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ABSTRACT

Suggestions are presented in this paper to help teachers improve their questioning about students' reading as one way to improve the teaching and learning of reading. The paper first outlines three areas in the teaching of reading--the symbol, comprehension, and pleasure areas--and notes that teacher questions should aim at development in all three areas. It then presents data suggesting that the preponderance of comprehension questions teachers ask are literal and factual, notes that only a small number of other types of questions are asked, and points to the need for expansion of the types of questions used. Finally, the paper discusses three interrelated areas that can be used in improving comprehension questions: visual mapping, which guides students through concrete series of steps to perform specific comprehension processes; questioning strategies, which provide teachers with a framework within which to determine the questions they will ask; and tactics for asking questions. To illustrate the discussions, the paper presents three sample visual maps, two questioning strategies (one for analysis of a document and one for discussion of fiction), and 13 tactical guidelines. (GT)

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Parents, Children, and Teachers Questioning for Improved Reading*

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

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The Hebrew word "kara" has several related translations: to read, to call, and to call out, or proclaim. Today I shall focus on "kara" in its multiple meanings in the sense that I will be "calling" out to you regarding "reading." I will be calling upon you to consider some new ways to do what you have been doing for years when teaching children to read. That is, I shall offer you some suggestions for asking questions in different ways. I shall focus on the questions parents, children, and teachers can, as well as should, ask in their efforts to improve the teaching and learning of reading.

Let me begin by briefly setting the context in which we ask questions, and you will see the importance of my endeavor. I am concerned with three areas in the teaching of reading: the symbol area, the comprehension area, and the pleasure, or love, area. In the symbol area we teach the student to read the letters B-I-G as "big." That is to say, we teach that certain ink configurations constitute letters, and the various combinations of these letters, when we read them properly, represent the words we speak. I shall not involve myself here, amongst experts in the teaching of reading, in the issues of what is the better way to teach reading, phonics or whole language. I only want to point out that there are issues in the symbol area for experts to consider. The symbol area of reading is one of great concern to many teachers, especially remedial reading teachers. However, to many other teachers, especially those who work with children who are beyond their second or third years in school, the symbol area is not of particular concern.

What is of particular concern to all teachers is the second area of reading, the comprehension area. In this area we help students to understand what they read: Understanding is the prime purpose of reading. The writer of a message conveyed by letters and other symbols wants the reader to comprehend the message, and those who teach reading want the reader to be able to do so. For the author, understanding may be an intermediate goal toward an ultimate goal of belief, agreement, action, pleasure, or something else. In any case, the teacher focuses on understanding, aiming for comprehension of both the implicit and explicit messages.

The comprehension area includes many different elements of understanding. Various reading experts have offered systems for specifying the skills constituting comprehension. For example, Nila Banton Smith¹ offers the four categories of (1) literal comprehension, (2) interpretation, (3) critical reading, and (4) creative reading. Guszak,² with a different perspective, offers six categories of skills: (1) recognition, (2) recall, (3) translation, (4) conjecture, (5) explanation, and (6) evaluation. The point here is not to comment on these different categories but rather to indicate that the concern for comprehension in reading is widespread and deep. The literature on teaching comprehension in general or any particular category of skills within it is overwhelming in sheer numbers alone. Obviously, people who teach reading also like to write. The quantity alone of this vast literature calling for improved teaching for comprehension, even without the

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data I will cite shortly, is enough to impel us to seek alternative approaches to the teaching of reading.

The third area of reading with which I am concerned is the pleasure, or love, area. Teachers of reading seek to inspire their students to go beyond comprehension and to enjoy reading. Yet for some students reading is a cognitive chore, and they prefer not to read. Other students are somewhat indifferent, reading when assigned to read or when a book or article is of special appeal. Still others are positive addicts, hooked on reading. Though we may not desire to convert every child into a book worm, we surely do wish to have each one develop a positive attitude toward reading. We do want our children to find pleasure in reading--to enjoy it, to value it, to continue to do it when on their own in school or at home.

Our concern for this third area of pleasure stems from one or a combination of factors. For example, you could argue that we need to strive to teach most of our children to love reading because it is not a natural activity for them. That is, whereas we do not need to teach children to enjoy talking with their friends or viewing television because these activities involve the natural activities of speaking, listening, and seeing, we do need to teach most children to love to read, or at least to enjoy it. Reading, for most people, does not come naturally. Most people learn to read in school whereas they learn to speak, listen, and see on their own just by living with other humans. Or, you may argue that we strive to teach the love of reading because we have a cultural bias in favor of reading. That is, ever since humans learned to write, our culture has valued those who could read, and reading still today benefits from this high value despite the fact that other forms of communication such as radio, television, and public speaking may provide easier, though not necessarily better or speedier, means to receive messages from other people. In any case, whatever the reason or combination of reasons, I recognize that I, along with virtually all of you, want to teach our children to love to read.

