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ABSTRACT

This manual, intended for use by tutors working with adults learning to read, offers a consolidated resource of specific instructional techniques and provides additional suggestions not covered in basic tutoring workshops. The manual summarizes a variety of approaches commonly used to instruct adults and provides background for three modes of teaching and the process approach to writing. The manual also provides tutors with a variety of lists for use in aiding students to decode and comprehend. The manual is organized in eight sections: (1) the three columns of learning (coaching, discussion, and didactic instruction); (2) teaching methods; (3) teaching writing; (4) instructional systems; (5) goal setting and lesson planning involving students; (6) student reading assessment; (7) working with learning disabled adult students; and (8) word lists for tutoring. Contains 72 references. (KC)

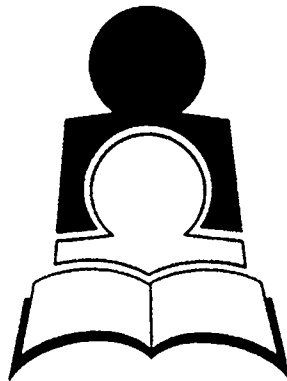
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Literacy Network of Greater Cincinnati

Tutor Reference Manual

Second Edition

December, 1993



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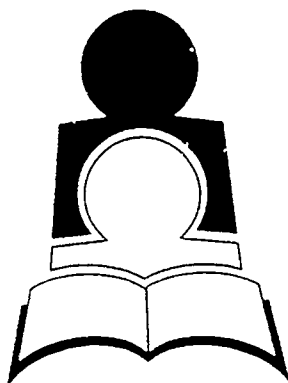
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TUTOR REFERENCE MANUAL

2nd Edition

December, 1993

John T. Clark, Editor

Ron Williams, Jr., Assistant Editor

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Literacy Network of Greater Cincinnati
635 West Seventh St. - Ste. 207
Cincinnati, Ohio 45203

Literacy Network of Greater Cincinnati Tutor Reference Manual
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Literacy Network of Greater Cincinnati

TUTOR REFERENCE MANUAL

Introduction

This manual is intended for the use of new and experienced tutors in the greater Cincinnati area who would appreciate a consolidated resource to refresh their memories on specific instructional techniques for working with adults learning to read, or for additional suggestions not covered in basic tutoring workshops (LLA, LNGC, LVA, KLC, etc). Not only does it summarize a variety of approaches commonly used to instruct adults, but it also provides background of the three modes of teaching and the process approach to writing. Finally, the manual provides the tutor with a variety of lists for use in aiding students to decode and comprehend.

The Literacy Network expresses its appreciation to the following for permitting the use of their materials in the body of this manual:

Literacy Volunteers of America for the word lists appearing in Section VI, and for ideas adapted in Section II - from the LVA manual, Tutor, 6th edition.

Mary Jo Clark, for the article "I Can't Spell, - the Plight of Adults of Low Literacy," **Alicia Sparks** for the article "What if my Student Has a Learning Disability," and **Leonore Ganschow**, for the article "Case Study of an Adult of Low Literacy with Developmental Dyslexia"

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John T. Clark
Editor and Contributor

Section I

THE THREE COLUMNS OF LEARNING AND TEACHING

One learns in three different modes - to acquire knowledge (didactic instruction), to develop skills (coaching instruction), and to understand ideas (discussion, and exercising logical thinking). In most traditional schooling after the primary level, the emphasis for instruction is on acquiring knowledge - about 80%. To a lesser degree, instructional time focuses on developing skills (15%), with the least amount of time - 5% - spent studying and understanding ideas .

Recent studies of American schooling (e.g. Adler, Sizer) indicate that these allocations are inappropriate. Acquiring information, while necessary, has become an impossible task. Today, there is simply too much knowledge for any one person to master, let alone understand. The most one can do - when he or she realizes that education is a life long process - is to learn how to learn.

This new focus necessitates a reordering of the three modes of learning. Skill development is the most important learning one can pursue, since it unlocks the door of acquiring and understanding knowledge. Skill development is also the key to learning to analyze and to think logically, which are the means to understanding the great ideas of man. For without understanding, ideas are of little use.

Therefore, education is a process that should be probably be 60% skill development, 30% discussion and understanding of ideas, and 10% acquisition of information. This reordering has direct implications for tutoring of the uneducated adult in reading.

- 1) **Skill development should be the primary focus of adult reading instruction.**

Practice to mastery is the essential **act** of the student in this mode of

learning. The tutor is a coach, whose primary job is to facilitate skill development, not act as a fountain of knowledge.

- 2) **Understanding of written ideas is the primary aim of adult reading instruction.** Discussion with the tutor or other students is the essential act of the student in this mode of learning. The tutor becomes a facilitator of learning, whose primary function is to think logically and aloud as a model for the student and to insure that the student learns to think logically.
- 3) **Acquiring additional knowledge with understanding is a necessary adjunct of adult reading instruction.** Every person must have information - understood information - to operate safely and effectively as a contributing citizen in today's democratic society. The essential act of the student is learning how to acquire information **on his/her own.**

All real learning occurs only with active participation of the student. At best, the tutor can function only as an assistant, just as the skilled obstetrician can only aid in the birth process. It is the mother who delivers the child. It is the student who learns.

To view these three modes of learning as independent entities would be a mistake. One must have information (short a sounds like the a in **cat**) to decode, the first step in reading. But learning to decode rapidly is a matter of practice **on the part of the learner**, with the tutor observing, correcting, and praising while the student practices. One can say the student has learned to decode only when he makes it his own. On the other hand, decoding is not reading. Unless the student understands the meaning of the words he reads and understands the meaning of the sentences and paragraphs where those words occur in their peculiar order, he is not reading. The only way to learn to do that is to analyze the reading and discuss it with someone else - until the new

student has the facility to do it on his own. Thus the three modes of learning are intimately related.

The primary aim of the tutor, then, is to insure active participation of the learner. But, in addition, the tutor must provide a proper climate for learning. This is no small task, since the student and tutor must both realize that **the only way we learn is by making mistakes**. This concept runs contrary to all our experiences in school - whether elementary, secondary or post-secondary. We all remember our teachers' expectations that our classroom performances be perfection, and the consequences when we did not fulfill those expectations. We have been conditioned not to make mistakes, the very thing that prevents learning.

Therefore, the tutor must effect an attitude adjustment, must make the student realize that it's all right to make mistakes, that he must make mistakes if he expects to learn. This adjustment is no small task, especially with an adult who has experienced problems and, probably, failure in a learning situation. It means instilling confidence in the student for the tutor, confidence that the tutor will not crucify her student for making a mistake. In turn, it means that the tutor must effect her own attitude adjustment. She is not the fountain of knowledge from which this student will passively receive the water of learning. She is only a midwife, a guide who can merely assist in a difficult process.

With this foundation, then, consider the tutor and student behaviors in the three modes of learning: coaching, discussing for understanding, and acquiring information.

C O A C H I N G

"Don't do that, do this!" In rather unsubtle terms, this sentence is the "modus operandi" of the tutor in coaching a student. To use a situation

familiar to most of us, remember learning to drive a manual shift car. Your tutor, usually your father, first told you how to do it. Then he drove off with you, showing you the specific actions. He stopped the car, and you had to get behind the wheel and try it out. If you were a normal learner, your first attempt made the car buck stalled the engine. Your father quietly said, "You let the clutch out too fast and didn't give it enough gas. Try again." Your next attempt was equally exciting. The engine raced, and the car took off like a police cruiser. When your father regained his composure, he screamed, "You let the clutch out too slowly and gave it too much gas! Try again."

So you did it again and again, falling each time on one or the other side of the ideal, but each time coming closer to a smooth start, each time earning either your father's correction or praise. Finally, through constant making of mistakes, you made it your own.

This example illustrates the steps of coaching. The coach first **explains** the desired behavior. Next, he **demonstrates**, or **models** the behavior. Then the student **practices** the skill, with the tutor **observing** and **correcting** with "Don't do that, do this!" Sometimes, mastering the skill necessitates additional explanation or demonstration. Mastery comes only with continual practice for the student. Notice that testing is not part of the sequence of instruction. That comes with the on-the-road test. That's when the new driver is expected to perform with few or no mistakes. Prior to test time, making mistakes is essential to the learning process.

To summarize, coaching skills involves the following steps:

1. **Explanation:** Verbally tell how to perform the skill. The explanation should include the purpose for each step, e.g. letting out the clutch engages the power train with the wheels; pressing on the accelerator provides extra power to the engine as it takes on the greater load of

moving the car.

2. **Demonstration:** Model the desired behavior, breaking down the sequence of actions into individual steps, with accompanying verbal explanations, e.g. let the clutch out slowly, like this, while pressing down on the accelerator.
3. **Practice:** Have the student imitate the modelled behavior.
4. **Observe and correct:** Watch the student perform the action closely. Find some way to praise her before correcting the action(s), e.g. "That's good for the first time. When you do it again, try That should make it much smoother."
5. **Repeat** one or more of the above steps until the student masters the skill. This usually requires patience, praise, corrections that don't lower self esteem, and repetition through a series of lessons.

REMEMBER: It takes a normal child at least eight years to learn to read with understanding, and children learn language faster than adults! Be patient with adult learners. Urge them to develop patience within themselves.

D I S C U S S I O N

There is no way to teach the skill of logical thinking. Experts have broken the types of thinking into at least nine categories, or "higher level thinking skills, e.g. literal meaning, interpretation, deductive and inductive reasoning, analysis, synthesis, making judgements, etc. They have devised exercises to teach these types of reasoning. While there is some evidence that labelling the modes of thinking helps the student identify a process ("Make a judgement about this piece of writing"), to teach "thinking skills" doesn't make much sense.

One thinks **about** something, and the only way to verify one's thinking about a reading is to discuss it with someone else. First, the student learns

to think by listening to others think aloud, defending their interpretations, deductions, or judgements against attack. Then the student must articulate her thinking about a topic or a reading selection - and defend it against attack with evidence from the text. It is through this interaction, or discussion, between two people or among several persons, that one sharpens one's ability to think logically and come to a supportable understanding of what has been read.

Everyone possesses a unique perspective about the world and, consequently, any reading selection, because we all filter any experience through our own past experience - our own "world picture," as Max Planck would put it. We compare any new occurrence or idea with what we have come to expect. If it agrees with past experience, we accept. If not, we test again to see if this new event happens with regularity. If it does, we modify our thinking. If not, we reject it. In this way, we broaden our understanding about the world, events, and ideas. But it requires contact with other things or other persons apart from our selves.

This is why dialogue between tutors and students is so important, if the student is to improve her ability to comprehend she reads - the ultimate objective, after all, of any reading instruction.

The key to meaningful dialogue is artful questioning. To ask a student questions such as "How did you like this selection?" or "Who did you most sympathize with in the story?" produces little that is useful for discussion, because all that is asked for is opinion - a largely emotional, not necessarily rational, response. Questions like "Who is the main character?" or "What happened in the story?" are slightly better because the reader must understand the piece literally - **"What did the author say?"** - before he can go on. This literal comprehension is the basis for any discussion of **"What did the author mean?"** In turn, what the author meant extends finally to **"Can we apply this**

idea in the world around us?"

This rationale suggests a basis for the selection of reading pieces and a strategy for questioning.

Selecting Readings for Discussion

1. The piece must be **issue oriented**. There can be no discussion unless two points of view exist about the topic. Most essays articulate a point of view that at least implies the opposite point of view. Often the author deals directly with the other point of view within the essay. Newspaper editorials or news stories with a by-line are good examples of this type of writing within the abilities of the less than skillful adult reader. But often a story, poem, or play focuses on an issue.
2. The reading should be of **interest to the student and the tutor**. A good discussion requires some degree of passion on the part of the participants.
3. The selection should be **slightly beyond the student's diagnosed reading level**. She should have to stretch her mind to comprehend.

Questioning

1. The tutor should prepare a core question that she has a genuine interest in, one of those "big" questions that man has asked of himself since he began to think and for which he has never found a satisfactory answer. The purpose of asking this question is not to answer it conclusively or even to reach agreement about an answer. The purpose is to have a good discussion that will broaden the understanding of both student and tutor about the reading. If the tutor has no interest in the question - or has the answer - there will be no meaningful discussion. The student will quickly realize that the tutor is looking for a specific answer and will lapse into playing the game that teachers have traditionally played: "Answer my questions so that I can see if you read the assignment."

Example of a Core Question: (Hamlet) Why does Hamlet delay in killing Claudius?

2. The tutor should prepare an opening question, one that is answerable from the text and one that lets the tutor know whether the student understood what she read.

Example of an Opening Question: (Hamlet) Does Hamlet suspect foul play in his father's death before he is visited by the ghost?

3. From here on, **every question the tutor asks should stem from the response given to the previous question.** That can be scary, because the discussion leader can't predict where the conversation is going to go. But with practice, **and careful listening,** it's really pretty easy.

Preparation

1. The student should be urged to read the selection at least twice. She should also be told that she can refer to the text any time she wishes during the discussion.
2. The tutor needs three things to be prepared to lead a discussion: a) more experience as a reader; b) better preparation with that text (has read it more times); and c) an attitude that reminds the tutor that he is not an expert in whatever the topic is. Nothing kills a discussion faster than someone posing as an expert. People shut up in such a presence because they are afraid they will make fools of themselves.
3. Both tutor and student should highlight or underline key passages, even make notes to himself and herself.
4. Initially, the tutor should be prepared only to ask questions. This might go on for several discussions. But once the tutor is confident that the student will challenge the tutor's opinion, it is safe for the tutor to inject his own thinking, backing it up with references from the text.

D I D A C T I C I N S T R U C T I O N

Everyone has experienced didactic instruction. It is that mode of teaching in which the teacher tells (lectures in the higher grades) the student, imparting information like a fountain of knowledge, expecting the student to soak up the learning, to take notes, to remember, to be rapt in wonder. The teacher is the expert. All the student has to do is listen and remember: the world will be explained.

While everyone must have information to function, one must understand that information if it is to be acted upon. And while telling is the most efficient way of imparting information, the student remains passive. Real learning, however, occurs only when the student is **actively** engaged. How many of us have read grammar texts, listened to English teachers define the parts of speech, and passed the final exam - only to find that at the beginning of the next school year, we had forgotten what a participle is? That happening is the result of poor didactic instruction. Just consider the dictionary definition of didactic: intended to instruct; morally instructive; inclined to teach or moralize excessively. (Note the words "moralize" and "excessively.") Teachers turn off their pupils, to use the language of the electronic age, with telling or lecturing. The teacher is a legend only in his own mind.

The double dilemma, then, is as follows: students must acquire and understand information; students must be actively engaged in their own learning, not passive recipients. Unlike most dilemmas, though, there is a way out. The key lies in an old Chinese proverb (really) which says:

Tell me, I forget;
Teach me, I remember;
Involve me, I understand.

The implication for the tutor is to do everything in the world to avoid telling the student anything. Obviously, this is not always possible, but most

of the time, one can devise a method for the student to discover the information for herself, by asking her a series of questions or by posing a problem for her to solve, i.e. by using the discovery method.

Example: [Word Patterns]

1. (Learner knows the word sat and the letters s and m)
2. Tutor: (Writes s-a-t on board) "If this word is sat," (writes m-a-t below s-a-t)
"Then what word is made if I change the s to m ?," etc.

The technique is a simple one: keep asking leading questions until the student responds correctly. She was actively involved in acquiring the information (largely) on her own. When she succeeds, she will remember because she had to do it, rather than let the tutor tell her. The motto of good teaching, as you know, is: "Don't tell the student a #/@* thing!"

The tutor will know that the student is thinking and actively engaged when she, the student, begins asking questions. In reality, this is the hallmark of learning. Typically, we think of the teacher or tutor as the person who asks questions. But the aim of any instructor should be to get the student to ask questions.

