. $1.50/set.

The Best in Children's Paperbacks, Grolier of Canada, Ltd.

There are thirty-seven books in this series of well known, well loved children's books. A few of the titles in this series are "Andy and the Lion," "Flip," "Madeline," and "Winnie the Pooh." $28.85/set.

Carousel Books, J. M. Dent and Sons (Canada) Ltd.

These books may be used as an individualized reading instruction program in the primary grades or as supplementary books at the K-3 level. They deal with reality, fantasy, poetry, and science. The books are well illustrated with cartoons, real life photographs, and other attractive, colorful illustrations. There are two sets — one at the grade one level and one at the grade two level. $40.00/set (Approx.)

Indian Legends, Ginn and Company

There are ten books in this series all about the adventures of Nanabush, and Indian spirit. The old Indian legends are retold and illustrated by Daphne Beavon whose Indian name is Odjig. Children in grades two and three could be fascinated by both the stories and accompanying pictures. $6 85/set.

The I Wonder Why Books, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc.

This set of twenty-four books has been written for children at the primary level. The stories, which are related to science, are short, varied, and interesting, they are written on a personal level where children are talking, wondering, and thinking about phenomena in the world around them. $80.95/set.

Kin/Der Owl Books, (K-1), Little Owl Books, (K-2), Young Owl Books, (2-4) Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Each series is composed of twenty attractively bound books which vary in size. Bill Martin Jr. has written many of the stores in this series. There are many excellent photographs and drawings which should created interest and motivate further reading. They provide interesting, thought-provoking topics in arithmetic, language, literature, science, and social studies. $62.70/set.

Methuen Caption Books, Methuen Publications

These books are intended for children at the earliest stages of reading. Vocabulary is linked to picture clues, there are many repetitive sentences; and some stories are in rhyme. Gradually, as the children advance in reading, fewer picture clues are presented and there is less repetition. There are six sets. 75 cents/set.

Monster Books Set, J. M. Dent and Sons (Canada) Ltd.

This set consists of twelve books and a teacher's manual. Primary level children will enjoy imaginative, exciting, and humorous stories such as "Monster Comes to the City," or "Monster at School." The series attempts to use children's language patterns. $14.85/set or $1.05/book

Nelson Venture Books, credited by John McInnes, Thomas Nelson and Sons Limited.

These books are graduated in degree of difficulty within each grade. There is a broad range of interest in the books, from mystery stories to poems about seasons and holidays. There are twenty books at the grade one level and twenty at the grade two level. $1.00/book (grade one), $1.20/book (grade two)

Nippers, edited by Leila Berg, The Macmillan Co.

A delightful little series of books, each from ten to thirty pages in length suitable for primary level children. The illustrations are colorful and the stories are about English children in the city, in the country, and at the seaside. 40 cents/ book (approx.)

The Read It Yourself Books, Set A and Set B, Methuen Publications

These might be the first books that kindergarten and grade one children could "read themselves." The children will be able to discover words by linking them with pictures on each page. Set A consists of seven sets of books, each book having eight pages and having titles such as "What is Little?" Set B consists of six sets of eight-page books with titles such as "What I Like," and "What Can I Do?" $1.80/set.

Scholastic Paperbacks, Scholastic Book Services.

Scholastic Books Services publish inexpensive paperbacks ranging in price from 65 cents-85 cents. little bo These attractive little books can be handled easily by primary children, and as the stories are short they will appeal even to the more reluctant readers. They may be purchased as complete sets if desired. $35.00/set (approx.)

Story-Go-Round, Grolier of Canada Ltd.

Each book is accompanied by a record to which the children may listen before or while reading the story The stories are suitable for children from K-II.

Library I (27 books) Books such as "Puff the Magic Dragon" and "The Little Engine that Could."
Library II (30 books) Classic Fairy Tales and Stories.
Library III (30 books) Well known stories, riddles and counting rhymes. $24.03/set.

Graded word lists — an annotated bibliography

Dean B. Berry

Graded word lists are designed to give the teacher a grade level prediction of a pupil as well as an evaluation of word recognition and word analysis skills. Graded word lists are quick and easy to give, an asset for the classroom teacher. The word list may be useful for the particular child is capable of handling, the type of reading materials best suited to each child, or a way to detect the needs of a child who is experiencing real difficulties and should have further testing. Teachers should be aware that some graded word lists will give only a direct grade placement while others will give an instructional, independent and frustration reading level.

Botel, M., Holsclaw, C. L., and Cammarota, G. C., **Guide to the Botel Reading Inventory,** *Chicago: Follett, 1961.*

This word list is for grades one through four and consists of a twenty item list for each grade level. The pupil must score 96-100 percent for an independent reading level, 70-90 percent for an instructional level and 0-65 percent for a frustrational level.

Dolch Basic Sight Word Test, *Garrard Press, 1939.*

This is a word list of 220 basic sight words which can be arranged in grade levels to include preprimer through to grade three. The test is untimed and does not give a particular grade level other than an indication of where a child might be placed in a basal text. Many of the standardized reading tests used in schools for grade placement are based on this word list

Durrell Analysis of Reading Difficulty.

This graded word list is designed to indicate the word recognition and word analysis level of a pupil. There is a list for each grade from one through six arranged in successive difficulty. The grade score is obtained when a pupil misses seven successive words on a single list or completes the hardest list.

Harris, A. J., **How to Increase Reading Ability,** *New York: David McKay, 1961.*

This list has ten words for each grade level beginning with preprimer and proceeding through to the fifth grade. Once the child misses more than three words on any list a grade score is obtained.