It is within the context of all three areas of reading--symbol, comprehension, love--that I want to focus on asking questions for improved reading. If our questions bring about the ability to read the symbols but not to comprehend them or not to comprehend them well, then our questions are failing us. Similarly, if our questions succeed in the symbol and comprehension areas but not the love area, then they also are failing us. In short, our questions must lead us to success in all three areas, and we must, therefore, consider our questions in this regard.

To show the need for concern about questioning, let me state just a few research results regarding reading:

1. Teacher guidebooks for basal readers characteristically focused on questions eliciting, what Guszak refers to as, recognition and recall.³
2. Eight percent of the reading objectives written by teachers in Grades 1, 2, and 3 fell into the category labelled Memory; yet 48% of the questions actually asked fell into that category. For these same teachers, 28% of their actual questions were in the categories called Application and Analysis, yet 77% of their objectives were in these two categories. That is to say, there was a "wide gap existing between objectives and the questions used to attain them."⁴
3. Teachers read a selection from a basal reading series and then developed questions about it. The teachers were asked "to construct a number of questions

such as might be used to improve comprehension." In 30 minutes the teachers constructed 215 questions, 2/3 of which fell into the literal category and were also of the recall type.⁵

4. Literal questions were characteristic in the various grades of elementary school.⁶
5. The dominant pattern of interaction in the teaching of reading was a teacher question followed by a single congruent student response.
6. The ratio of questions to statements by teachers teaching reading was four to one.⁸
7. Some types of teacher questions (specifically Interpreting, Analyzing, and Evaluating) elicited higher levels of student responses than other types (for example, Gathering Specific Facts).⁹
8. Reading teachers in the primary grades asked 69% of their questions from the Literal category and 32% from the Interpretive category.¹⁰

In no way do I mean to imply by presenting these data that we should not ask literal questions for recall and recognition. Not at all. We need to ask such questions. These questions are needed in teaching children to read critically. In their study of the critical reading ability of elementary school children, Wolf, Huck, and King conclude, "Questions to gather information were least effective for producing critical responses but they seemed to be necessary in lessons directed toward critical reading."¹¹

The points for our consideration, therefore, lie in the answers to such questions as: What are the consequences of the large quantity of literal, factual questions? What are the consequences of the absence of, or at least the small number of, other types of questions? What are the consequences of either an intentional or unintentional emphasis on such questions? What are the factors which lead teachers to ask questions as they do? What alternatives can we teach people so that they can improve their questioning when teaching children how to read?

I do not know specific answers to the questions above regarding the consequences and causes of asking questions mainly for recall and recognition. I shall speculate on specific answers only briefly since I believe that the critical task is the design and implementation of alternatives to the current situation. That is, we know already that in general the current situation is undesirable and that we need to institute some changes.

First, let me comment on the two most significant consequences of asking literal questions. We know that our success rate in teaching reading is not as high as we would like it to be, as witnessed by test scores and the public's demand for higher levels in reading. Also, although educators and other adults consider reading important and strive to instill a positive attitude toward reading, many students hold negative attitudes toward reading, choosing not to read in favor of other activities.

Second, let me speculate about the factors leading to or causing this situation concerning questioning. Teachers for years have taught reading by asking literal questions and have now developed poor habits based on the models they have emulated. Moreover, pressures from people concerned with only the symbol and/or comprehension areas sometimes lead teachers to lose sight of all three areas. When this occurs, teachers

stress achievement in the symbol area and in literal comprehension which they consider to be basic to reading. This stress is directly reflected in the research data on the types of questions asked.

I do not claim that the consequences mentioned all stem from asking so many recognition and recall questions. Questions may be powerful indeed, but I doubt if we can assign to them all the blame for students not achieving as well as they might or not loving reading as well as they should. Similarly, I think the causes of the current situation are most complex, and we therefore must be sensible enough not to construct a simplistic approach to ascribing causes for the data shown in the research.

Let me move from this brief treatment of consequences and causes into the area of improvement because no specification of consequences and causes, however detailed it is, will suffice in directing teachers toward a new pattern of behavior. On the contrary, continued focus on causes may lead to assessing blame and making people feel guilty, and these feelings may not lead teachers to change.

My questions regarding questioning fall into three interrelated areas--visual mapping, strategies, and tactics. I shall treat these three areas in the order mentioned. First, let me state explicitly that for me questioning is a most important teaching act. Questioning is essential to teaching and holds this central role because it is directly tied to thinking. Indeed, questioning is the oral manifestation of thinking. John Dewey went so far as to say, "Thinking is inquiry, investigation, turning over, probing or delving into so as to find something new or to see what is already known in a different light. In short, it is questioning."¹² I offer you an obvious conclusion: it is because of the importance of questions that we need to improve the ways we ask them.