Section II

INSTRUCTIONAL TECHNIQUES (TEACHING METHODS)

Efficient reading basically consists of two acts: quick, almost automatic, **word recognition** (or decoding) and accurate **comprehension**. Without both, one is not reading. Without **fast** word recognition, comprehension is impossible. Once the student is able to discriminate words easily (and put them together in sentences), the only way to improve the skill of reading is by reading (practicing with and without supervision and answering questions about the assigned reading).

Word recognition consists of **discriminating** the sounds/combination of sounds that make up words and connecting those sounds to the symbols comprising the alphabet (sound/symbol relationships). Non-readers have never been exposed to sound/symbol relationships or have not learned them for some reason. Poor readers have not practiced converting the symbols of the printed word to the corresponding spoken word enough to make the process an automatic one. The result of this inadequacy is a word-by-word pronunciation of a sentence - without comprehension of the sentence's thought.

Comprehension - grasping the idea expressed in writing - only occurs after

- 1) the student can read the words fast enough to form a coherent whole,
- 2) he/she can relate those words to one another, and 3) he/she can react intellectually to the thought expressed. This reaction takes various forms: agreeing/disagreeing with the statement, realizing the relationship of one statement to another, judging the validity of the idea, etc. We call that reaction **comprehension**.

The tutor has available a number of teaching tactics for developing a student's skill in reading, both decoding and comprehending. In employing these techniques, one must remember three things: 1) all people can learn,

2) but they learn at different rates and in different ways, and 3) they must practice. Therefore, tutor and student must be prepared for exciting moments where spikes of learning take place and for the dreary monotony of practicing until the skill is mastered - where no improvement seems to be occurring, **but where consolidation of the skill is happening.**

Decoding can be taught using the techniques and exercises reviewed below. But the tutor is cautioned that these methods focus only upon the skill of unlocking a word: translating symbols into sounds that can be apprehended by the mind, i.e. recognized. Decoding goes no further than that. Once that recognition has occurred, the student must pass on to the act of comprehension, understanding the idea(s) being expressed in those sentences and paragraphs. Finally, the tutor must remember that doing the following types of exercises is for the student rather boring and exhausting. Therefore, only a few minutes of each lesson should be spent on such exercises.

A. Phonics - Teaching vowel, consonant, and consonant digraph sounds

1. **Vowels:** The vowel sounds are difficult to teach because each of the five letters represent more than one sound in English, depending upon where they occur and with which consonants they appear. In addition, in combination with other vowels, they represent different sounds. While there are many rules about how vowels are sounded, those rules apply less than half the time. Therefore, teaching those rules is probably a waste of time. In addition, besides the standard long and short sounds, each vowel has other shades of sounding, as indicated by other diacritical marks, such as ^. For nearly all readers, save linguists, only the sounds represented by the long and short vowel sounds and the **schwa** () sound - /uh/ (as the e in **gate**) are needed to pronounce

words closely enough for recognition when spoken. These can be taught by teaching students the names of the vowels (which are pronounced the same as the long vowels) and the short vowel sounds through the use of key words.

The following chart indicates the regular spelling of vowel sounds with examples.

	Sound	Examples	Regular Spelling
<u>Long Vowels</u>	/a/	pay	a, ay, ai, a-e
	/e/	bee	e, ee, ea, ey, e-e
	/i/ /y/	pie, by	i, y, ie, igh, i-e
	/o/	home	o, oa, ow, or, o-e
	/u/	cute	u, ue, ew, u-e
<u>Short Vowels</u>	/a/	at	a
	/e/	elm	e
	/i/	it	i
	/o/	pot	o
	/u/	cut	u
	/y/	silly	y
<u>Other Vowels</u>	/oo/ /u/	few, rue,	ew, ue
	/oo/	moon	oo
	/uu/	look	oo
	/ou/	loud, crowd	ou,ow
	/aw/	auto, saw, call, ough	au, aw, a, bought
	/oi/	soil, toy	oi, oy

Finally, one should remember that it is much easier to guess at the pronunciation of a word if you have just the consonants rather than just the vowels, as in the following two examples.

-ct--ns sp--k l--d-r th-n w-rds.
A--io-- --ea- -ou-e- --a- -o----

It just makes sense, therefore, to concentrate on teaching consonant and consonant digraph sounds rather than to spend a lot of time on vowels. Consonants digraphs are, however, taught in

the same ways as consonants, with key words, flashcards, etc. -as given below.

2. **Consonants:** Begin with this caution. Do not teach consonants that the student already knows. It will drive you both crazy. Find out first which consonant's he does not know and then group them by similarities, e.g. ones that are sustained in the initial position of a word: f, m, s; or letters with similar shapes: b and d, w and v, p and g, etc. Then, using flashcards and pencil, follow the following steps:
 - a. Right f (for example) in the top left hand corner of the card **in manuscript.**
 - b. Point to the letter and say "This is an f."
 - c. "What is the name of this letter?" (Student response.)
 - d. "Listen for the /f/ at the beginning of these words - fun, fare, fire, four. Do you hear the sound?" (Student response.) "Say these words after me - fun, fare, fire, four."
 - e. "Which of these words do you want for a key word? (Student picks one.) Tutor writes the word under the letter.
 - f. Have the student make the sound until correct.
 - g. Ask the student to recognize the sound in other words (some of which do not begin with the /f/ sound. (Student response: yes or no.) Add words that begin with the sound to the card.
 - h. Put the sound at the end of some words and practice with steps f. and g. above.
 - i. Review by having the student name the letter, pronounce the key word and articulate its sound.

- j. Have the student right the letter in manuscript (and cursive if he/she is able).
3. **Consonant Digraphs:** When teaching the sounds of the letters /ch/, /sh/, /qu/, /th/, and /wh/, follow the same sequence used for teaching consonants used in 2. above. Be sure, though, to distinguish between the voiceless and voiced sounds of /th/ - as in thermal and than.

B. Sight Words & Context Clues

1. Sight words are merely words that have been memorized by the reader. Commonly, these are utility words (the, a, an, etc.) that occur with high frequency in all sentences and often have no inherent meaning that can be defined in a dictionary sense (such as can the word building). The three hundred most frequently used words appearing in Section VIII are sight words. **These words constitute 65% of our speaking vocabulary.** Survival words (men, women, dose, month, etc.), too, should be treated as sight vocabulary. Irregularly spelled words, e.g. of, receive, must, of necessity, be taught as sight words. Teaching words used to introduce word patterns (discussed below) as sight vocabulary is useful since the student must immediately recognize the introductory word if he/she is to acquire more words that closely resemble the model.

Use of flash cards is probably the most common tool for developing sight vocabulary. Obviously, having a student pronounce the words as the tutor shuffles through them is one technique that works - if it is done often enough that the student recognizes the word quickly at least four times without a miss. It is also a deadly

activity. Consider the following variations:

- a. Having the student write his/her own flash cards.
- b. Giving the student four or more flash cards with words that can be arranged in a sentence.
- c. Having the student write the word in cursive on the back of the flash card.

But other activities work just as well, and provide needed variety. Consider the following:

- a. Letter mazes that contain words when read left to right, right to left, vertically, diagonally, etc.
- b. Searching newspapers for specific words. These are particularly useful when working on survival words, such as price, sale, meat.
- c. Using Scrabble tiles to form as many words as possible, within a certain time limit.
- d. Having students write sentences with sight words you provide.

Such exercises are easy to dream up. The point is to get the student to manipulate the words - in his mind, with her hands - by writing the words. Observe which techniques work with that student - and use them. Discard the ones that get the student nowhere.

2. Context Clues are one means all readers use to decipher words they are not sure of, particularly in new circumstances. As such, they are a way of helping readers acquire words in their reading vocabulary that are already in their speaking vocabulary.

Exercises to teach the use of context clues get at one of the big problems in learning - **transfer**. Most people can learn a task or

a piece of information in one situation easily, but cannot transfer that skill or information to a new situation - or context.

For example, students typically can memorize the mathematics fact $2 + 2 = 4$. But put that fact into a word problem - a new context, and they can have difficulty transferring that knowledge to solve the problem, e.g., "Bill set out on a hike, walking from one to three o'clock. When he came to a beautiful lake, he stopped and rested for an hour. He completed his hike in another two hours, at 6:00. How many hours was he actually walking?"

In the same way, students can learn the word stop on a flash card but not recognize it immediately in a sentence, because it is presented in a new context.

On the other hand, as mentioned above, we predict words or decipher meaning - or shades of meaning - through context clues. Therefore, exposing new or poor readers to newly acquired words in new contexts is crucial if they are going to make those words their own; conversely, training them to use context clues to decipher meaning or a new shade of meaning in a new sentence is invaluable.

For the new reader, the tutor can introduce new sight words by using image context, e.g. the red octagonal sign for the word stop, the picture of a detergent box with the word soap, etc.

The cloze procedure is a method for teaching the use of context with poor readers. In this procedure, the learner fills in the blanks, predicting the right word from the context of the rest of the sentence, constructed at the learner's instructional reading

level. In an easier format, words are suggested; in another less difficult configuration, only the first letter of the missing word is supplied. Finally, with those more skilled, only a blank line is provided.

It was so cold that Ellie wore a _____. Jan even put
(blouse, coat)
on _____, her hands were so icy.
(gloves, smiles)

It was so cold that Ellie wore a c _____. Jan even put on
g _____, her hands were so icy.

It was so cold that Ellie wore a _____. Jan even put on _____,
her _____ were so icy.

The cloze procedure is also a useful tool for assessing a student's reading level. By selecting a graded reading and omitting - arbitrarily - every fifth or tenth word. Some test developers insist that the exact word be supplied by the student. Others accept reasonable synonyms that are grammatically correct. If the student identifies 55-60% of the missing words, he is at his independent reading level; 45-50 %, his instructional level; below 35 %, his frustration level.

C. Word Patterns

After students have learned consonant and vowel sounds, it is quite useful with most to teach word patterns. Not only do word patterns help expand the number of words students can recognize, but it helps them break down longer words by recognizing clusters of letters forming sounds, which, when put together, form the longer words.

Again, the caution to the tutor is that conducting such exercises with each lesson is effective as long as the practice is short, no

longer than five to ten minutes. The tutor should always keep in mind that reading is mastered primarily by having the student read, and that writing is the primary adjunct to teaching reading. Therefore, the bulk of a lesson's time should be spent with those activities, with short skill drills inserted to provide variety. Besides knowing letter sounds, the student must understand rhyming, the foundation of teaching word patterns. The exercises are done by starting with a word cluster, whether it be -an or -ough or any of the other patterns provided in the Useful Lists section of this manual, and adding consonants to them, e.g. ban, can, fan, man, sand, tan, etc. The tutor writes down, on a piece of paper or an index card, in a column, a word in the student's reading vocabulary, and says, "If this word is ban, what is this word? (pointing to can). In a column, the student can see the common element in each of the listed words. In fact, after finishing the words in the column, the tutor should ask what the common letters and sound are in each of the covered words. With repetition, the student will be able to make each of the words his own, along with the initial word selected from his reading vocabulary.

Once the student understands what is going on and has mastered recognizable words, the tutor can introduce combinations that are not words in themselves but form sounds that are part of larger words: -ap cap, but also happen, where hap- is not a word by itself.

Once the student has facility with this, the tutor can introduce the commonly used word patterns:

C-V-C (consonant-vowel-consonant) pattern: sit
C-V-C-C: lack
C-C-V-C: play
C-V-C-E (): pole
ch-, sh-, th-, wh-: chip, shot, those, where
Others: -aught, -tion, etc.

If the student does not understand rhyming, conducting an exercise with longer nonsense words is effective for teaching this recognition: amble, lamble, samble, mamble, tramble, etc. - the sillier, the better. The tutor, as she writes down the words in a column, says, "If this word is amble, what is this word (pointing to lamble)?"

D. Language Experience Approach

The language experience approach is a teaching technique that uses the learner's own experience and language as the origin of the reading material used for instruction. The experiences can be anything of interest to the student: personal events, selections read to the student, manuals or procedures used at work, etc. Using these experiences has several advantages. They are couched in the student's own vocabulary and so have immediate appeal. They make use of the student's own knowledge - a considerable amount with any adult. The tutor can begin using them on the first day of instruction, she can gain insight into her student's life and interests.

There are six steps to implementing the approach.

- a. The tutor and student converse - about anything that is of interest to the student.

- b. The tutor records the student's words verbatim.
- c. The tutor reads aloud the recorded words - story, instructions, opinions, whatever the student has dictated - to the student, while the student follows. Then, the two read the passage aloud together. Finally, the student reads the passage aloud to the tutor.
- d. The tutor has the student select sight words from the passage to acquire as sight vocabulary. (The tutor may underline words that are appropriate as sight words from which the student makes his selection.) Then the tutor teaches those words, as outlined above.
- e. The tutor reviews and adapts the material learned in the lesson. This might include the student (or tutor and student) rereading the selection, the student copying the text, adding an ending or additional thought to the story in writing, conducting other word exercises, e.g. word patterns, etc., based on the student's needs.
- f. The tutor assigns homework based on what was covered in the lesson. (It is important never to assign something new as homework. Homework should always be a review and practice of things learned in the lesson.)

The language experience approach forms the framework for reading instruction in place of a graded text and associated workbooks. Within it, and based upon the material dictated by the student, the tutor devises exercises that develop word recognition skills; build vocabulary; introduce/improve usage, spelling, and punctuation; and - most important - develop comprehension skills:

the ultimate goal of any reading instruction. That goal is discussed separately below.

E. Comprehension

The object of all reading is to understand what has been read. That seems like an obvious statement, but many teachers think they have taught reading when they have had their students articulate the sounds of the letters, words, and sentences aloud - assuming that understanding happened along the way. It's just not so. Some students can read a passage aloud with no mistakes but cannot explain what it means. Nearly always, the giveaway is the monotonous articulation of the words, with no phrasing (as often indicated by punctuation); or no rising or falling of the voice to indicate the end of a thought, question, statement, or command.

For the purposes of the new adult reader, the tutor need only consider developing three levels of comprehension with the student. **But all three must be worked on.** The means is by questioning.

In discussing the matter of comprehension, refer to the following passage from the Declaration of Independence:

We hold these truths to be self evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable Rights, that among these are Life, Liberty and the pursuit of Happiness. That to secure these rights, Governments are instituted among Men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed. That whenever any Form of Government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the Right of the People to alter or to abolish it, and to institute a new Government, laying its foundation on such principles and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their Safety and Happiness.

1. Literal Level Comprehension

Literal level comprehension is most easily explained by

asking the question, "What did the author say?" Using the paragraph above (not a passage one would use with poor readers), one might ask the following literal level questions:

- a. What three rights of men do the authors of the Declaration of Independence specify are granted by the Creator?
- b. Why are governments instituted?
- c. When may a people alter or abolish its established government?

Once the student can answer these literal level questions, she is on her way to understanding what the paragraph means. **But she is only on her way.** There are too many unanswered questions inherent in the paragraph that must be addressed before one can say she understands. These questions are related to the implied meaning of the passage, the real essence of what is being said. But until the reader understands the literal meaning, she can't explore the real meaning, or what has been inferred by the author. Consider section 2, below.

2. Inferential Level Comprehension

The best way to express inferential comprehension (reading between the lines) is with the question, "What did the author mean?" For, as we all know, what a person says is not always what a person means. If a man says to his wife, "Are you going to wear that to the party?", he might be expressing great approval or extreme disapproval, depending on the way he asks the question. Such meaning is easy to decipher when we hear the thought spoken. But writing often does not have a way of expressing that

intonation. Nor does an author always literally express a thought, assuming that the reader can put two and two together. Consider these inferential level questions for the Declaration of Independence passage:

- a. To whom does men refer? (Women, too? Slaves? There were slaves when the Declaration was written. All white Anglo-Saxon males? Only those who owned property?)
- b. What does the clause "All men are created equal" mean? (Are we clones of one another? Do we have equal intellectual capacities? Should we all make the same salary? Do we have equal rights?)
- c. Is liberty an unalienable right? (How far does that go? Can we yell "Fire!" in a crowded theater? May we imprison a person for a crime? If we can, may we leave him with no liberties?)
- d. How does a people determine when a government has become "destructive of these ends"? (Are these ends only those mentioned in the paragraph? How does a people determine the boundary of "destructive," considering that in war time a people submits to the cancellation of certain rights?)