LaPray, M., and Ross, R., **The Graded Word List; Quick Gauge of Reading Ability,** *Journal of Reading, 12, 1969*

Here is a list designed to determine a reading level and to detect errors in word analysis skills. The list has eleven graded word lists of ten words each which increase in difficulty between groups. The list yields an independent, instructional and frustration reading level.

McCracken, R. A., **Standard Reading Inventory,** *Bellingham, Washington: Pioneer Printing Co., 1966.*

This graded word list is part of the Standard Reading Inventory and therefore has an A and B Form. The lists are arranged in increasing order of difficulty beginning with preprimer through to grade seven. The pupil stops when less than 50 per cent of the words are known on any one list. This list gives an independent, instructional and frustration reading level.

Schonell, F. G., **The Psychology and Teaching of Reading,** *London: Oliver and Boyd, 1962.*

A graded word reading test in which ten groups of ten words are arranged in increasing difficulty. The test yields a reading age for word recognition.

Sources of games and game books

Wallace R. Burron

The purpose of this section is to attempt to provide teachers and those assisting teachers with sources for obtaining games and game books to develop reading and language skills. Children seem to learn more easily and enjoyably when they have ready access to reading games and other printed materials. It seems that in the mind of the modern child, no longer is reading something done only from a basic reader, rather it includes a host of different materials thus providing many more possibilities for reading practice and fun.

Listed below are publishers and suppliers of children's books, games and special education material. They have, in the past, mailed catalogues upon request.

Publishers

The Book Society of Canada Limited
4386 Sheppard Avenue
Agincourt, Ontario

Abingdon Press, 810
Broadway, Nashville 2, Tenn. U.S.A.

Barnell Loft, Ltd. 958
Church St.,
Baldwin, N.Y. 11510
U.S.A.

Bobbs-Merrill Company, Inc.
724-730 N. Meridian Street
Indianapolis 7, Ind. U.S.A.

Burns & MacEachern Limited
62 Railside Road
Don Mills, Ontario

Clarke, Irwin & Company Limited
Clarwin House
791 St. Clair Avenue W.
Toronto, Ontario

Collier-MacMillan Canada, Limited
Executive Offices
1125B Leslie Street
Don Mills, Ontario

Control Development Company
80 Genesee Street
Lake Zurich, Illinois 60047

Copp Clark Publishing Company
517 Wellington Street W.
Toronto, Ontario

Creative Playthings
Princeton, New Jersey 08540
U.S.A

Doubleday & Company, Inc.
575 Madison Avenue
New York 22, N.Y. U.S A.

Educational Teaching Aids
A. Daigger & Company
159 West Kinzie Street
Chicago, Illinois 60610

Educational Media — Through —
Marvin Melnyk Associates
Box 3783 Postal Station B
203 Cadomin Building
276 Main Street
Winnipeg, Manitoba R3C 1A9

Follet Publishing Company — Through
The Ryerson Press
299 Queen Street W.
Toronto, Ontario

Gage Educational Publications Ltd.
Box 5000
164 Commander Blvd.
Agincourt, Ontario

General Publishing Company
30 Lesmill Road
Don Mills, Ontario

Ginn and Company
35 Mobile Drive
Toronto, Ontario

Highlights for Children
2300 W. Fifth Avenue
Columbus, Ohio 43216 U.S.A.

Holt, Rinehart & Winston of Canada Ltd.
833 Oxford Street
Toronto, Ontario

McClelland & Stewart Limited
25 Hollinger Road
Toronto, Ontario, Canada

McGraw-Hill Ryerson of Canada Ltd
330 Progress Avenue
Scarborough, Ontario

Charles E. Merrill Canada Ltd
1300 Alum Creek Drive
Columbus, Ohio 43216

Moyer Vico Limited
495 Madison
Winnipeg, Manitoba

Thomas Nelson & Sons (Canada) Ltd
81 Curlew Drive
Don Mills, Ontario

Open Court Publishing Company
Box 599
La Salle, Illinois 61301

Oxford University Press
70 Wynford Drive
Don Mills, Ontario

Palm Publishers Limited
1949-55th Avenue
Dorval 760, Quebec

Reader's Digest
Education Division
215 Redfern Avenue
Montreal 215, Quebec

TR Services, Ltd.,
287 MacPherson Avenue
Toronto 7, Ontario

The Abingdon Press catalogue provides a careful description of all their new books, and with an annotated listing of earlier publications. The description of the new books includes even the exact size of the text as well as the age and grade level of the material, its publication date, binding, number of pages and price. In addition to their listing of new books, they also have an excellent listing of picture books, several titles in the read-aloud books, easy to read books, recreation books and religious books for boys and girls.

Camp Fire Girls, Inc. offers a wide variety of materials of interest to girls of ages seven and up. The material is relatively inexpensive, and will provide the classroom library with hard-to-find material designed especially for girls.

The publications of Doubleday & Company include a large number of books which the classroom teacher would find of value. This is highly recommended.

Grolier Educational Corporation publishes the "Reading Attainment System". This high interest, low vocabulary series especially designed for the "turned off" student comes in two kits and takes in practically all grade levels. Highly recommended.

Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., a combination of three well-known publishers producing juvenile books under the combined name, include a "Book to Begin On" series for ages six to eight, the Pogo series for children ages six to nine, and a number of other titles.

The publishers of "Highlights for Children" offer a wide variety of games and puzzles including the very popular "Hidden Picture Series." Highly recommended.

One of the most frightening features of a reading program is "Where do I get the materials?" We hope the list of publishers given in this section will provide teachers with enough catalogues to choose good children's books and games.

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Copies of "Writing the Objective Classroom Test" by P. A Taylor and Lil Taylor are still available at fifty cents per copy.