Let me now turn to visual mapping, the first of the three areas I shall deal with regarding improvement in questioning. I am indebted to Bette Kindman-Koffler for bringing to my attention the visual mapping approach to teaching comprehension skills. In a paper presented to the National Reading Conference Kindman-Koffler makes the case for the need for teachers and students to understand the "thought processes inherent to each skill" within the comprehension area.¹³ She offers visual mapping as an effective approach for satisfying this need. Visual mapping serves as a retrieval cue, thus guiding the student through a concrete series of steps to perform the specific thought processes.

For example, Kindman-Koffler's visual map of the skill of comparing and contrasting appears in Figure 1. This visual map is the culmination of a four-step procedure.

1. Examine objects x and y.
2. What are the facts for each object that describe it?
3. What are the facts listed for x that are the same or similar as those for y? This step is the comparing aspect of the thought process.
4. What are the facts listed for each object which are different from those of the other one? This step is the contrasting aspect of the thought process.

Kindman-Koffler has used the visual mapping approach with second grade students. At this point no formal research data are available because "the study is too recent to generate adequate evaluative data."¹⁴ Nevertheless, the visual mapping approach appears to serve its purpose of offering help to teachers regarding how to proceed in teaching a key comprehension skill. Kindman-Koffler and her colleagues believe that the approach was successful from their personal interviews with teachers and students.

Let me offer two other possible visual maps. Figure 2 shows the visual map for explaining the sequence for how to do something. Suppose you wish to have the students

prepare their own material to read and be read by others. You could ask them to explain how to fix a flat tire, for example. Then once they have the explanation set, they or all of you together could write up the steps. Or, you could use the map as a guide for reconstructing what your students have read once they close their books. In either case, the visual map in Figure 2 is the culmination of a four step procedure.

1. Review activity in your mind.
2. What are the sub-activities to do that go to make up the larger activity? (For example, in fixing a flat tire you must jack up the car, loosen the nuts, and tighten the nuts, to mention only three sub-activities.) List these sub-activities in any order that comes to mind.
3. When do you do each of these sub-activities--toward the beginning, the middle, or the end? The position of the arrow on the line gives only a rough indication of the order of that sub-activity.
4. What is the correct order for doing these sub-activities?

Figure 3 shows the visual map for evaluating something, whether it is a person, an object, or an event. For example, you may wish a student to evaluate a new machine invented by a character in a story. The procedure is in six steps. 1. Examine object x. 2. What are the facts that describe x? 3. What is the value term, such as excellent, good, or poor, to be applied to x? 4. What are the criteria for applying this value term to object x? List these criteria from "more important" to "less important." 5. Connect characteristics with criteria with double arrows. If certain characteristics do not meet these criteria or vice versa, then do not draw any arrows between the lists of characteristics and criteria. 6. Does object x deserve the value term used? Base your response on the balance between arrows drawn (with their varying importances taken into consideration) and the arrows not drawn that could have been.

Together these three visual maps--I'm sure that we could draw others as well--provide the teacher with retrieval cues for performing the specific thought processes which constitute the larger comprehension skills. At the same time, the maps offer the teacher a sequence of questions which are essential to the comprehension skills. The visual and the sequence aspects of these maps provide two powerful keys to learning the comprehension skills. In conjunction with the tactics that I shall offer shortly the teacher and student probably have a good chance of succeeding in the comprehension area, and such success may well be the springboard to success in the love area.

Strategies, the second area concerned with improvement in questioning, are closely related to the visual mapping area. I shall not speak at length here about the value of a questioning strategy. For a long and detailed treatment I refer you to my recent book entitled Strategic Questioning¹⁵ in which I make the case for strategies, offer five general and 15 specific questioning strategies, and relate question strategies to three types of teaching strategies--presenting, enabling, and exemplifying. Briefly, the value of a questioning strategy lies in the cumulative power of the individual questions so that the whole is greater than the sum of the specific questions when asked in a different sequence.

A strategy for asking questions provides teachers with a framework within which to determine the questions they will ask. The strategy serves as a guide and helps to answer questions teachers raise about what action they can and should take with students. A guide is necessary in planning for teaching but even more so while in the actual act of teaching. The interaction between teacher and student is so complex and generally so rapid as to prevent long deliberations. Even with careful and comprehensive planning no teacher can--or should--know ahead of time exactly which questions to ask at a given moment. Every teacher constantly monitors the ongoing situation in order to tailor the interaction to the demands of the situation. Therefore, the ability at a given juncture in the lesson to ask an appropriate question, one which will continue the forward thrust of the interaction, requires a framework.

This framework provided by a questioning strategy reduces the strain on the teacher and offers a sense of security so that he or she feels that all will not be lost when the unexpected occurs. Thus, strategy promotes confidence and ease which in turn communicate a positive tone to the students.