Now, one sees, the meaning of this crucial paragraph in the Declaration is not what appears on the surface. Yet, one cannot truly say she understands the paragraph unless she can provide an acceptable answer to such questions. But even these questions - when answered - do not insure complete understanding. Consider the next section.

3. Applied Level Comprehension

At this level of understanding, we ground our questions and consequent discussion on the expressed and implied meaning of the text, but ask questions that go outside the text, that apply to our own circumstances. For example,

- a. Have the ideas expressed in this passage taken on new meaning as our society has matured? (Does the clause "All men are created equal" have the same meaning for us today as it did for the writers of the Declaration?)
- b. If a people have the right to abolish a government that is "destructive of these ends," why was it not "legal" for the South to secede from the union? (Was the government really destructive of these ends in that case? Should the Ku Klux Klan be able to erect a cross on Fountain Square [exercise of free speech] when that cross symbolizes curtailment of the rights of ethnic groups within the community?)
- c. Has our government ever enacted laws without the consent of the governed? (Does the government only have to have the consent of the majority governed to enact a law? Consider the Jim Crow laws of the last century and the early 1900's or the separate but equal concept that dominated the first half of the 20th century.)

Some applied level questions may never be answerable, but the reader gains insight into the reading by dealing with them in discussion with someone else. In discussing these types of questions, it is most important to remember that the purpose is

not to reach a final answer but to gain a better understanding of the text. In addition, the tutor must remember that not all readings lend themselves to the application level. The reading must be issued oriented and deal with one of the "big" topics, those ideas man has always pondered but never completely answered.

Other application level questions can be answered. For example, if a student is to demonstrate her understanding of the "Rules of the Road" given in written form for the Driver's Examination, the tutor must see her observing them (demonstrate her understanding) **while she is driving**. A written response to a paper and pencil test is not enough. In the same way, a computer operator can only demonstrate complete understanding of the operations explained in a computer software manual by doing them on the computer.

The point of this rather extended discussion of comprehension skills is that the tutor must become adept at asking questions about the reading - and at all levels. The only way to develop comprehension skills is through questioning and discussion, together with vocabulary development. One can find many texts that provide practice in developing comprehension - many through asking questions. But are they the right questions? Questions such as "Do you like Hamlet as a person?" gets the reader no where in understanding what's going on in the play.

Some texts try to develop understanding, for example, by providing paragraphs where the main idea is expressed in the first or last sentence in the paragraph, explaining to the student that these positions are the two most important in a paragraph.

But most writers do not write that way. They may not even express their main idea literally. The practice world, in this case, does not duplicate the reality the student will face when he faces a real book, manual, or article.

Fortunately, most people love to discuss things. For the reading student, the discussion part of a lesson is much more interesting than decoding exercises. This is good, too, because discussion takes considerably more time to conduct than repetitive exercises. But developing comprehension is where the bulk of instructional time should be spent anyway.

In the final analysis, half to three quarters of a lesson should be spent having the student read and discussing the reading with the student to insure that he is comprehending what he reads.

Section III

THE PROCESS APPROACH TO WRITING

I Introduction

The teaching of writing has undergone radical revision since the 1960's, as a result of the Bay Area Writing Project, which redefined the methodology for teaching writing in the 1970's.

Traditionally, before students were even allowed to write, they underwent a complete study of grammar, punctuation, usage, spelling, etc. - each year. This included learning the parts of speech, parsing someone else's sentences (in a textbook), correcting and punctuating erroneously written sentences (again not their own), and spelling new words - with the help of bees, round robin oral quizzes, and fill-in-the-blank exercises from someone else's textbook or purple worksheet.

After at least six weeks (except for the first-day-of-school assignment of writing a story on their summer vacation), students were requested to write about something - sometimes of their own choosing, but mostly of the teacher's whim. Rarely did the teacher help her students think through possible things to say in the paper or how to go about it. To add to the confusion, essays were always done as homework assignments.

The results were often incomprehensible, poorly organized, and terribly expressed. The result of the results was a frustrated teacher and a paper returned with a blizzard of red - mostly little proofreading marks on the margin. Comments were usually restricted to ?; !; Good, How can you say this; Rewrite; or other, generally one word and often sarcastic comments. Or the dread order, "See me after class!"

The normal method of correcting all those errors was to do a complete rewrite, with no explanation, no suggestions - nothing.

After students' initial efforts at writing betrayed a lack of organization and clear thinking, the teacher resorted to the writing textbook. Students learned that an essay has an introductory paragraph, a body, and a conclusion. Paragraphs have topic sentences, sentences of support for the paragraph's main idea, and concluding sentences which "tie it all together." One bridges the thoughts between paragraphs with "transition sentences." The only problem with all this is that when one looks at good writing, one doesn't find all these devices. Good writers just don't write according to formulas.

Such methodology has led to a nation of 9, 13, and 17 year olds, according to the National Assessment of Educational Progress, who cannot write a complete sentence, let alone think a logical thought.

The assumption underlying the old approach was that if one understood the elements of the language, one could write. But this assumption is false, because the only way to teach a skill is to practice that skill under guided supervision. The traditional approach to writing instruction ate up class time with studying the mechanics of language, leaving little time for the actual coaching of writing.

The assumption inherent in the process approach to writing is that **one only learns to write by writing**. While it is important to use the conventions of language (grammar, usage, punctuation etc.) correctly, one doesn't **start** with language instruction to teach writing. The tutor has the student write.

The poet Robert Frost has said that all there is to writing is having ideas. While this statement perhaps oversimplifies the process, there is truth in the remark. Most people, when asked to write something, respond, "But I don't have anything to write about." Yet having a discussion about the topic with the student prior to his writing helps allay this fear. The other big hurdle is having the confidence to sit down and begin writing.

An exercise that develops this facility is to begin each instructional period with one, then two, then three minutes of writing, working the student up to five or more minutes of writing. **The tutor writes while the student writes**, to show that the activity is important and interesting. The writer picks the topic for himself and simply begins writing about it for the duration of the specified time. The writing can become part of a journal - either shared or not with the tutor. Not only does this technique get the student used to doing handwriting itself - something many adults are not good at - but it also gets him used to putting down his thoughts. If invited to read the student's writing, the tutor never corrects it for mechanical errors, but comments on the thoughts presented: agreeing, disagreeing, questioning for clarity, etc.

The above exercise is an **adjunct** to writing instruction, not the **lesson**. Writing instruction itself is composed of several, well defined steps.

The student

1. **Thinks about/discusses with the tutor what he wants to say.**
2. **Writes a first draft of his thoughts.**
3. **Rereads the draft to the tutor to get feedback on clarity, etc.**
4. **Rethinks the piece.**
5. **Rewrites the draft, until it says what he means.**
6. **Edits the piece for mechanical errors.**
7. **Publishes the writing, on occasion.**

The tutor interested in learning the process approach to writing should study the following outline of the method. While one can skip the activities included, the reader is urged to complete those activities as presented, starting with the Writing Anxiety Test. **One only learns by doing.**

Some of the activities would be appropriate to use with some advanced

students. Therefore, they are reprinted in handout form at the end of this section. If they are too difficult for many students, they can be rewritten in simpler form.

II What are basic writing students like? What are writing teachers like?

A. Activity: WAT - Writing Apprehension Test

1. Take test (Reprinted at end of this section)
2. Score: $48 + \text{positive scores} - \text{negative scores}$. Mean = 55.27
 - a. Score SA=1, A=2, U=3, D=4, SD=5
 - b. Total positives, negatives
 - c. Add positive score to 48, subtract negative score
3. Judge your anxiety by comparing to 55.27. (Lower=higher anxiety)

B. Activity: Decide what writing students are like, basing your description on your self-analysis. (Behaviors/attitudes/methods). Compare your list with those below.

1. Behaviors:
 - a. Avoid writing
 - b. Are afraid of evaluation
 - c. Mind goes blank
 - d. Become nervous
 - e. Can't express selves clearly
 - f. Expect to do poorly
 - g. Can't organize
 - h. Anticipate poor evaluation
 - i. Don't like to be evaluated
 - j. Think "others write better than I do."
2. Basic Writing Students' Attitudes/Methods
 - a. Tend to tackle topics which are too broad.
 - b. Are not convinced that it is important for them to learn to write acceptably.
 - c. Believe that writing involves some inborn talent.
 - d. Lack the patience to work through the process, based on their insecurity.
 - e. Fail to discern that there must be a difference between the language of speaking and the language of writing. (Written language needs to be standard, universally understood, free of mechanical errors, and needs a logical structure to be clear

to the intended audience.

- f. Are not convinced that writing with correctness and clarity is a necessary skill in the modern world.

- C. What are writing teachers like? Make a list. Compare it with the next line.

?stneduts rieht sa emas eht yeht t'nerA

- D. Why is this?

1. Most teachers were never taught to write correctly; they were only taught spelling, grammar, capitalization & punctuation.
2. The writing process is a thinking process: we have never been taught to think logically.
3. We were graded only on mechanics, not the ideas presented.
4. Only 10% of class time is spent on writing in LA classes; 3% in other classes.
5. Good writing extolled, but not demanded.
6. Poor readers = poor writers: the two are interconnected.
7. Teacher can't write, so doesn't know good from bad: can't coach it.

III The Writing Process

A. Assumptions

1. The composing process is complex - involving memory, conceptualization, language and psychomotor behaviors.
2. The composing process is multiphased, involving several different stages of subprocesses.
3. The process seems recursive (connected & reconnected) and interactive; the stages overlap and relate closely to each other and affect each other.

B. Stages

1. Prewriting - Any activity/experience that prepares the writer for writing (observing/brainstorming etc.): discovering the subject, limiting it, and developing a point of view happen here.
2. Writing - The first draft, with attention focused on content, word choices, sentence structure and flow of ideas.
3. Rewriting - on first draft: deleting, elaborating, revising, correcting, reshaping, refining, rethinking, rewriting

- MORE THAN ONE TIME -

ONE MOVES AMONG THE STAGES, BACK AND FORTH.

C. Forms of Writing, based on function

1. Transactional ————— Expressive ————— Poetic

Transactional Expressive Poetic

	Transactional	Expressive	Poetic
<u>Examples</u>	essays, reports research papers	journals diaries	poetry, drama description narration
<u>Emphasis</u>	audience	writer	form
<u>Form</u>	highly structured	less structured	aesthetically structured (Genre constraints)
<u>Mechanics</u>	standard	free	free
<u>Intent</u>	provide information for a specific audience	evoke a struc- tured experience	afford aesthe- tic experience

D. Atmosphere

1. Writing is read, acknowledged, responded to, revised, and occasionally made public.
2. Students can relax and write with confidence.
3. Students feel assured they can become better writers.

E. Motivation

1. Teacher writes too.
2. Lots of interaction.

F. Features

1. Writing is a three phased process.
2. Class time is devoted to generating ideas, drafting, revising and editing.
3. Students write for a wide range of purposes: to inform, persuade, express the self, explore, clarify thinking.
4. Students write for a variety of audiences - to learn that approaches vary as audiences vary.
5. Students receive constructive criticism during all stages.
6. Students write in many forms: essays, notes, summaries, poems, letters, stories, reports, scripts, journals.
7. The subject matter of writing has its best source in the student's personal, social and academic interest and experience.
8. Control of English conventions (spelling, handwriting, punctuation and grammar) is developed primarily during the writing process and secondarily through related experiences (grammar books, exercises, etc.)

IV Prewriting - What Do I Have to Say?

A. Traits basic writing students exhibit:

1. Underdeveloped paragraphs, or latch on to a word/idea and repeat it several times.
 - Too much generalization.
 - Opinions without support.
 - Contain statements of unclear meanings because of the lack of

information and too much projected emotion.

- Fail to be specific or make the point.
- 2. Lack of vocabulary to discuss or present ideas convincingly.
- 3. - Grammatical and mechanical mistakes
 - Dialectic and regional variations from standard English.

B. Ways to Find a topic

"I can't think of anything to write about." "I don't have anything to say about" What do you do about these protests?

1. Freewriting

Activity: Write for five minutes. Write whatever comes to mind but do not lift your pen from the paper. If you cannot think of what to write, listen and look at what is happening in the room. Describe another person, your feelings, the scratch of pencils on paper, the place you'd most like to be, and incident you remember. Do not think about spelling or punctuation. Just write. Do not lift your pen from the paper.

At the end of five minutes, read what you have written. Some of it may be dull, some forced, some incoherent. That's to be expected since you were only practicing. Some of what you have written will have possibility for further development.

2. Observing

Activity: Observe someone/something in this room for five minutes. Describe what you observe with all your senses (at least 3 of the five). Conclude with a sentence that summarizes all you have said.

a. Being specific and concrete

General: **The lady is fat.**

Specific: **Mrs. Higgins weighs 320 pounds.** (Specific details provide facts.)

Concrete: **Mrs. Higgins is so fat that she cannot squeeze into the driver's seat of her husband's Volkswagon.**

(Concrete details provide sensory detail. The reader "sees" the predicament of Mrs. Higgins' size.)

b. Telling vs. Showing

Telling: Each morning I ride the bus to school. I wait along with the other people who ride my bus. Sometimes the bus is late and we get angry. Some guys start fights and stuff just to have something to do. I'm always glad when the bus finally comes. (A seventh grade student)

Showing: A bus arrived. It discharged its passengers, closed its doors with a hiss and disappeared over the crest of a hill. Not one of the people waiting at the bus stop had attempted to board. One woman wore a sweater that was too small, a long skirt, white sweater socks and house slippers. One man was in his undershirt. Another man wore shoes with brown pants. There was something wrong with these people. They made faces. A mouth smiled at nothing and unsmiled, smiled and unsmiled. A head shook in vehement denial. Most of them carried brown paper bags rolled tight against their stomachs. (E. L. Doctorow, The Book of Daniel)

- What are some of the differences in the two passages?
- Which is the better piece of description? Why?

Activity: Revise one of the sentences you wrote for the freewriting or observing activity above to make it more specific. Revise another to make it more concrete.

3. Brainstorming

Brainstorm n 1) a bright idea, 2) a harebrained idea: a wild or impractical flash of inspiration.

Brainstorm v 1) to practice a conference technique by which a group attempts to find a solution for a specific problem by amassing all the ideas spontaneously contributed by its members.

Brainstorming, alone or with others, can provide the flash of inspiration needed to break that staring into space when searching for something to write.

Activity: The topic is "The ugliest thing in the world is _____ because"

- 1) What are some possible things we could say about this topic?
- 2) Make a list of the possibilities
- 3) Take one of these ideas, or one that you thought of during the brainstorming, and write a paragraph about it (2 or 3 sentences).

4. Other Stimuli

- a) Observation of environment, people, objects
- b) Simulated situations (you inherit \$1 mill: what would you do?)
- c) Newspaper articles

- d) Pictures (What's happening? What do the girls see?)
- e) Senses (Smell of hospital corridor)
- f) Single word (green, gnaw, botch, claw)
- g) Address a specific audience (expert to peer & vice versa; group member to rest of group; unknown audience)

C. Strategies

1. Freewriting: See the freewriting activity above
 - a. W/no explanation, free write for 5 minutes. File w/portfolio. (Tutor writes, too.)
 - b. Value
 - 1) Lots of garbage written. Good. Get it out. Get rid of the bad stuff.
 - 2) Free flow of ideas results in smoother writing.
 - 3) Source of good ideas.
 - 4) Helps to generate words more freely, clearly, powerfully.
 - 5) Sets tone: this is a place to write.
 - 6) Puts mechanics in right place: first comes the rush of ideas, then the editing.
 - 7) Generates a lot of digressions - easy to eliminate after being written down.
 - 8) Must be continuous: a warm up exercise.
2. Journal Writing (as in the brainstorming activity above)
 - a. Like freewriting, except directed:
 - Write about _____
 - I wonder how (why) _____
 - Today I feel _____
 - b. About ten minutes - at end of class, at home, etc.

- c. Kept in bound book
- d. Read occasionally by the tutor (no grade)

3. Other pre-writing activities

- a. Discussion
- b. Observation, visual examination
- c. Doodling
- d. Day dreams
- e. Emotions/impressions stored
- f. Listening
- g. Provocative passage
- h. Conversing with a friend

4. Purposes of pre-writing activities

- a. Conceive/recognize idea worth developing
- b. Narrow the idea to manageable scope
- c. Identify purpose of writing
- d. Improve ability to establish a point of view
- e. Identify the audience
- f. Determine attitude (tone) for presentation
- g. Decide form to use
- h. Determine what organization best for topic and audience
- i. Recognize need for logic and support for developing idea
- j. Recognize that writer already has some of the skills
- k. Realize when they are ready to write first draft.

D. Writing More About Less (Narrowing subjects & considering purpose)

Activity: Narrowing the Subject

- 1. Look at the following list:
 - a. Busing for Racial Balance in Schools
 - b. Integration
 - c. The Plight of the Cuban Alien
 - d. The Citizen's Right to Privacy
 - e. Star Sues Tabloid for Libel

- f. Senior Citizens Picket Police Headquarters for Safer Streets
 - g. Civil Rights
 - h. The Victims of Crimes
 - i. Searches and Seizures
 - j. The Civil Liberties Union
 - k. Helping the Physically Handicapped to Get Around
 - l. Women on the Job
 - m. Civil Rights Demonstrations
 - n. "What About Me?" an Assault Victim Asks
 - o. Civil Rights for Minorities
 - p. Your Rights When Stopped by a Policeman
 - q. Freedom of the Press
 - r. Nancy: A Fifteen-Year Old Runaway
 - s. Child Abuse by Parents
2. Find one category under which all the others could be grouped and circle it.
3. Which ones of the following would most likely result if you decided to write on Civil Rights? Why?
- a. A pamphlet
 - b. Several pamphlets
 - c. A paragraph
 - d. A long magazine article
 - e. A short magazine article
 - f. A 500 word essay
 - g. A book
 - h. One feature column in a newspaper
4. Place the 20 topics in the appropriate column below:

CIVIL RIGHTS		
I Topics more limited than Civil Rights but still too large	II Topics more limited than those in column I.	III Topics which are most specifically limited.

5. Scope

Activity: Match the following:

This subject _____ would be most appropriate for

- | | | |
|-----------------------------|-------|-------------------------|
| 1 Siamese Cats | _____ | a book. |
| 2 Tiger Loses His 9th Life. | _____ | b encyclopedia article. |
| 3 Cats & superstition | _____ | c long magazine article |
| 4 All about cats | _____ | d news story. |
| 5 Cats are popular pets | _____ | e paragraph. |

Subject

Scope

- | | | |
|-----------------------------------|-------|----------------------------------|
| 1 Politics | _____ | a Specifically limited |
| 2 American Politics Today | _____ | b Not limited |
| 3 How a Political Party Functions | _____ | c Slightly limited |
| 4 How I Helped My Party | _____ | d Limited to personal experience |

Subject

Scope

- | | | |
|-----------------------------------|-------|--|
| 1 The Pyramids of Egypt | _____ | a Largest subject area |
| 2 American National Parks | _____ | b Second largest subject area |
| 3 The Scenic Wonders of the World | _____ | c More limited than <u>a</u> or <u>b</u> |
| 4 The Tomb of King Tut | _____ | d Smallest subject area |

Subject

Scope

- | | | |
|---|-------|-------------------------------------|
| 1 His car is a 1978 red Pontiac Firebird | _____ | a Good topic sentence for paragraph |
| 2 My cousin owns an interesting car. | _____ | b Too broad for a para. |
| 3 I am interested in the history and development of the automobile. | _____ | c Too limited for a para. |

Subject

Limited according to:

- | | | |
|---------------------------|-------|--------------------------|
| 1 A House in St. Louis | _____ | a Personal experience |
| 2 Cocker Spaniels | _____ | b Time |
| 3 The Haunted Forest | _____ | c Place |
| 4 The Day I Made Taffy | _____ | d Circumstance/condition |
| 5 Today's High Crime Rate | _____ | e Classification |

6. Audience

- a. We use different words (synonyms) for different situations and audiences.

Comment: Charles, sit down!

b. Possible audience/situation?

Activity: How about the following:

- 1) Kindly be seated, friends.
- 2) Grab a seat, Bill.
- 3) Have a chair, Mr. Brown.
- 4) Sit down, buddy!

c. Word Choices for Different Audiences

Formal	Informal Audience, average and varied	Very casual audience such as peers or social conversation groups
--------	--	---

Example:

intelligent

smart

brainy

Activity: Classify the following:

- 1) fastidious, choosy, particular
- 2) car, automobile, wheels
- 3) gotta have, require, need
- 4) understand, get it, comprehend
- 5) cash, currency, money
- 6) go with, accompany, join
- 7) withdraw my request, skip it, never mind

d. Providing Credible Support

Given the following statement, classify the supporting sentences according to the guide below:

Statement: Did you know that "real" apples are virtually non-existent today?

Activity: Classify the sentences below according to the following:

- 1) Adds credibility by reference to authority
- 2) States personal opinion only (unsupported)
- 3) States personal opinion colored by emotion
- 4) States a fact
- 5) Is unrelated to the topic - omit

- _____ 1) Naturalists say that about the only place you can find an apple which is an actual unadulterated product of the tree upon which it grows is in grandfather's old-fashioned orchard.

- _____ 2) In an old farmyard you may find a Winesap or Yellow Transparent which tastes like a real apple.
- _____ 3) Most of the fruit which is so beautifully displayed in the produce market or in the grocery stores are hybrids.
- _____ 4) I hate those bland tasteless huge red orbs which are in the supermarkets all year long, and are labeled "delicious."
- _____ 5) They have no more real apple flavor than a lemon does.
- _____ 6) Raymond Miller, a well-known horticulturist, admits that extensive crossbreeding of apples has made the apples you remember falling off your backyard tree practically extinct.
- _____ 7) The hybrids are cultivated to produce lovely fruit which appeals to the buyer's eye, and flavor usually become a casualty of the processing.
- _____ 8) People seem to forget quickly the tart taste of a good apple, for they bypass baskets of small gnarled ones which have not been crossed, and purchase those which are large, beautiful and bland.
- _____ 9) Store managers will tell you that non-hybrids simply do not sell.
- _____ 10) Large red juicy apples are important in several fairy tales for children.

V Writing - How do I Say It?

A. Sentence Combining

Kernels, or basic sentence patterns, are structures that are used over and over in language. The kernel is a kind of fixed formula or frame that the brain uses when sending or receiving messages. The **patterns** of kernels are unchanging, but the **messages** expressed by the pattern can differ. For example:

Writers eat fish.
Fish eat writers.

The pattern is the same and so are the words.

But the messages are different. English only has between four and ten patterns, depending on whose book you read. Yet these patterns generate billions of sentences, each unique, understandable, and recognizable as English. How? Through a process called **transforming**.

Transformations involves combining the basic patterns into longer, more complex structures that convey meaning to the reader more efficiently and interestingly. For example:

TAKEOFF

1. A jet rumbles on the runway.
2. The jet is silver-skinned.
3. The jet is sleek.

4. The jet waits for clearance.
5. The clearance is from the tower.

6. The engines begin to wind up.
7. The windup is sudden.
8. The windup is with a roar.
9. The plane powers down the runway.
10. The runway is concrete.
11. The plane lifts against the horizon.
12. The horizon is edged with clouds.

These 12 sentences can be combined into 4:

- a. The sleek, silver skinned jet rumbles on the runway.
- b. It waits for clearance from the tower.
- c. Suddenly, the engines wind up with a roar.
- d. The plane powers down the concrete runway and lifts against the horizon edged with clouds.

Activity: Combine the 12 sentences above into 4 sentences different from a - d.

Activity: Combine the following kernel sentence groups into one sentence each:

FRENCH FRIES

1. French fries are loaded into a baskets.
2. The French fries are white.
3. The basket is wire.

4. Then they are lowered.
5. The lowering is slow.
6. The lowering is in oil.

7. Their bath crackles.
8. Their bath foams.
9. The bath is hot.

10. The potatoes release a puff.
11. The potatoes are thinly sliced.
12. The puff is steam.

13. They come out crispy brown.
14. They come out streaked with oil.

Activity: Combine the following into one or two sentences.

1. The house stood beside the road.
2. The house was empty.
3. The house was vine covered.
4. The house had peeling paint.
5. The house had a sagging roof.

1. It was the only house for miles.
2. A mysterious silence hung over it.
3. There were no bird sounds.
4. There were no movements of insects.

1. Jan and Sam approached the door.
2. The door was weathered.
3. Jan and Sam tried the rusty latch.
4. The door squeaked open.
5. Jan and Sam peeked inside.
6. Jan and Sam were nervous as they peeked inside.

VI Rewriting - Have I Said It?

A. Ask yourself four questions:

1. Have I included sufficient information to achieve my purpose?
2. Have I elaborated to the degree necessary and appropriate to the specific audience?

3. Are my sentences straightforward in their syntax?
4. Are the organizing ideas easily identified?

You may alter the draft in one or more of four ways:

1. You add information or elaborate. I stared at the table.

a. Qualities

I stared at the cocktail table, square, dusty, and littered with an accumulation of travel brochures inviting vacation plans too costly for my funds.

b. Details

I stared at the cocktail table with its four stolid legs, its highly polished oak frame, and its four panels of fragile glass.

c. Comparison

I stared at the cocktail table, stronger and more elegant than the flea market relic we bought when we were first married.

Activity: I drove down the highway. Elaborate, using one of the three methods given above.

2. You delete irrelevancies and excessive verbiage.

a. Eliminating wordiness

Good writing means clear phrasing, simplified language, and using as few words as possible.

Activity: Revise the following:

1. They subsequently arrived at a final conclusion.
2. The thoroughfare ahead is under construction for the purpose of improvement.
3. For the comfort of passengers and for healthful atmospheric conditions, smoking will not be allowed.
4. The public is forbidden to administer food to the inhabitants of this zoo.
5. There is a great deal of information compiled in this volume.
6. I listened, trying to understand, but only dense darkness engulfed me.
7. A local scandal has been publicized by the city's daily news publication.
8. A dismal seven days of high precipitation set in.

3. You substitute more precise for vague information, specific for general terms, and sentence structures that focus more clearly.

Example: It was also noted by this writer that many popular authors who were interviewed on talk shows and people who lead encounter groups and self-help seminars are concerned with improving one's self-esteem.

Analysis: Real agent: writer
Real action: noted
Completer: two groups of people are concerned

Rewrite: This writer noted that two groups of people are especially concerned with improving self-esteem: popular authors appearing on talk shows and leaders of encounter groups or self-help seminars.

Activity: Rewrite the following, first designating real agent, real action, and completer.

1. It is generally thought by educators that children who misbehave are generally those who have a low opinion of themselves.
2. The changes in our society and its thinking during recent years are bringing more awareness of individual feelings and the realization of the need for positive acceptance of self and others.

4. You move things around to be more logical, to produce the desired psychological effect, to achieve emphasis or euphony.

Example:

Memo to University Faculty Members

A number of practicing teachers have expressed interest in adding fields or endorsements to existing certificates. If they seek your advice on appropriate courses, consult the "Blue Book" for information on adding to an existing certificate. Teachers who hold a current Ohio certificate or an expired Ohio certificate can add to

it simply by taking the appropriate courses.

The procedure is as follows:

- 1) Advise student of needed courses if they seek our assistance.
- 2) Teachers simply adding to an existing certificate should register as a special student. Admission to a program is not required.
- 3) Teachers adding a field to an existing certificate should register through our graduate office, **not** through Continuing Education.
- 4) When required courses are completed, the teacher can bring an on-campus transcript showing the work and the original copy of the Ohio certificate to Mrs. Menger who will assist them in completing the required state forms.

As a professional courtesy to practicing teachers, we should try to make the process of adding additional fields to existing certificates as clear as possible.

Analysis: Look for organizers. We find two: what advisors need to do and what teachers need to do.

Advisers need to: - consult the "Blue Book";
- advise students of needed courses; and
- facilitate the process.

Teachers need to: - register through the graduate office as a special student;
- take appropriate courses;
- take on campus transcript to Mrs. Menger; and
- complete required forms.

Activity: Revise the memo above so the organizers are clearly observable.

One possible revision:

A number of practicing teachers have expressed interest in adding fields or endorsements to existing certificates. Teachers who hold either a current Ohio certificate or an expired Ohio certificate can add to it simply by taking the appropriate courses.

Those who wish to so qualify at this institution should

- 1) Register through the graduate office as special students;
- 2) Complete appropriate course work;
- 3) Take on-campus transcripts to Mrs. Menger;
- 4) Complete forms required by the state.

As a professional courtesy to practicing teachers, university advisors should consult the "Blue Book," advise the teachers about appropriate courses, and in general, facilitate the process of adding fields to existing certificates.

VII Evaluation and Portfolios

Too frequently teachers do not know just what to do with student compositions except to proofread them, so that's what they do. Thus error-free writing becomes synonymous in the student's mind with good writing. This is entirely incompatible with an attitude conducive to students actually improving their writing skills.

Activity: Decide why the following myths are erroneous:

A. Some Myths about Writing Evaluation

- ✓ Marking a student's paper for mechanical errors in standard English, spelling, or errors in grammar and usage improves student writing.
- ✓ Writing skills improve by assigning more papers.
- ✓ Evaluating the **product** (the final version of the paper) is adequate for assessing and improving student writing.
- ✓ Every error on every paper must be marked in order for students to improve their writing.
- ✓ Every writing assignment must be graded.

Activity: Match the following with the myths discussed, using the statements as reasons for dispelling the myth:

B. Considering the evaluation of writing

- ✓ If we have given a writing assignment, we have a responsibility to evaluate the writing.
- ✓ Evaluation of writing is a possible task.
- ✓ Evaluation involves both subjective and objective aspects.
- ✓ Evaluation should get to the heart of the writing - content and expression - and not merely to the conventions such as punctuation, capitalization and spelling.
- ✓ Evaluation should lead to action - revision, reteaching, or reinforcement of successes, and certainly to future improvement.
- ✓ Thoughtful evaluation of student writing is evidence of concern for students.
- ✓ If evaluation is to be honest, realistic, and constructive, we should ourselves occasionally perform the writing assignment we set for the student.

- ✓ Evaluation should include measuring a student's growth in writing over a specified period of time.
- ✓ Evaluation should help determine the effectiveness of a writing program.
- ✓ Evaluation is an ongoing activity that accompanies every stage of the writing process - prewriting, writing, and rewriting.

C. General Preliminary Considerations to Keep in Mind for Writing Assignments

1. Examine for a **guiding purpose** which can be expressed in one sentence.

"My purpose is to	tell about . . .	show . . .
	explain . . .	prove . . .
	report . . .	inquire . . .
	protest . . .	record . . .
	entertain . . .	

2. Read solely to see if the writer has accomplished the purpose.

3. Read solely for the purpose of judging the content.

- > Writer's attitude toward subject - apparent? - ~~con~~consistent?
- > Anticipated audience addressed appropriately?
- > Are all inclusions pertinent to the purpose?

4. Check for organization. Does the composition progress from a "clear purpose" (**beginning**) logically through a **middle** and to a plausible **ending**?

5. Check for sentence and paragraph development, correctness and maturity.

- > sentence and paragraph transition
- > sentence and paragraph variety

6. Check (proofread) for errors - usage, grammar, spelling, punctuation.

Activity: Check the following pieces of writing according to the guide furnished above. Formulate a question for each category that you find lacking, a question that would help the writer redirect his/her efforts. Then try the questions out on your partner.