A strategy also provides a cumulative effect. Individual questions spur students to think. When the questions follow a particular sequence there is definite hidden impact. Single questions which are appropriate are needed, but the overall impact on the interaction stems from the strategy of questioning which combines the individual questions into a cohesive whole. With a strategy there is a synergistic effect. From her research on teacher behavior Hilda Taba realized this point, and it led her to develop her work on strategies of teaching. "The impact of teaching lies not alone in its single acts but in the manner in which these acts are combined into a pattern."¹⁶

So as to have an explicit referent for the word "strategy" as it applies to teaching, I will use the following definition: Strategy is a carefully prepared plan involving a sequence of steps designed to achieve a given goal.

A strategy by its very nature considers a range of questions. This is possible because the teacher draws up the strategy beforehand when consideration for a variety of questions is deliberate and called for. The range of questions requires the students to perform many cognitive processes in their responses. These processes contribute to the continued cognitive development of the students, something advocated by everyone concerned with improving reading.

Below, as an illustration, are two strategies to use in teaching reading. The first is one of the fifteen questioning strategies from Strategic Questioning. It is an analytical one which focuses on a document or essay. If you decide to use it, I suggest that you modify it to suit the particular material and readers with whom you are working.

Strategy 4: Analyzing a Document^{17.}

Questioner

Respondent

- | | |
|---|---|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. From what perspective will you examine the document (story; event)? (What framework shall you use in your analysis?) 2. What are the advantages of using this perspective? 3. What are the essential features of this document from this perspective? 4. From this perspective, in what ways is this document similar to or different from another familiar document? 5. Are there any elements missing from the document you'd expect to find since they are crucial to this perspective? If so, what are they? 6. What do these elements mean to you? | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. States viewpoint (framework/vantage point) to be used. 2. Gives reason for using this viewpoint. 3. Identifies and describes the features. 4. Offers analogy for comparison and contrast. 5. Based on related documents, identifies what gaps there are. 6. Offers importance and meaning of the identified elements. |
|---|---|

- | | |
|--|--|
| 7. What do you conclude about this document? | 7. Offers conclusion about the document. |
| 8. Repeat steps 1-7 but from another perspective. | 8. Analyzes the document from a different perspective to gain further insight. |
| 9. What do you conclude about this document based on the points arising from the various perspectives taken? | 9. (Synthesizes the many points raised and offers a multi-faceted conclusion. |

The second strategy is for discussing a fictional story or book. As before, this strategy aims to go beyond literal recall and to involve the discussants in analysis of the story and evaluation of it. If you decide to use it, I suggest you modify it to suit the particular piece of fiction and the readers with whom you are working.

Strategy 16: Discussing a Story or Book (Fiction)

Questioner

Respondent

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. Who are the main characters and what are the main events of this story (book)? | 1. Identifies and describes the central features of the story. |
| 2. What are the connections between the main characters, events, location, and time of this story? | 2. Relates the central features to each other. |
| 3. In what ways did the main characters change during the story? | 3. Identifies movement in the story. |
| 4. How did these changes affect the other characters and the events in the story? | 4. Analyzes the effects of change on other elements in the story. |
| 5. Were you expecting the story to end as it did? If yes, how did the author prepare you for the ending? If no, how did the author surprise you? | 5. Relates expectation and actual story read. |
| 6. How did the author create and maintain your interest in the story? | 6. Analyzes the elements of style which characterize the author in this story. |
| 7. How are the elements (events, people, and setting) of this story similar to elements in your own life? How are they different? | 7. Relates the story to his/her own life. |
| 8. In what ways is this story like " <u>(title)</u> " or some other story you have read? | 8. Compares this story to another story. |
| 9. What is your favorite short passage from the book? Tell what qualities it has. | 9. Identifies and comments on a passage that is liked. |
| 10. What do you conclude about this story in light of the points you've made already? | 10. Synthesizes the many points raised and draws a conclusion. |

Let me now turn to tactics, the third and last area concerned with improvement in questioning. As we all know, often it is not what we say that affects people but how we say it and who says it. The same is true with questioning. We must monitor the way we ask questions to our students and children. In a short and trenchant article Lalanne¹⁸ cautions us not to attack by questioning. When we bombard a person with questions, we convey a nonverbal message to the respondent along with the explicit verbal ones. Lalanne uses as his illustration the questions a parent might ask a child who comes home from an evening with a friend. Suppose the parent asks in rapid fire, "Where did you go? Whom were you with? What did you do? Where did you go from there? Why did you go there? How did you get there?" The child will likely feel that he or she is being attacked for going out and will resent the questions. As often happens in families, the child then gets angry and an unpleasant family situation between parent and child results.