1 The thing I can write best about is myself but I am not going to because I am in a strange bewildered mood and in the course of my paper I might reveal some embarrassing actions, ideas or happenings which I prefer not to do. Anyway. I will talk about the floor that sounds safe enough It is square,

tiled and has streaks of red and pale yellow. The light from the florescent lamps shines down in rows of white streaks that move as I move my head. The width between the tiles seems wide near me and narrows away from me seeming as though it will form a pyramid like shape. This is normally an optical illusion showing depth perception but not to me. I am looking at it as an artist would about to put it on canvas even though I can't draw very well.

2 Im really tired I could just drop off of my desk. Huck Finn drained the life out of me just reading the speech of the southerners. I really want to go home. I wish this was Wednesday Dec. 23. What am I gonna write next? I don't know. What a dreary day. It's so windy. I wonder if it will snow. I hope Mrs Firehse is in I have finally finished my college applications. I really want to watch The Great Gatsby Thursday. What if I don't finish my European History reading. Ugh! a Chemistry test Wednesday.

Uh oh I still need to get a CCM application. I have a voice lesson tommorrow night. I have to practice. I have too much to do and so little time to do it in. Christmas came so fast I didn't even feel it happen. I have to take the tree down today. What a loser of a tree. It looks like Charlie Brown's tree. The needles are all but gone and the dog keeps getting the ornaments and eating them.

D. Informal Assessment of Student Writing

Grading student writing takes time, if done carefully and correctly. The best way to avoid creating a paper load is simply not to create one. All that effort is better spent teaching the students. Have the student do most of the writing in class.

Use a lab approach

- > Make challenging, interesting assignments; explain them thoroughly.
- > Interact with the student in brainstorming and other pre-writing activities.
- > Give class time for early drafts.
- > Read these drafts on the spot and help the student spot weaknesses by asking appropriate questions.

If you provide writing instruction in this way, to a great degree the papers have already been evaluated by the time the student makes a final copy. Many papers will not have to be graded at all. A quick read-through is all that's necessary to provide a grade (if grades are important in the tutor's mind). What is more important - for student and tutor - is to keep the work in a **portfolio** of the student's writing. This collection of student writing over a period of months provides a record of student growth that the student can see.

Such a collection is better served by formal grading of papers only on a periodic basis. (Why, for instance, grade a student with poor organizational skills on the very next paper s/he writes, before there has been time to practice the skill to some semblance of mastery?)

E. Ways to Evaluate during the Prewriting Phase of Composition

1. Freewriting (but you might choose **never** to evaluate freewriting)

Observe the following signs of progress:

- a. Attitude towards freewriting and willingness to cooperate in all instances.
- b. Decreased writing anxiety.
- c. Ability to write more fluently in the time allotted.
- d. Increase in instances when freewriting students "discover" they have hit upon a good topic to be expanded, a purpose to write further, and an audience to be addressed; to recognize what is good and what is not.
- e. From freewriting, short passages may be submitted to the teacher to be graded on the spot, recorded, and returned for filing in the portfolio. (Deliver the comments **orally**; don't make marks on the paper.)

2. Journals and Diaries

- a. Keeping journal entries over a specified period of time, or allied with certain on-going situations is a common assignment. Assess how willing each student is to do the assigned task and to stick to it through a significant number of entries.
- b. Evaluate student attitude in a sustained task.
- c. Evaluate writing improvement (or lack of it) as time passes and writing progresses.
- d. Willingness to do the task and stick to it on a regular basis.

- e. Changes in student attitude toward actually writing every day.
- f. Increases (or decreases) in volume written during writing sessions.
- g. Improvement (or lack of it) in clarity, coherence, and expanded detail as time and practice go on.
- h. Back searching for ideas or lines which can be expanded into more finished pieces.
- i. Student's growing awareness of common errors which s/he repeats over and over.

F. Ways to Evaluate during the Writing Phase of Composition

NOTE: To accomplish evaluation on a continuing basis, the tutor must do two things:

- > The student must be aware that s/he is constantly being evaluated during the 3 stages of the writing process.
 - > The tutor must set an atmosphere of security and trust so that all students can expect and accept teacher sharing, intervention, and interaction without feeling resentment or threat.
1. Students should keep most of what they write in some kind of portfolio. This collection should include
- a. All the freewriting
 - b. A notebook for diary and/or journal entries.
 - c. A notebook for (or an accumulation) of exercises in sentence combining, sentence building, sentence grouping and transition - the writings from activities aimed at achieving fluency.
 - d. Working drafts for compositions.
 - e. Final forms of compositions graded and ungraded.

The portfolio should always be accessible to the tutor, who can

perform various kinds of informal progress checks on the contents.

2. While the student is writing a draft, the tutor should be alert to a number of things that are occurring which can become grounds for assessment. For instance

- a. How does the student begin the writing of the first draft? S/He doesn't begin? Discards several beginnings? Stalls, after displaying seeming confidence? The why to these questions provide strong clues to progress at that point.
- b. Is the student "backscanning" and reworking as s/he goes. This may be good or bad, depending on why s/he is going back. Going back to correct mechanical errors is bad, because it interrupts the free flow of thoughts onto paper. Going back to make sure that new sentences grow out of the thoughts expressed in completed ones is good.
- c. Sample reading the student's work as s/he writes may assure the writer that s/he is on the right track or may furnish the tutor reasons for intervention or guidance.

G. Ways to Evaluate during the Rewriting Phase of Composition

There is, naturally, an overlap between writing and rewriting. For purposes of evaluation, rewriting here is defined as editing and proofreading.

Editing should be thought of as improving sentence structure and organization and paragraphing, as well as attending to word choice, appropriate level of language, transition, effective use and placement of modifiers within the draft as it snow appears.

Proofreading consists of eliminating mechanical errors such as misspellings, and errors in usage, punctuation and capitalization.

Assessing during the editing and proofreading phase can be done through

the following:

1. Rating sheet
2. Marks and comments written directly on the draft
3. Tutor-student conference.

H. Final Evaluation

1. So much evaluation has occurred up to this point, that the tutor might simply check the paper in and place it in the student's portfolio.
2. The final papers submitted should occasionally be given a formal evaluation, using a checklist similar to the one printed below (I).
3. Have a plan for "publishing" the best papers. Bulletin board displays will do. Or compile a booklet of the student's writing with an attractive cover. Possibly the agency has a periodic publication of student writing to which you can submit the student's writing. At any rate, **treat the student's writing with respect.** Any time the student has **real** writing to do, e.g. a letter, composing a resume etc., the tutor should use this opportunity as a writing experience.

I. Criteria for Good Writing

Any set of criteria which is established should be flexible. It should, when appropriate, be modified according to the learning levels and the progress of the students. It will develop, then, according to the increasing degrees of writing maturity, as the students master writing skills.

Following is a sample set of criteria for good writing:

Content

1. Does the paper seem to have a definite purpose?
2. Does the writer seem to be addressing a specific audience?
3. Does the paper focus on a specific subject?
4. Is the purpose of the paper made evident to the reader?

5. Are generalizations supported by specific or logical details?
6. Do the ideas seem original and clear? Is appropriate use made of borrowed ideas?

Organization

1. Does the opening prepare the reader for the content?
2. Is the organization easy to follow?
3. Is there clear transition from one point to another?
4. Is all the content related to the purpose of the paper?
5. Is the conclusion strong - that is, reemphasizes the purpose or summarizes the content?

Diction

1. Are words used and presented accurately?
2. Have words been chosen with appropriate sensory appeal?
3. Is the level of language suitable for the intended audience?
4. Is the language appropriate to the purpose of the paper?

Sentence Structure

1. Are sentences complete and well-constructed?
2. Are sentences rhythmically smooth, i.e., free of choppy, unnecessarily repetitive construction?
3. Is sentence structure varied?

Mechanics and Form

1. Is penmanship legible?
2. Is the writing grammatically correct?
3. Are punctuation marks used correctly and/or appropriately?
4. Have typographical errors been corrected?
5. Is the paragraphing compatible with the meaning to be conveyed?

THE FIVE GROUPS PRESENTED ABOVE ARE LISTED IN ORDER OF IMPORTANCE -

IN DESCENDING ORDER!

Give the student a chance. Focus on only a few of the above criteria when evaluating a student's work (process and product).

THE RELATIONSHIP OF WRITING AND READING

One cannot appreciate the complexity, the challenge, even the beauty of a given task without doing it. Conversely, one initially develops facility with a process by watching others do it well. This relationship exists between writing and reading. One cannot delight in an adroitly phrased sentence unless one has himself tried to put down a thought in a clever and memorable way. At the same time, a new writer is apt to put down a thought the very first way he or she invents it, thinking that there is only one way to phrase a thought.

Thus reading becomes a model for writing clearly, while writing itself is the first step in the discovery process that unlocks the mysteries of language and its application in reading the thoughts of others. Both processes involve trial and error through repeated practices until the skills are mastered - until one makes writing and reading one's own.

It is for these reasons that the language experience approach (Section 2) works so well with new readers. Students read their own dictated thoughts, expressed with their own vocabulary, about topics they are interested in. Using this method, they are merely confronting their own ideas in a different form. Subsequently, they add to their transcribed ideas by writing down more of their own ideas. This forces students to confront language, which they have already verbally mastered, in its other two forms - reading and writing.

THE WAT SCALE

DIRECTIONS: Below are a series of statements about writing. There are no right or wrong answers to these statements. Please indicate the degree to which each statement applies to you by circling (1) SA if you strongly agree, (2) A if you agree, (3) U if you are uncertain, (4) D if you disagree, or (5) SD if you strongly disagree with the statement. While some of these statements may seem repetitious, take your time and try to be as honest as possible. Thank you for your cooperation in this matter.

- | | |
|---|-------------|
| 1. I avoid writing. | SA A U D SD |
| 2. I have no fear of my writing being evaluated. | SA A U D SD |
| 3. I look forward to writing down my ideas. | SA A U D SD |
| 4. My mind seems to go blank when I start to work on a composition. | SA A U D SD |
| 5. Expressing ideas through writing seems to be a waste of time. | SA A U D SD |
| 6. I would enjoy submitting my writing to magazines for evaluation and publication. | SA A U D SD |
| 7. I like to write my ideas down. | SA A U D SD |
| 8. I feel confident in my ability to express my ideas in writing clearly. | SA A U D SD |
| 9. I like to have my friends read what I have written. | SA A U D SD |
| 10. I'm nervous about writing. | SA A U D SD |
| 11. People seem to enjoy what I write. | SA A U D SD |
| 12. I enjoy writing. | SA A U D SD |
| 13. I never seem to be able to write down my ideas clearly. | SA A U D SD |
| 14. Writing is a lot of fun. | SA A U D SD |
| 15. I like seeing my thoughts on paper. | SA A U D SD |
| 16. Discussing my writing with others is an enjoyable experience. | SA A U D SD |
| 17. It's easy for me to write good compositions. | SA A U D SD |
| 18. I don't think I write as well as most other people. | SA A U D SD |
| 19. I don't like my compositions to be evaluated. | SA A U D SD |
| 20. I'm no good at writing. | SA A U D SD |

INTERPRETING RESPONSES ON THE WAT

- (+) 1. I avoid writing.
- (-) 2. I have no fear of my writing being evaluated.
- (-) 3. I look forward to writing down my ideas.
- (+) 4. My mind seems to go blank when I start to work on a composition.
- (+) 5. Expressing ideas through writing seems to be a waste of time.
- (-) 6. I would enjoy submitting my writing to magazines for evaluation and publication.
- (-) 7. I like to write my ideas down.
- (-) 8. I feel confident in my ability to express my ideas in writing clearly.
- (-) 9. I like to have my friends read what I have written.
- (+) 10. I'm nervous about writing.
- (-) 11. People seem to enjoy what I write.
- (-) 12. I enjoy writing.
- (+) 13. I never seem to be able to write down my ideas clearly.
- (-) 14. Writing is a lot of fun.
- (-) 15. I like seeing my thoughts on paper.
- (-) 16. Discussing my writing with others is an enjoyable experience.
- (-) 17. It's easy for me to write good compositions.
- (+) 18. I don't think I write as well as most other people.
- (+) 19. I don't like my compositions to be evaluated.
- (+) 20. I'm no good at writing.

Scoring the WAT is both simple and fast. The formula for the twenty item instrument is $\text{Writing Apprehension} = 48 + \text{Positive Scores} - \text{Negative Scores}$. In one sample researchers found that the mean score was 55.27. A low score (below 55.27) indicates a high level of writing anxiety.

Activity: Narrowing the Subject

1. Look over the following list. Find one category under which all the others could be grouped and circle it.

- a. Busing for Racial Balance in Schools
- b. Integration
- c. The Plight of the Cuban Alien
- d. The Citizen's Right to Privacy
- e. Star Sues Tabloid for Libel
- f. Senior Citizens Picket Police Headquarters for Safer Streets
- g. Civil Rights
- h. The Victims of Crimes
- i. Searches and Seizures
- j. The Civil Liberties Union
- k. Helping the Physically Handicapped to Get Around
- l. Women on the Job
- m. Civil Rights Demonstrations
- n. "What About Me?" an Assault Victim Asks
- o. Civil Rights for Minorities
- p. Your Rights When Stopped by a Policeman
- q. Freedom of the Press
- r. Nancy: A Fifteen-Year Old Runaway
- s. Child Abuse by Parents

2. Which ones of the following would most likely result if you decided to write on Civil Rights? Why?

- a. A pamphlet
- b. Several pamphlets
- c. A paragraph
- d. A long magazine article
- e. A short magazine article
- f. A 500 word essay
- g. A book
- h. One feature column in a newspaper

4. Place the 20 topics in the appropriate column below:

CIVIL RIGHTS		
I Topics more limited than Civil Rights but still too large	II Topics more limited than those in column I.	III Topics which are most specifically limited.

Scope of the Topic

Activity: Match the following:

<u>This subject</u>	<u>would be most appropriate for</u>
1 Siamese Cats	_____ a book.
2 Tiger Loses His 9th Life.	_____ b encyclopedia article.
3 Cats & superstition	_____ c long magazine article
4 All about cats	_____ d news story.
5 Cats are popular pets	_____ e paragraph.

<u>Subject</u>	<u>Scope</u>
1 Politics	_____ a Specifically limited
2 American Politics Today	_____ b Not limited
3 How a Political Party Functions	_____ c Slightly limited
4 How I Helped My Party	_____ d Limited to personal experience

<u>Subject</u>	<u>Scope</u>
1 The Pyramids of Egypt	_____ a Largest subject area
2 American National Parks	_____ b Second largest subject area
3 The Scenic Wonders of the World	_____ c More limited than <u>a</u> or <u>b</u>
4 The Tomb of King Tut	_____ d Smallest subject area

<u>Subject</u>	<u>Scope</u>
1 His car is a 1978 red Pontiac Firebird	_____ a Good topic sentence for paragraph
2 My cousin owns an interesting car.	_____ b Too broad for a para.
3 I am interested in the history and development of the automobile.	_____ c Too limited for a para.

<u>Subject</u>	<u>Limited according to:</u>
1 A House in St. Louis	_____ a Personal experience
2 Cocker Spaniels	_____ b Time
3 The Haunted Forest	_____ c Place
4 The Day I Made Taffy	_____ d Circumstance/condition
5 Today's High Crime Rate	_____ e Classification

Audience

Activity: Classify the following according to the chart below:

- 1) Kindly be seated, friends.
- 2) Grab a seat, Bill.
- 3) Have a chair, Mr. Brown.
- 4) Sit down, buddy!