So, too, with questioning in reading. The reader may get a nonverbal negative message from a series of questions such as this: Who is the main character? What did she do? How did she do it? When did she go to Florida? While she was in Florida, what happened to her cousin? The reader may get the feeling that the questioner is conducting a quiz or, worse yet, an interrogation. The reader may believe that we do not trust him or her to read and understand. And we must not forget that few of us liked to be quizzed or interrogated. As we adults must hear the deeper meaning behind a child's question or statement so must we not send a negative, deeper message to the child when we ask our questions. A child will respond to the deeper meaning of our questions, consider it as a verbal attack, and resent or even reject the act of reading.

We must question in moderation, and when we do, we must ask questions that serve us well. When we wish to check on the reader's comprehension of what was read (and there are times when checking is appropriate) as well as when we wish to get at interpretation, speculation, and evaluation of the material read, we must follow several essential guidelines.

However, before offering the following tactical guidelines, I wish to request that you not adhere to them slavishly. Just as you would modify an entire questioning strategy to suit your particular students, as offered earlier, so you must be flexible in the use of these guidelines. The guidelines are only that--guidelines. You need to keep them in mind as you work with your students. You will need to adjust your behavior as you seek to achieve your goals related to the symbol, comprehension, and love areas. If the guidelines seem to be favoring one area, for example the symbol area, at the expense of the other two or two areas at the expense of the third, then you will need to adjust your tactics.

Here are 13 tactical guidelines which I believe will be helpful as you help students in reading.

1. When checking for comprehension, ask reading-dependent¹⁹ questions. That is, ask questions which the reader will answer from knowledge gained from reading the material rather than from prior knowledge. If the student figures out that your questions do not actually tap his reading comprehension, then there probably will be less motivation to read the material.
2. Ask clear, concise questions. For example, if you wish to know specifically what year Carter was elected, do not ask "When was President Carter elected?" This question can have several legitimate and correct responses--"Several years ago" (relative time), "When I was 43" (personal time), "The year I visited the Smiths in Arizona" (shared private time), and "1976" (objective time). Give some clues

in your question that indicate that you want the objective number of the year. You could ask, "What year was Carter elected, 1972 or 1976?" Or, "Exactly how many years ago was Carter elected President?" Or, "When, in terms of the date of the year, was Carter elected President?" This point about the ambiguity of the word "when" also applies to such words as "who" and "where," two other popular questioning words.²⁰

3. Ask a question and wait for the response. The research on "wait-time"²¹ calls on us to wait after we ask a question rather than answer it ourselves, or request another person to answer it, or ask other question. The positive results which we get when we wait from 3 to 5 seconds--after asking a question and after receiving a response--are compelling. The research shows that students who were given a 3 to 5 second wait time increased the length of their responses, increased the number of their responses, changed their cognitive processes to more complex ones, and began to ask more questions. I shall return to this point of student questions shortly. In short, ask one question at a time and by waiting express your expectation to receive a response and your willingness to listen to the reader's response.

I selected the next six guidelines from The First-grade Reading Group Study conducted by the Research and Development Center for Teacher Education of the University of Texas at Austin.²² The guidelines were developed for teachers of reading working with small groups of children and based on available research and knowledge.

4. "Work with one individual at a time in having the children practice the new skill and apply the new concept, making sure that everyone is checked and receives feedback during the lesson."²³
5. "Use a pattern (such as going from one end of the group to the other) for selecting children to take turns reading in the group or answering questions (as opposed to calling on them randomly and unpredictably)."²⁴
6. "To keep each member of the group alert and accountable at all times between turns, . . . occasionally question a child about a previous response from another child."²⁵
7. Restrict "calling on volunteers. . . chiefly to parts of the lesson in which children are contributing personal experiences or opinions."²⁶
8. When a call out occurs, "remind the child that everyone gets a turn and he must wait his turn to answer."²⁷
9. "Avoid rhetorical questions asked, for effect with no answer expected, or leading questions."²⁸

I selected the next four guidelines from Teacher Training Packet 5 as developed by the Program on Teaching Effectiveness of the Center for Educational Research at Stanford University.²⁹ These guidelines are also based on available research and knowledge, some of it the same as that used by the Texas group above. Therefore, there is some overlap.

10. In selecting pupils to respond to questions, . . . use the technique of calling on a child by name before asking the question, as a means of insuring that all pupils are given an equal number of opportunities to answer questions.³⁰

11. "Avoid calling on volunteers more than 10 or 15 percent of the time during question-and-answer sessions."³¹
12. "With less academically oriented pupils, . . . always aim at getting the child to give some kind of a response to a question. Rephrasing, giving clues, or asking a new question can be useful techniques for bringing forth some answer from a previously silent pupil or one who says 'I don't know,' or answers incorrectly."³²
13. "With more academically oriented pupils who generally become actively involved in discussions, . . . concentrate on getting the correct response."³³