Formal	Informal Audience, average and varied	Very casual audience such as peers or social conversation groups
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Activity: Classify the following under the chart below:

- 1) fastidious, choosy, particular
- 2) car, automobile, wheels
- 3) gotta have, require, need
- 4) understand, get it, comprehend
- 5) cash, currency, money
- 6) go with, accompany, join
- 7) withdraw my request, skip it, never mind

Formal	Informal Audience, average and varied	Very casual audience such as peers or social conversation groups
--------	--	---

Example: intelligent smart brainy

Providing Credible Support

Activity: Classify the sentences below according to the following:

- 1) Adds credibility by reference to authority
- 2) States personal opinion only (unsupported)
- 3) States personal opinion colored by emotion
- 4) States a fact
- 5) Is unrelated to the topic - omit

- _____ 1) Naturalists say that about the only place you can find an apple which is an actual unadulterated product of the tree upon which it grows is in grandfather's old-fashioned orchard.
- _____ 2) In an old farmyard you may find a Winesap or Yellow Transparent which tastes like a real apple.
- _____ 3) Most of the fruit which is so beautifully displayed in the produce market or in the grocery stores are hybrids.
- _____ 4) I hate those bland tasteless huge red orbs which are in the supermarkets all year long, and are labeled "delicious."
- _____ 5) They have no more real apple flavor than a lemon does.
- _____ 6) Raymond Miller, a well-known horticulturist, admits that extensive crossbreeding of apples has made the apples you remember falling off your backyard tree practically extinct.
- _____ 7) The hybrids are cultivated to produce lovely fruit which appeals to the buyer's eye, and flavor usually become a casualty of the processing.
- _____ 8) People seem to forget quickly the tart taste of a good apple, for they bypass baskets of small gnarled ones which have not been crossed, and purchase those which are large, beautiful and bland.
- _____ 9) Store managers will tell you that non-hybrids simply do not sell.
- _____ 10) Large red juicy apples are important in several fairy tales for children.

Sentence Combining

TAKEOFF

1. A jet rumbles on the runway.
2. The jet is silver-skinned.
3. The jet is sleek.

4. The jet waits for clearance.
5. The clearance is from the tower.

6. The engines begin to wind up.
7. The windup is sudden.
8. The windup is with a roar.
9. The plane powers down the runway.
10. The runway is concrete.
11. The plane lifts against the horizon.
12. The horizon is edged with clouds.

These 12 sentences can be combined into 4:

- a. The sleek, silver skinned jet rumbles on the runway.
- b. It waits for clearance from the tower.
- c. Suddenly, the engines wind up with a roar.
- d. The plane powers down the concrete runway and lifts against the horizon edged with clouds.

Activity: Combine the 12 sentences above into 4 sentences different from a -d.

Sentence Combining

Activity: Combine the following kernel sentence groups into one sentence each:

FRENCH FRIES

1. French fries are loaded into a baskets.
2. The French fries are white.
3. The basket is wire.

4. Then they are lowered.
5. The lowering is slow.
6. The lowering is in oil.

7. Their bath crackles.
8. Their bath foams.
9. The bath is hot.

10. The potatoes release a puff.
11. The potatoes are thinly sliced.
12. The puff is steam.

13. They come out crispy brown.
14. They come out streaked with oil.

Activity: Combine the following into one or two sentences.

1. The house stood beside the road.
2. The house was empty.
3. The house was vine covered.
4. The house had peeling paint.
5. The house had a sagging roof.

1. It was the only house for miles.
2. A mysterious silence hung over it.
3. There were no bird sounds.
4. There were no movements of insects.

1. Jan and Sam approached the door.
2. The door was weathered.
3. Jan and Sam tried the rusty latch.
4. The door squeaked open.
5. Jan and Sam peeked inside.
6. Jan and Sam were nervous as they peeked inside.

Rewriting: Adding Information or Elaborating

Ask yourself four questions:

1. Have I included sufficient information to achieve my purpose?
2. Have I elaborated to the degree necessary and appropriate to the specific audience?
3. Are my sentences straightforward in their syntax?
4. Are the organizing ideas easily identified?

You may alter the draft in one or more of four ways:

1. You add information or elaborate. I stared at the table.

a. Qualities

I stared at the cocktail table, square, dusty, and littered with an accumulation of travel brochures inviting vacation plans too costly for my funds.

b. Details

I stared at the cocktail table with its four stolid legs, its highly polished oak frame, and its four panels of fragile glass.

c. Comparison

I stared at the cocktail table, stronger and more elegant than the flea market reiiic we bought when we were first married.

Activity: I drove down the highway. Elaborate, using one of the three methods given above.

Revision: Eliminating wordiness

Good writing means clear phrasing, simplified language, and using as few words as possible.

Activity: Revise the following:

1. They subsequently arrived at a final conclusion.
2. The thoroughfare ahead is under construction for the purpose of improvement.
3. For the comfort of passengers and for healthful atmospheric conditions, smoking will not be allowed.
4. The public is forbidden to administer food to the inhabitants of this zoo.
5. There is a great deal of information compiled in this volume.
6. I listened, trying to understand, but only dense darkness engulfed me.
7. A local scandal has been publicized by the city's daily news publication.
8. A dismal seven days of high precipitation set in.

Revision: Specificity

Substitute more precise for vague information, specific for general terms, and sentence structures that focus more clearly.

Example: It was also noted by this writer that many popular authors who were interviewed on talk shows and people who lead encounter groups and self-help seminars are concerned with improving one's self-esteem.

Analysis: Real agent: writer
Real action: noted
Completer: two groups of people are concerned

Rewrite: This writer noted that two groups of people are especially concerned with improving self-esteem: popular authors appearing on talk shows and leaders of encounter groups or self-help seminars.

Activity: Rewrite the following, first designating real agent, real action, and completer.

1. It is generally thought by educators that children who misbehave are generally those who have a low opinion of themselves.
2. The changes in our society and its thinking during recent years are bringing more awareness of individual feelings and the realization of the need for positive acceptance of self and others.

Revision: Logical Organization

Move things around to be more logical, to produce the desired psychological effect, to achieve emphasis or euphony.

Example:

Memo to University Faculty Members

A number of practicing teachers have expressed interest in adding fields or endorsements to existing certificates. If they seek your advice on appropriate courses, consult the "Blue Book" for information on adding to an existing certificate. Teachers who hold a current Ohio certificate or an expired Ohio certificate can add to it simply by taking the appropriate courses.

The procedure is as follows:

- 1) Advise student of needed courses if they seek our assistance.
- 2) Teachers simply adding to an existing certificate should register as a special student. Admission to a program is not required.
- 3) Teachers adding a field to an existing certificate should register through our graduate office, **not** through Continuing Education.
- 4) When required courses are completed, the teacher can bring an on-campus transcript showing the work and the original copy of the Ohio certificate to Mrs. Menger who will assist them in completing the required state forms.

As a professional courtesy to practicing teachers, we should try to make the process of adding additional fields to existing certificates as clear as possible.

Analysis: Look for organizers. We find two: what advisors need to do and what teachers need to do.

Advisers need to: consult the "Blue Book";
advise students of needed courses; and
facilitate the process.

Teachers need to: register through the graduate office as a special student;
take appropriate courses;
take on campus transcript to Mrs. Menger; and
complete required forms.

Activity: Revise the memo so the organizers are clearly observable.

Section IV

Instructional Approaches (Systems)

A. The Laubach Method

Speakers of English use twenty-six alphabetic characters to represent eighteen vowel sounds and twenty-five consonant sounds. As a means of teaching students to read and write, the Laubach Method draws on sound/symbol relationships -- matching the forty-three sounds to their corresponding alphabetic characters or combination of characters. Students can then associate the written word with the spoken word.

The Laubach Method uses a skill series divided into four levels. Each skill level has its own student workbook, teacher's manual, checkup test, accompanying readers, and Focus on Phonics book. In addition, there is a Tutor Workshop Handbook to assist tutors in planning each lesson or the whole skill series. Skill level one introduces the name and one sound for each alphabetic character and for the digraphs ch, sh, and th. In the first five lessons, picture-association charts teach the students letters, key words, and sounds. In lessons six through nine, charts with letters and key words, but no pictures, associate capital letters with lower case letters. The last lessons, ten through thirteen, introduce the alphabet in sequence, the numeral words, and the accompanying reader. At the end of each lesson, students read a story which incorporates new key words with ones they already know. Students learn these new words by reading them in context and then adding them to sight vocabulary by repetitive practice. Almost all of the one hundred thirty-two words presented at this level are repeated at least five times. Finally, writing development at this skill level concentrates on the formation of alphabetic characters and numerals.

Skill level two focuses primarily on short vowel sounds. This level also

introduces other sounds, such as the vowel sounds er, ur, ir, and ar; the digraphs ng and wh; and the blending consonant sounds br, bl, and st. In the first twelve lessons, picture-association charts teach the students at least seven key words for each sound. This level introduces only those words that either contain short vowel sounds or are needed for the written exercises. Altogether there are one hundred ninety-two new sight words, not including the variants formed by adding -s or -'s. Throughout this level, students learn simple skills of punctuation, structural analysis, and comprehension. The final three lessons review the short vowel sounds and introduce the accompanying reader. Finally, students learn to write simple sentences and develop their spelling skills throughout the level.

Skill level three introduces the students to long vowel sounds. This level presents all of the regular spellings of a, e, i, and o; only one spelling of u (i.e. the long u sound in music); and the long vowel sound or. Like the previous one, this skill level uses the same system of charts and contains a story in each lesson. These stories, however, are refined with longer sentences, more sentence patterns, and indented paragraphs. Instead of simply noting simple facts, students can now find main ideas, summarize content, recognize implied meaning, develop opinions, and predict outcome. A new section called "Reading for Living" allows students to read commonplace items, such as menus, letters, bills, and ads. By the end of this level, students have learned three hundred ninety-nine new words, excluding variants formed by added endings. Finally, students begin writing in a notebook and learn to write with cursive alphabetic characters.

The final skill level is structured similarly to skill level three and continues with the remaining regular spellings of u. This level also introduces the vowel sounds oo, ou, aw, oi, and their variant spellings,

different sounds represented by the same alphabetic character, and regular spellings for consonant sounds that may be spelled in different ways. Students strengthen their reading comprehension skills by learning more contractions, compound words, and the most common prefixes and suffixes. Finally, students further their reading comprehension by making inferences, identifying cause and effect, drawing conclusions, and understanding a story's mood. Students may thus interpret the author's opinion and evaluate their own reactions to what they read.

Accompanying readers for each skill level incorporate sight words learned up to the students' current skill level. These readers also introduce a very small number of sight words. Students learn these new words by reading them in context at least five times in the particular story. If students need additional reading material, then each skill level has a separate anthology called More Stories. Each story within the anthology corresponds to a particular lesson at that skill level. Focus on Phonics is a separate series of supplemental books, which are subdivided into chapters corresponding to a matching lesson on a skill level.

New Reader's Press, the publishing company for the Laubach Method, has incorporated complementary learning materials with the program. Among others these include the New Oxford Picture Dictionary, The Laubach Way to Cursive Writing, and the Challenger Adult Series. The New Oxford Picture Dictionary illustrates two thousand four hundred words in a commonly understood context. The Dictionary introduces students to basic survival words, then moves onto words of a more general nature, and finally teaches words appropriate to classroom study. For additional practice, there are separate cassettes with a reading of all the words presented in the Dictionary, Vocabulary Playing Cards with only forty words and their corresponding pictures, and wall charts.

The Laubach Way to Cursive Writing is broken down into ten lessons. The first five lessons teach lowercase letters, and lessons six through nine teach the capital letters. Each lesson groups together those alphabetic characters that are formed in a similar way, such as those with the beginning stroke. Finally, lesson ten gives the students practice exercises in cursive writing.

The Challenger Adult Series is an additional educational program designed to bring adult students from the second grade reading level to the eighth grade reading level. At first, students learn the rudiments of pronunciation (phonics), sentence structure, spelling, and punctuation. Next, students gradually increase their level of mastery in reading comprehension and writing. Finally, at the end of the program, they are able to write essays and letters. Their reading comprehension ability is such that they can draw conclusions from inferences, cite reasons to support opinions, give explanations for answers, and cite examples and details to support responses. Whereas the Laubach Method expects students to start at the beginning of the series, the Challenger Adult Series contains a pre-assessment test so that students may start at any level. By the time students finish this series, they should be ready to enter either a pre-GED or GED program.

B. Literacy Volunteers of America (Language Experience)

Maintaining the students' interest is crucial to any tutor-student relationship. If students lose interest in learning, they may resist future attempts at education. As a means of preventing this situation, the Literacy Volunteers of America, Inc. (LVA), has adapted a technique of teaching adult students to read materials which captivate their interest. These materials can be either generated by student, using the language experience approach, or printed materials. For example, printed materials could be a repair manual for mechanics, the Bible for religious-minded students, or a driver's manual for

those wishing to attain a driver's licence. The LVA has adapted this technique into a manual called Techniques Used in the Teaching Of Reading (TUTOR), which assists tutors in the education of students on a one-on-one basis. In this manner, tutors can respond individually to each student's interests and needs. TUTOR divides the act of reading into two parts, decoding and comprehension. Decoding is the process of changing alphabetic characters into sounds; merging these sounds, so that they correctly form a recognizable word; and merging words, so that they form an intelligible sentence. Comprehension, consequently, is deriving the meaning of one or more sentences in context. As sections one and two of this tutor reference manual have already shown, both of these processes simultaneously are necessary for reading. Currently in its sixth edition, TUTOR is subdivided into nine chapters and also includes appendices, a bibliography, and an index.

The first four chapters examine the problems of illiteracy, the characteristics of an adult learner and of a basic reading tutor, and assessment and goal setting. TUTOR only briefly examines the problems of illiteracy. The authors, like those of other adult teaching methods, have concluded that one-on-one tutoring and a willingness to understand the student's needs are necessary for effective teaching. One may characterize adult learners as being adaptable, talented, and responsible. On the other hand, they may often be apprehensive, uneven at learning, and have problems outside of class. In order to instruct adult learners, basic reading tutors must have positive attitudes toward instruction, very much patience, and perseverance. Only through mutual cooperation will a tutor-student relationship succeed. At first, tutors must assess their students' particular strengths and needs. For this purpose, LVA has published a test called Reading Evaluation Adult Diagnosis (READ). This test measures an individual student's

basic sight word recognition, word analysis skills, level of reading ability, and level of reading comprehension. Then, tutors converse with students to determine what their interests are. Finally, tutors and students together set both long term and short term goals. Long term goals might be attaining a driver's licence, reading stories to children, or advancing in jobs which require reading knowledge. Short term goals, consequently, are any obvious steps toward accomplishing the long term goals.

Chapter five examines four instructional approaches and techniques: the language experience approach, sight words and context clues, phonics, and word patterns; these cover the decoding aspect of reading. Each of these approaches is discussed at length in section two of this tutor reference manual. Because maintaining the students' interest is crucial, providing variety with each lesson prevents boredom. Therefore, the LVA recommends that each lesson incorporate more than one of these techniques and approaches. The last three approaches can be used either with or without the language experience approach, which relies on texts that the students create. Again, the language experience approach is discussed at length in section two of this tutor reference manual.

The second approach is to teach sight words and context clues. The more sight words they accumulate, the more students will be able to read sentences, even though a particular sentence may have unfamiliar words. Students can read difficult sentences simply by placing words in context. Therefore, students must amass a very large sight vocabulary in order to improve their reading ability. The third approach is to teach phonics. Because this method is tiring to students, teaching phonics should be the shortest part of a lesson. The LVA does not recommend any particular phonics learning system except for that which tutors and students find useful for themselves. There are many phonics systems in print, one of which -- the Laubach method -- is discussed in

this tutor reference manual. If tutors do not have access to any printed systems, then they may use a simplified version, which is included in TUTOR. In general, tutors should limit phonics study to one sound per lesson. First, students identify a sound from a particular letter or digraph, which tutors have selected, and write it. Then, tutors listen to the beginning sound for that letter in a number of words. In order to help them remember the sound, students choose one of the words to be a key word. An appendix of key words is included with TUTOR for such a purpose. They produce this beginning sound again. Next, tutors recite a group of words, some of them having different beginning sounds. The objective is for students to recognize the chosen sound in other words. Now tutors put the chosen sound at the end of words, and students produce this sound again. Finally, tutors review the name of the letter, the key word, and the sound. Students follow along and write the letter; they have just learned another sound.

The final approach is to teach word patterns. Before using this approach, students must understand the concept of rhyming in words. If students do not understand this concept, then tutors demonstrate by rhyming long words. This gives students a large number of common elements in order to understand rhyming. Tutors repeat this process while progressing to shorter words, until students understand rhyming. In general, this should be an easy task. When students are ready to learn word patterns, tutors may consult an appendix of two hundred forty-one word patterns, which is included with TUTOR.

Chapter six examines comprehension and thinking skills. This aspect of reading is covered at length in sections one and two of this tutor reference manual. Teaching comprehension involves directed questioning to find out if students understand what they just read. Furthermore, the texts used would not be any of those generated by the student; otherwise, students obviously would

not have any difficulty in understanding what they have just read. This chapter briefly discusses a few thinking skills: context clues, literal comprehension, inference, distinguishing between fact and opinion, sequencing, and vocabulary development.

The last three chapters examine lesson materials and activities; goal analysis and lesson planning; and first lessons and tutor hints. Chapter seven of TUTOR offers suggestions to tutors about various materials and activities, which may make learning more interesting for students. Materials suggested are calendars, maps, menus, notes, and lists. Because they are common, practical items, teaching students how to use these items would be beneficial. In addition, learning to read these items may already be a short term goal. Activities suggested are playing word games, writing letters, learning to use computers, alphabetizing, and learning to use a library's card catalog. Chapter eight instructs tutors in breaking down short term and long term goals into objectives, which they can accomplish lesson by lesson. TUTOR gives an example of a student who wishes to learn to read the telephone book competently.

In order for the student to accomplish this task, the tutor would have to provide instruction in the following:

1. alphabetizing names.
2. knowledge of guide words on pages.
3. knowledge of abbreviations.
4. knowledge of categories used in yellow pages.
5. knowledge of other sources of information in the phone book.

Tutors need to plan an approximate time period to accomplish each objective. At the same time, they must reassure their students that these tasks are necessary for accomplishing the goals. If they feel they are wasting time on

these tasks, then students may quit. The LVA recommends that a typical lesson contain the following: review of previously learned material and homework, introduction of new reading and writing skills based on the current objectives, additional materials or activities, and assignment of homework. Only through trial and error will a tutor learn what comprises a good lesson and lesson planning. The ninth chapter assists tutors in planning their first few lessons. Included in this chapter are sample lesson plans and a few success stories by tutors and students excited about adult learning. These are included in order to boost tutors' morale and get them excited about teaching. Everything up to this chapter should be sufficient in getting tutors started. Finally, the appendices include a tutor competency evaluation, a checklist for the evaluation of adult basic reading material, a checklist of student's word attack skills, a standard form for lesson planning, and a number of word lists, which are included in this tutor reference manual.

C. Kentucky Literacy Commission (Eclectic)

Basic Workshop

Teaching adults to read encompasses many difficulties that new tutors probably cannot anticipate. Additionally, there are many basic teaching techniques which tutors must know to work effectively. In order to alleviate this dilemma, the Kentucky Literacy Commission (KLC) has developed a basic workshop. Over a twelve-hour period, new tutors for the KLC learn the essentials for their work. The training provided at this workshop is not really a method, but rather a philosophy of variety. Central to this training is the philosophy of individualized instruction. The approaches which KLC tutors employ themselves are not original. The uniqueness of this program lies in the variety of instructional approaches which the KLC believes is necessary to meet fully the individual needs of adult students. This workshop is

subdivided into three main topics: an introduction to the world of illiteracy, instructional approaches, and lesson planning.

Before learning instructional approaches, tutors must discern the reality of the non-reading adult student. As a group they discuss what are some of the causes of illiteracy. They also receive some statistics. For example,

1. The annual cost of illiteracy to business and the taxpayer is twenty billion dollars; and
2. Seventy-five percent of unemployed adults have difficulty reading or writing.

Then, tutors briefly assume the role of non-reading adult students. The workshop leader teaches them familiar English words written in the cyrillic alphabet. Assuming that they do not read cyrillic, tutors experience the frustrations of learning to read their own tongue in a different manner. Thus, tutors learn that adult students require immediate success and praise for overcoming these difficulties. Without this form of motivation, a student may resist future attempts at education. Tutors are challenged to scrutinize their attitude toward their students. Adults are more mature, talented, and experienced, but they perform more slowly and have more immediate needs. Adults also have mixed sets of motives for learning, and responsibilities outside of class may upset their learning ability. Consequently, students have more than just illiteracy to overcome, and they often need support. In order to facilitate this situation, the KLC employs a method of each-one-teach-one (EOTO); one tutor instructs one student at a time. EOTO allows the tutor to respond to the student's individual needs. In this manner, tutors can encourage a student's independence.

The KLC employs three different instructional approaches. In each lesson, tutors are encouraged to incorporate any or all three according to the

individual needs of the student. The first method is called the Language Experience Approach. For texts, students either retell life experiences or create an interesting story. While students are doing this, tutors write down verbatim what they hear. Tutors then insert appropriate punctuation marks into the story but do not correct the grammar. They also print clearly what they write until they teach cursive writing. Eventually, when they have learned enough skills, the students themselves write down the stories in a personal journal. As students learn more sight words and grammar, they can update their stories. In this manner, students can see their reading and writing ability progress through time. The Language Experience Approach interlinks reading comprehension, sight words, word patterns, and phonics with the students' writing of stories. First, as a means of building reading comprehension, tutors give students story ideas which progressively increase in difficulty. At first, students write about experiences from their daily lives; progress to cause and effect relationships; and finally incorporate specific details, mood, planning, and decision-making. This approach compels students to expend more mental energy on their efforts and, consequently, to reason more clearly. Second, tutors introduce new sight words and review old ones. Tutors should limit the number of new sight words they teach each lesson. They are also at liberty to employ word games or hand-made flash cards, so long as repetition is the norm. Finally, tutors instruct students in phonics. In the beginning stages, students should learn consonant sounds, because they are fairly stable and not nearly as irregular as vowel sounds. Then they move onto the vowel sounds, and finally learn consonant blends. Altogether, the Language Experience Approach is intended to teach reading in the context of passages that are meaningful to students. In this fashion, they learn specific reading and writing skills in the context of the whole English language.

The second approach involves the use of basal series textbooks. The KLC advocates textbooks that avoid childish stories and an overabundance of phonics; contain a consistent structure for teaching and plenty of interesting, feasible stories; and recommend other reading sources. Therefore, the KLC employs the use of a variety of five textbook series: New Beginnings in Reading, Reading for Today, Read On, Firm Foundations, and The Laubach Way to Reading. The basal series New Beginnings in Reading focuses on sight words and phonics with much repetition. However, this series stops at the third grade level, and the readings are not complex. Reading for Today also focuses on sight words but draws them from "survival" vocabulary instead of phonics. The readings in this series are those of real life situations, and these naturally benefit the Language Experience Approach. On the other hand, this series tends to overemphasize sight words and as such is not very rigorous. Read On, unlike the previously mentioned series, contains plenty of reading and writing exercises for students. Firm Foundations, in contrast with the other four, is a Bible-based series. Each lesson includes new word patterns, a secular story with vocabulary from the new word patterns, and a Biblical text with Scripture reference. The Laubach Way to Reading is discussed elsewhere in this reference manual.

The third approach is called real reading. For texts, either tutors or students bring to class reading materials from everyday life: newspapers, magazines, menus, bills, or other such items. This method helps to meet the individual needs of the student. Tutors begin to use higher level materials, and over time, students learn fluency, usage of punctuation marks, and overcoming barriers from unknown words. In this manner, they can see how much their abilities need to develop. If an item is too advanced, then tutors should either read the passage and have students retell it in their own words

or rewrite the passage at a lower level.

The final topic in the KLC basic workshop is lesson planning. At first, tutors and students need to establish long term and short term objectives. Tutors are asked to include their students individually in this process because each student has different goals for learning, such as job advancement, survival, reading the Bible, or simply reading to children. If students are not advancing toward their goals, then they will lose interest; that is disastrous. Therefore, tutors and students are encouraged to work together on each goal and on evaluations as well. As students, and not tutors, keep records of progress, they can actually see their abilities improve. Having assisted the students in the establishment of their goals, tutors are then ready to design individual lessons. Tutors should include review of old material, real-life reading, and a checkup of reading comprehension, with at least fifty percent of class material coming from sources outside the textbooks. Upon completion of the workshop, tutors receive a certificate and are matched with students.

D. Time-Warner (Print media emphasis)

Adult students better enjoy learning to read if the texts they use are interesting and practical. To this end Time Warner, Inc. has designed an original adult literacy program, called Time to Read (TTR), around one of its magazines, Time. Because Time covers a wide variety of topics, there is bound to be at least one article in every issue that is interesting to students. Furthermore, the coverage of current events in its articles demonstrates the practicality of this magazine. Unlike most other adult literacy programs, TTR is not necessarily a one-on-one program. Time Warner, Inc., designed TTR for small groups of students as well as for one-on-one situations. A typical lesson in the TTR program consists of three main activities: magazine reading,

work on students' personal word lists, and skill lessons. By utilizing all three main activities, students learn the two basics of reading in every lesson: decoding and comprehension. (For more information on decoding and comprehension, refer to sections one and two of this tutor reference manual.) TTR consists of an instructional booklet and tutor manual. The tutor manual contains activity sheets for each lesson, personal word lists, and an appendix.

The first main activity is magazine reading. TTR has broken this down into a five-step process: pre-reading, discussion and questioning, reading aloud, reading silently, and review and discussion. Because maintaining their interest is important, students may stop this reading process after any step. The reason for this flexibility is that students may not be interested in the article being read, in which case they choose another article. First, pre-reading involves scanning a chosen article to see if it is interesting and not too difficult for the students. The second step entails a discussion and questions about the topic of the article. Students share with others what they know about the topic, and they pose questions which they hope the article will answer. Next, reading aloud involves the decoding process of reading, while reading silently involves comprehension. Finally, review and discussion involves checking-up on the students' comprehension and answering the questions which they posed in the second step.

For the second main activity, personal word lists are provided in section six of the TTR tutor manual. These lists help develop the students' sight word vocabulary. The final main activity is the skill lessons. These are subdivided into five sections of ten lessons, and each section has a general theme. Each lesson has one or more activity sheets to see if the students understand the particular skill of the lesson. Students need not complete all of the activity sheets for each lesson. It is only necessary that they

understand the particular skill. The first three sections teach the decoding aspect of reading. Section one teaches students word attack skills: phonics; homonyms; homographs; reversals, to test for dyslexia; and syllables. The second section, word parts, involves compound words, the silent letter e, prefixes, roots, root words, and suffixes. Section three builds students' vocabulary in the areas of elections, US government, crime and law, business and finance, and sports. The last two sections teach the comprehension aspect of reading. Section four, comprehension skills, involves cause and effect relationships, defending a position, sequencing, comparison, points of view, writing letters, and using a chart. Finally, section five teaches students comprehension clues: defining words in context, reading to find facts, finding main ideas, analyzing information, finding supporting information, making inferences, organizing information, identifying and stating viewpoints, and combining information from different sources.

Finally, the appendix contains a wide variety of supplemental materials for the lessons. There are optional activity sheets for students who need more practice in some of the more difficult lessons. Next, TTR provides suggestions for ongoing projects, such as following a story that continues for several weeks. Lastly, TTR provides progress reports for each section of lessons and for phonics mastery. In this manner, students can see how much their reading ability has developed over time.

E. Basal Reader Series (Standard elementary school)

Basal reader series are printed, sequential texts designed to raise adult students' reading ability to an individually specified grade level, such as third or sixth grade. Each book (except the last) is the pre-requisite for the next one in the series. Some programs, such as the Laubach Way to Reading, require students to begin with the first book in the series. Others, such as

New Beginnings in Reading (published by Contemporary Books, Inc.), are flexible and make allowances for students to start at specified points in the middle of the series. In this case, the program would contain a placement test, the results of which determine the highest level of reading at which the student could begin the series. With intelligent use, basal reader series are self-sufficient, as they require no outside source to utilize the program. In fact, tutors need not plan lessons ahead of time because the instructor's manuals already contain lesson plans within them. Basal reader series are better for tutors who teach more than one session per day and do not have time to prepare ahead of time from scratch; they simply do what is written for each lesson. Student workbooks usually contain an abundance of exercises in each lesson, stories written at students' reading levels, and checkup tests. Instructor's manuals contain answer keys to exercises and tests; lesson plans; information on illiteracy, such as statistics and typical problems of adult students; suggestions for better use of the program; and supplemental materials for students who may need extra practice. Placement tests may either be an individual book within the series or published in one of the other books.

Many basal reader series emphasize either one of two approaches of teaching adult students how to decode: phonics or contextual. The phonics approach emphasizes the sounds that letters or combinations of letters make. The contextual approach relies on students' learning new words in the context of familiar sentences. For more information, refer to section two of this tutor reference manual under "phonics" and "sight words and context clues." However, the better basal reader series will utilize both approaches. In general, neither approach is necessarily better than the other because adult students often react well to both. It is better, moreover, to employ both approaches because all students learn at different rates and in different ways.

As has been discussed, both decoding and comprehension are necessary for the act of reading. Thus, stories in basal series are followed by reading comprehension questions. The higher the student's reading level, the more complex the questions become. At the end of each book within the series, there is a check-up test to discern whether students are ready to move onto the next book. Finally at the end of the series itself, there is a certificate of achievement for students who have completed the program. Students generally react positively toward these certificates because they have spent a great amount of time and effort to reach the end. Because their reading ability has greatly improved, students should be rewarded for their success.

F. PALS (Computer Assisted Instruction)

The IBM Principle of the Alphabet Literacy System for the PS/2 (PALS) is an IBM computer-based, instructional program designed to raise adult students' reading level to approximately the fifth grade level. Unlike the other instructional approaches discussed in this tutor reference manual, PALS teaches students to type, as well as to read and write. The texts and exercises appear on the computer screen, and students respond by typing in the answers. So, there is very little pre-printed material. In addition, a voicebox vocalizes that which appears on the computer screen, as it appears. In this manner, students without any reading ability can use this program. PALS is divided into five sections: a fictional story called the "Invention of the Alphabet," work journals, touch typing, the lending library, and the writing process.

"Invention of the Alphabet," the first section, is a fictional story about an ancient civilization that is starting to develop from pictographs to an alphabetic system of writing. A "page" of the story is the amount of story information and graphics that fit into a computer screen at one time. Each "page" contains drawings of settings and characters. When story characters

speak, cartoon blurbs surround the words that they say. For the voicebox, each character has a different actor's/actress' voice, and appropriate background music and sounds are played. Altogether, the audio and visual presentation is intended to maintain the students' interest and prevent learning from becoming too difficult. At the end of each "page," students use a computer mouse to choose one of four options. First, students may repeat the "page." Second, students may stop reading the story. In this case, they write down in a journal which "page" they last read. Writing journals accompany the PALS program, and students use these to record pages for future reference and to write answers to certain exercises. Third, students may continue with the next "page." Or, finally, students may continue with the story but without an interruption of choices after each "page." In this case, students rely on certain keystrokes in order to choose one of the other three options. Depending on the students' reading ability, the story requires several class periods to complete. As the story progresses, it becomes more complex. Repetition of words throughout the story helps build students' sight word vocabulary. When students feel comfortable enough to begin writing, they then devote class time to other sections of the PALS program, as well as to the story.

In the second section, students pair up in order to complete work journals. These are mostly decoding exercises, although there are some exercises on comprehension. Decoding exercises involve mainly phonics, sight words, and context clues. Each lesson of the work journals focuses on one or a few phonemes (e.g., /s/ and /oy/ are phonemes). Sight words are those words from the story that contain the phoneme for that lesson and previous lessons. The same principle applies to context clues. One student in the pair types the answers to the exercises on the computer, while the other student completes the

same exercises in the written journal; but they still work together. At periodic times, they switch places. In this manner, students learn to type and write at the same time. Work journals also require several class periods to complete, and students may continue at any point at which they stopped.