It is also necessary for parents and teachers to encourage children--for that matter, any person--learning to read to ask their own questions. Indeed, we must go beyond encouragement and actually get the reader to ask questions. Research shows that once alert to the need for student questions, teachers can succeed in increasing their frequency.^{34, 35} Singer,³⁶ a prominent reading researcher, points out that adult questions are inadequate for children who are learning to comprehend what they read. Singer urges us to move to what he calls "active comprehension." For him a child must learn to ask his or her own questions about what is being read so that there can be active participation--so that the child can say, "That's my question" and "That's the answer to my question." When children formulate their own questions to guide their own thinking they have a stake in the responses, develop a positive attitude toward reading, and "become independent in the process of reading and learning from text."³⁷ The research data and the literature in reading, therefore, indicate that when children ask each other questions and answer them, there is higher achievement in comprehension than when they respond only to the teacher's questions.^{38, 39, 40}

It is not possible nor necessarily desirable to shift to children's questions immediately or completely. First, children and teachers cannot shift quickly from their established pattern. Second, children have a need for dependence and need the opportunities to fulfill the expectations others have of them by showing that they can answer questions asked of them. The shift from parent and teacher questions to children questions should be gradual and balanced.⁴¹

In the shift away from the dominance of parent and teacher questions to more children questions we will need to be aware of two accompanying items. Children will ask some undesired or poor questions. Sometimes we might ourselves feel bombarded by questions. But that is the price we must pay for encouraging children questions, and the price is low. It is worth the price in the long run. In addition, we must be alert to the need to respond to the children's questions. When we do not respond, we convey a message which says we do not care and do not really want them to ask questions. But not only must we respond to the explicit questions, we must also respond to the deeper questions. Children ask questions for many purposes, just as we do, and we must look to the multiple nature of children's questions in our sincere effort to respond to our children.^{42, 43}

In short, since questioning is necessary in reading, I call out for a change in the current pattern of questioning. Notice that I am not calling upon you to stop asking questions. Rather, I am calling upon you to improve your questioning as one way to bring success in the symbol, comprehension, and love areas. You can improve by using visual mapping, strategic questioning, and appropriate tactics, as I have specified them today. These three techniques along with the encouragement of student questioning will help you because they provide you with ways of questioning reasonably, sensibly, and purposefully as opposed to chaotically, ignorantly, and purposelessly.

Improved questioning is essential to improved teaching because it is a fundamental skill. You can adjust your questions to fit your particular students and whichever area of reading needs your attention at any given juncture. Question asking is what Benjamin Bloom recently labeled as an "alterable variable" in education. Questioning is a quality of teaching open to alteration through study and feedback; it is not a static characteristic of teachers which is unalterable. Bloom is optimistic when he advocates that we make the qualities of teaching and not the characteristics of teachers central to our efforts for improved teaching and learning.⁴⁴ Through your questions you can concentrate on the symbol area or the comprehension area or the love area. By asking questions tailored to your particular students you can demonstrate your concern for your students, the material read, and the skill of reading. By developing in students the desire and ability to ask their own questions you can promote an atmosphere which rewards those who read and think about what they read.

Finally, we live part of our lives in an electronic world where television, radio, and disk and tape recordings compete for time often allocated to reading. Indeed, at least one video magazine now exists, videofashion, which you watch, not read, on your home video cassette player. The idea behind this innovation is the belief that most everyone will have a video recorder in the 1980s and thus have little need to read.

I disagree. Our complex 20th century lives demand that we read--and read well. We need to be able to read well and fast even to be good television viewers. Consider (1) all the commercial advertisements on the screen which involve electronic print, (2) the moving flash announcements that come across the screen, (3) the visuals used, especially in the news broadcasts, which involve reading, and (4) the listings of future programs whether they appear in print on the screen, or in the daily newspaper, or in a magazine about television. Yes, the need for reading still exists and will continue to exist, as shown by your answer to the following question, "What would be the quality of your life if you could not read?"

Figure 1: Compare and Contrast X with Y

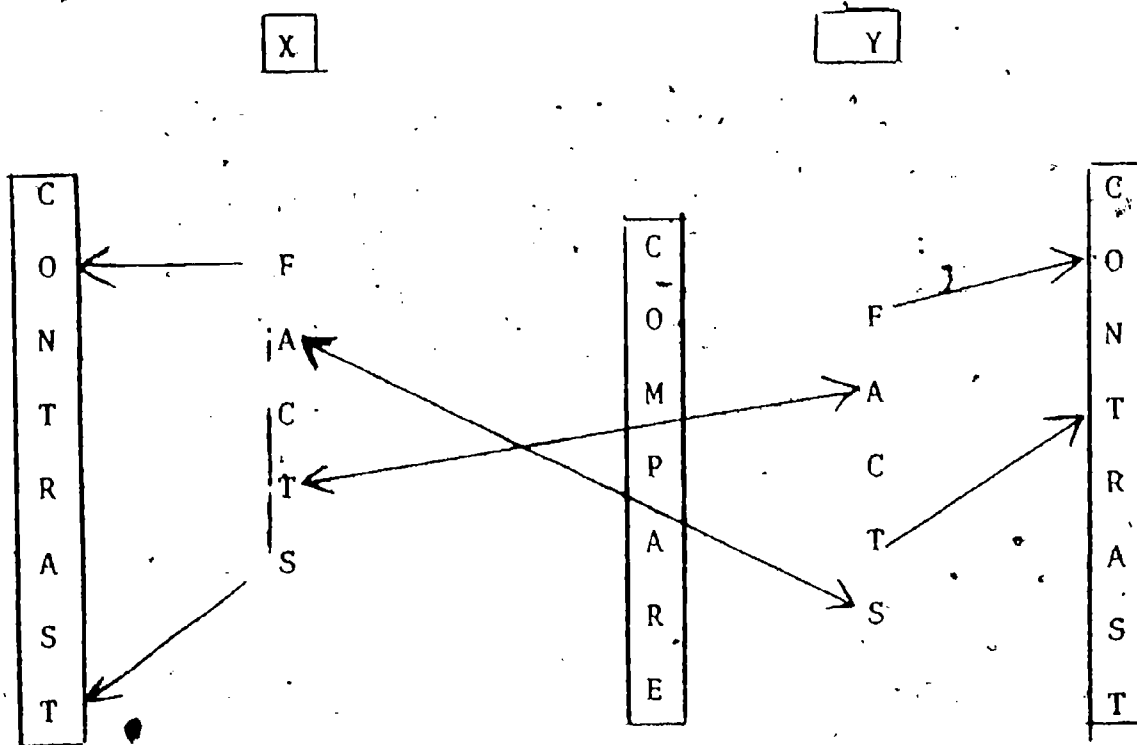


Figure 2: Explain How to Do X

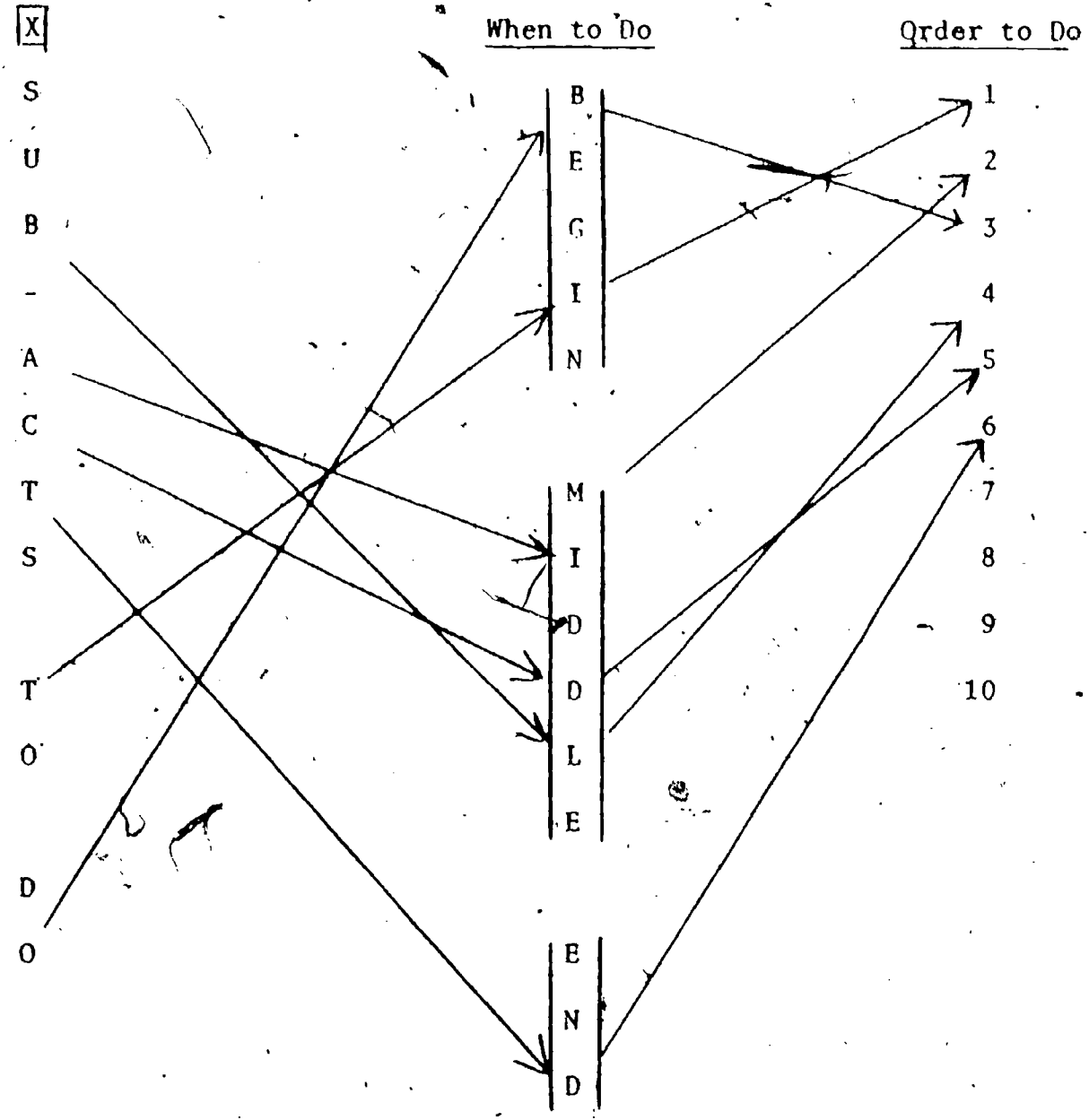
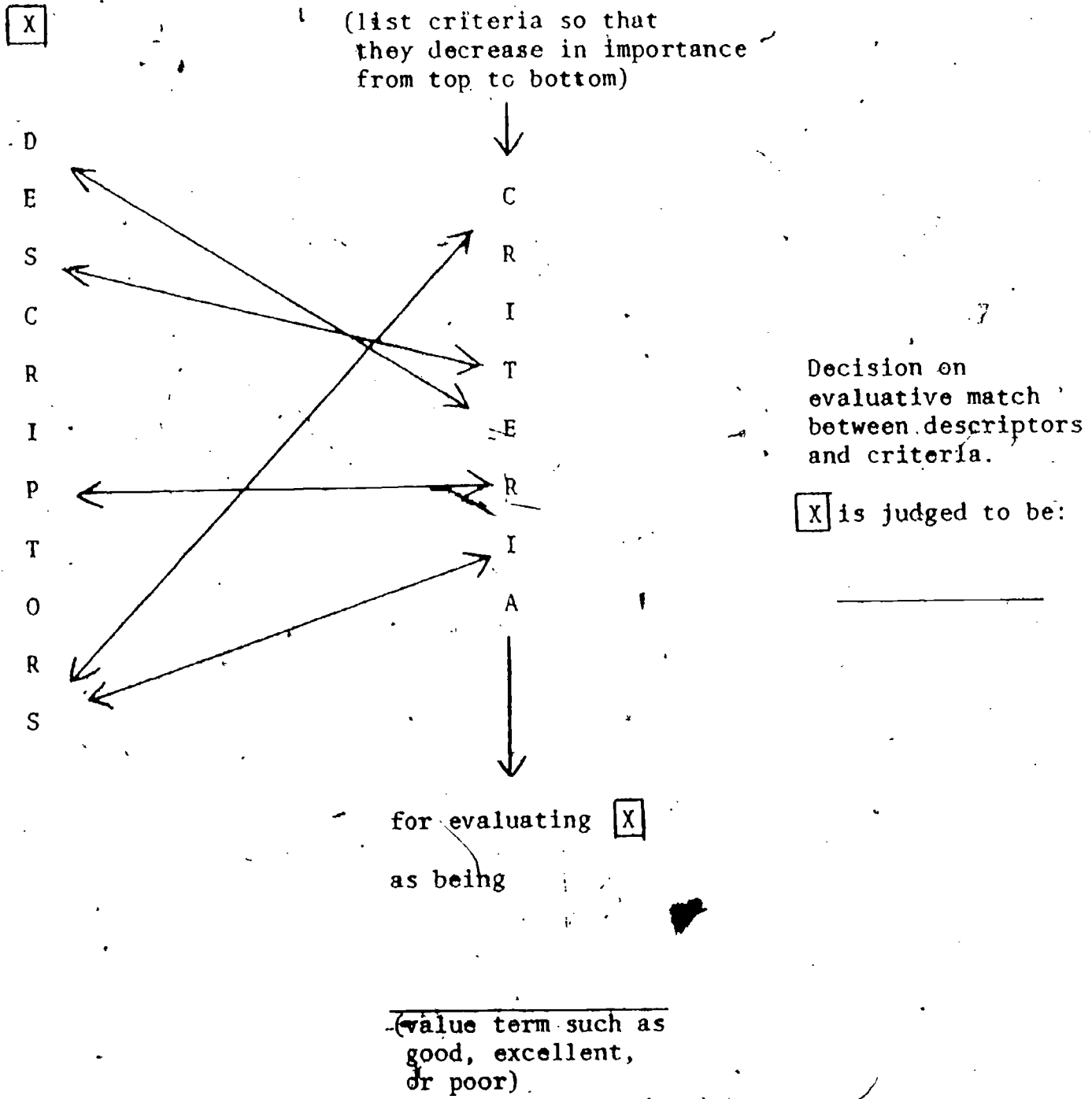


Figure 3: Evaluate X (Person, Object, or Event)



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