The third section, touch typing, is entirely on the computer. Because there are no written exercises, students return to working alone. This section is divided into four kinds of exercises: touch typing, drawing, math, and grammar. First, touch typing exercises are designed to strengthen students' typing ability. They begin by learning the finger positions for each letter and punctuation mark. For example, the left middle finger types the letters e, d, and c; the right middle finger types the letters and symbols i, k and "2"; and so on. Then, students move onto exercises that build their typing speed in words per minute. The second kind of exercise, drawing, is optional and exists to maintain the interest of students who become easily bored. Finally, math and grammar exercises are straightforward.

The fourth section is the lending library. This consists of short, pocket-sized readers for students to borrow and take home. The readers are unrelated to the "Invention of the Alphabet" story and are intended only for practice. In the final section, students employ the sum knowledge of what they have learned so far in order to practice writing. As has been discussed before in this tutor reference manual, the best way for students to learn to write is simply to write. In this section, students get lots of practice. They also strengthen their computer skills by learning to use the word processor. They begin with "bio-sketches," which essentially are short biographies. Through the continuous process of drafting and revising, students discover the writing method: that writing involves a constant reorganizing of one's thoughts until a logical structure can be presented. After completing their "bio-sketches,"

students move onto résumés and job applications. Teachers then assign other essay topics for more advanced writing. Near the end of the twenty weeks, teachers evaluate the students for advancement to a higher level of education.

PALS is designed to be a self-sufficient instructional approach. The five sections of the program may be employed either in sequence (in the order discussed in this article) or in conjunction with one another. In addition, the LNGC agencies using PALS find it useful to combine other instructional approaches with this program, such as the Laubach method. In any event, PALS is flexible for the needs of the students and teachers for whom it serves.

The following agencies in the LNGC maintain a PALS lab: Cincinnati Career Education Academy, Diamond Oaks Joint Vocational School, Live Oaks Joint Vocational School, Madisonville Emergency Assistance Center, Mount Healthy Coordinating Council on Adult Literacy, Scarlet Oaks Joint Vocational School, and University Hospital.

Section V

Goal Setting & Lesson Planning

Involving the Student

The importance of lesson planning cannot be overemphasized!

The importance of lesson planning cannot be mitigated!

The importance of lesson planning cannot be allayed!

Especially when teachers think that the material to be presented is easy, or when the lesson is an old one, there is a tendency to think that they can "wing it." "I can read this stuff; all I have to do is sit down with the student and have her read it. All I have to do is decide on a few exercises and let the student work her way through them." That kind of thinking is disastrous. If the tutor goes into the lesson unprepared, the student will always find him out. It announces to the student in banner headlines that the tutor doesn't really care. It leads to awkward silences half way through the lesson, with the tutor lamely asking the student, "Well, what do you want to do next?"

Most adults have had too many exposures to uncaring teachers. Their unexpressed reaction at the time is "Here we go again." Their expressed reaction is not showing up the next time. Half hearted, careless preparation results in monotonous lessons, with the teacher falling back on the same format and type of activities used for the last lesson. **DON'T GO IN UNPREPARED!**

In fact, go into the lesson overprepared!

A rule of thumb in teaching is that one should spend two hours of preparation for every one hour of instructional time. This gauge especially applies to the inexperienced tutor. Preparation includes the following:

- A. Examining long term **goals** set with and for the student in relation to the lesson being prepared,
- B. Framing **objectives** - based on those goals - that can be accomplished during

the instructional period,

- C. Designing a **variety of activities** to accomplish those lesson objectives,
- D. Gathering materials to be used for the lesson,
- E. Specifying informal/formal **evaluation** measures for the objectives, and
- F. Designating **homework** to reinforce material covered during the lesson.

The lesson itself should contain at least the following elements:

- A. **Review** of the previous lesson's content and assigned homework,
- B. Introduction of new **reading** assignment for student to **read** during the session,
- C. **Decoding practice** (word attack, phonics, word patterns, etc.) based on the reading selection provided in B,
- D. Continuation of the new **reading** assignment,
- E. **Evaluation** of the student's comprehension of the reading assignment,
- F. **Vocabulary building** exercise,
- G. **Writing** (either forming letters or writing a story, etc. depending on the student's level),
- H. **Homework** assignment, to reinforce the learning achieved during this lesson, and
- I. **Modeled reading**, in which the tutor reads aloud to the student, to demonstrate that reading is fun, to show how to read with expression, and to review newly acquired or inadequately learned skills.

Discussion of these elements of lesson planning and the lesson itself is provided below.

P R E P A R A T I O N

- A. Examine long term goals set with and for the student in relation to the lesson being prepared.

Many new readers come for instruction to satisfy ambitious goals: "To learn to read," "To be able to read the Bible," "To read my (job's) training manual," "To read to my children," "To pass the GED." While admirable, these goals most often are unattainable in a short period of time, e.g. 2-3 months, the time the student and the tutor might well agree on as a span of instruction for the first set of classes. For most, these goals will be impossible to reach in 8-12 weeks and will only bring discouragement for both student and tutor. Therefore, the tutor should settle with the student on a related, but shorter term goal that can be met in a specified time span. If tutor and student specify these longer term goals as purpose statements, shorter term goals, such as the following, are achievable (assuming a given level of student mastery):

<u>Purpose</u>	<u>Goal</u>
1. To be able to read	1. To read a story dictated by me to my tutor.
2. To be able to read the Bible	2. To read the 10 Commandments
3. To read my training manual	3. To recognize and define 30 technical words in my manual
4. To read to my children	4. To read a first story book (pictures & 1 sentence on each page)

Lesson objectives, then, are derived from these agreed upon goals. It is important for the tutor to reiterate not only the student's reading purpose at the beginning of each lesson, but to state that lesson's objective(s) and explain the relationship to the student's purpose for being there. Everyone has to have a target to aim for, if she is to have any chance of succeeding.

B. Frame objectives - based on those goals - that can be accomplished during the instructional period.

For many tutors, establishing lesson objectives is the most ornery task they face in planning a lesson. Perhaps that's because one must be specific when writing objectives. It's much easier to have a hazy notion in the back of one's mind of what one is going to do during the class than to sit down to write out some measurable objectives. But if you don't know where you're going, how will you know when you've gotten there? And if you don't know where you're going, how can you expect the student to know?

Actually, writing out objectives is relatively easy. You only have to specify four things:

1. **Who** is going to do it?
2. **What** is **who** going to do?
3. **How** will **who** do **what**?
4. **When** will you know that **who** has done **what**?

Less facetiously, properly written objectives specify the following:

1. The **doer** of the action (usually the student)
2. The **action** itself (always something observable)
3. The **condition(s)** under which the action will be done (after ten minutes of practice, etc.)
4. The **criterion** for success (how you know she has done it at an acceptable level).

Goal

Objective

The student will

1. To read a story dictated to my tutor.

1. Select and memorize five sight words from the dictated language experience story by the end of the instructional period, with 100% recognition during 3 successive class sessions.

2. To read the 10 Commandments

2. a. Acquire the words thou, shalt, and not as sight vocabulary with 100% accuracy by the end of the period.

b. Read aloud the 2nd, 3rd and 4th commandments by the end of the period with 70% accuracy.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 3. To recognize and define 30 technical words in my shop manual | 3. Select 5 technical words from the manual, make flash cards for each, recognize each with 100% accuracy, and spell 4 of the 5 correctly by the end of the first class period. |
| 4. To read a first story book (pictures & 1 or 2 sentences on each page) | 4. Read all nouns on one of the book's pages and point to the picture representing that word by the end of the lesson, with 90% accuracy. |
- C. Designing a variety of activities to accomplish those lesson objectives.

No one can stand to drill with flash cards, practice spelling words, etc. for one to one and a half hours. The monotony is sleep inducing; the activity doesn't seem like reading. In fact, it isn't reading. But then reading for one to one and a half hours would be just as bad. Therefore, tutors must design a variety of activities during any given lesson, some involving reading, others involving writing, and others involving drill. These various activities should be tied to a time line. Otherwise, it is easy to become bogged down in one, particularly when it seems to be enjoyable for the student, or when the student takes longer than predicted to complete the activity. In the latter case, important as that piece of learning may be, it is better to go on to something different - as close to schedule as possible - and come back to the unfinished work.

Variety is introduced into a session via the Lesson Framework (see below) or by approaching different segments of the lesson with alternative methods. For example, to help students recognize sight words, one might have them spot target words in a newspaper ad in one session, while having them match sight words (nouns) with parts of a collage and print the word below the picture in the next session. The tutor repeats an approach when she discovers that it works effectively with her student. But even then, the tutor needs to vary approaches and materials for repetitive types of learning, i.e. coaching skills.

As a matter of fact, practicing a skill under different circumstances is beneficial to the student. Transfer of learning is one of the hardest problems to solve in education. For example, a student can learn the operation of addition and perform correctly on a page of addition problems. But presented with a word problem calling for addition, the student might well not recognize that addition is needed to solve the problem. In the same way, a student might recognize a word that she or the tutor printed on a flash card and yet not be able to spot it in an advertisement, simply because the context is different.

Finally, learning is most often sheer drudgery and hard work. Why not add something fun or interesting to the process? As Mary Poppins said, "A spoonful of sugar makes the medicine go down, the medicine go down, the medicine go down."

D. Gathering materials to be used for the lesson.

While this step seems so obvious as to be unmentionable, it isn't. Particularly if the tutor knows he is disorganized or apt to misplace materials or prone to get the materials "when he gets to the classroom," don't be caught in this trap. The time with a student is severely limited. An hour and a half may seem long; but there never is enough time when a well planned lesson begins, particularly when the tutor can't anticipate the student's every question, difficulty, or interest. Having materials collected, sequenced, organized, labelled, and presentable is crucial if the instructional time is to be used effectively.

One other obvious, but mentionable point: the tutor should be familiar with the material. That means reading through the material **and** doing the exercises. It's surprising how many typos, vague directions, and just plain wrong information is presented, even in commercially printed texts

and workbooks.

One last point. Workbooks and purple ditto worksheets are the bane of the teaching profession. While these worksheets have their use, too often teachers/tutors use them to fill class time. Frequently, the sheets only address a particular student's problems peripherally; and while they give the student a sense of immediate achievement, they may not be of much help. Better than workbooks, devise original exercises - or have the student devise them - to reflect active participation on the part of the learner and interaction with the tutor.

E. Specifying informal/formal evaluation measures for the objectives.

"To be or not to be" is **not** the question. The question is, "What does the tutor want the student to do (perform, act, produce) when the instruction is finished? "Know" his sight words for today? No. How does the tutor know he knows? What does "knowing" mean?

Read them aloud from flash cards? Yes. But what is the criterion? All five of them with no mistakes? Four of the five? That's an 80 - an acceptable grade in school (B or C, depending on the grading system). It depends on the task and how much exposure the student has had to that specific task. It has to be 100% for tasks/skills that must be mastered to be able to go on to the next, more difficult, task or skill. But the 100% may not be achievable for three or four weeks.

The important thing is that the tutor must specify a performance objective and valid criteria (action and circumstance) that indicate that the student can perform the skill.

Another example: "The student will understand the main idea in (the selected reading). Again, NO! What does "understand" mean? But, "The student will identify and read the sentence that contains the main idea of

(the reading selection)." OR

"The student can state the main idea of the selection in her own words and cite sentences from the selection to support her viewpoint."

The examples above might sound cumbersome (they are), but they do describe the desired student behavior and do make the tutor settle **exactly** on what he wants the student to do. Knowing that, he can point the student in the right direction and realize when she has reached it.

One other thing. Evaluation isn't a covert activity with disclosure occurring only at the end of the course. If only for morale, the student needs to know how she is doing. But evaluation is a great motivator too - especially positive evaluation. "You did a good job," genuinely offered, does more to help the student take the next step than anything else the tutor can provide. Evaluation can also show the student how she has progressed - another good motivator. Graphs depicting steps accomplished and steps remaining provide a visual representation of progress that words cannot duplicate.

And what better way to keep track of progress than to let the student keep her own record. If the tutor has set up the recording forms, having the student keep track of her own progress is not only a morale booster but an exercise in writing, graphing, etc.

F. Designating **homework** to reinforce material covered during the lesson.

The most important thing to remember about assigning homework is that the assignment should never cover new territory. Homework's purpose is twofold: 1) to cement new learning covered during the lesson and 2) to practice skills initiated during class or imperfectly learned from previous lessons. Those purposes do mean, though, that the tutor can assign reading material that was not covered in class - **if it is at a level the student**

has no difficulties with. Those purposes also dictate that unknown vocabulary in an assigned selection should be covered in class, before the student tackles the piece.

It is also important that the tutor review the homework **with the student** at the beginning of the next class. Nothing is more frustrating to any student than to do assigned work to which the tutor pays no attention. In most cases, it doesn't take too long; also, it helps the tutor assess the progress of the student.

If drill sheets must be employed, homework is the place to use them. But again, the more imaginative the assignment, the greater the chance that it will be done. For example, identifying newly studied words in the newspaper and clipping them out is far more appealing than doing another purple punishment paper.

The length of the assignment should depend on the tutor's assessment of the time available to the student and the time a student can concentrate at any one sitting. In writing, for example, a good homework assignment is to have the student keep a journal, making entries each day. The directions might be to spend no more than five minutes doing this in the beginning, while increasing the time as the student gains facility with writing. Having students practice reading new selections below his instructional level (new vocabulary covered in class), with the length of the selections increasing as he reads with less difficulty, is a good assignment.

As with all homework assignments, it is imperative that the directions for completing the work, as well as the reasons for doing it, be covered and understood in class.

LESSON FRAMEWORK

Below are the elements of a good lesson, with typical time allocations for an hour and a half class. The order can vary, depending on the specific lesson; but all elements of the lesson framework should be covered each class period.

A. Review of the previous lesson's content and assigned homework.

- :10 Review - a. Homework [if you assigned it, its worth going over.]
b. Work covered in the previous lesson(s). [Did it get locked into the student's long term memory?]
c. Skills that must be practiced over a period of time for the student to gain mastery.

B. Introduction of new reading assignment for student to read during the session.

- :20 Reading - a. Discussion in preparation for a language experience piece, or discussion of the topic of a reading selection brought in. **and**
either b. Dictating and reading a language experience story.
or c. 1. Introduction of new vocabulary to be encountered in a reading selection brought in.
2. Reading all or part of an assigned selection.
and
d. Discussion of the piece dictated/read, to evaluate understanding by the student.

C. Decoding practice (word attack, phonics, word patterns, etc.) based on the reading selection provided in B.

- :10 Practice of decoding skills through drill.

D. Writing (either forming letters or writing a story, etc. depending on the student's level.)

:15 Writing practice, based on reading done at the beginning of the period.

E. Continuation of the new reading assignment.

:15 Additional reading practice, stemming from the reading used at the beginning of the lesson.

F. Vocabulary building exercise.

:10 Vocabulary development, including word recognition, spelling and definition. This is a drill and practice activity.

G. Homework assignment, to reinforce the learning achieved during this lesson.

:05 Lesson review and assignment of homework. (Always assign homework - some kind of review or practice of material covered in the session's lesson. Never, absolutely never, assign something new as homework with the exception noted above under preparation. Homework is meant to reinforce/practice that which was covered in class. It is grossly unfair to a student to assign new work. The function of the tutor is to be present to guide the student with new learning or skill development.

H. Evaluation of the student's comprehension of the reading assignment.

:00 Informal/formal evaluation measures should accompany activities 2-6 above. Except for pre- and post- assessment tests, formal evaluation designated for a specific time in the lesson is intimidating for the disabled student. Better to "sneak it in" informally than to say, "Now I'm going to evaluate you."

I. Modeled reading

:05 The tutor reads aloud, to demonstrate that reading is fun and to show

the student how to read by thoughts/phrases rather than word by word. The selection read should be something the tutor likes or something the tutor thinks will appeal to the student. Obviously, reading with expression absolutely requires that the tutor have practiced reading the selection **aloud** before coming to class.

W H A T S H O U L D I D O T H E F I R S T S E S S I O N ?

A. When setting up first meeting, find out what section of the newspaper the student reads (if any). Bring it with you (and the literacy article from the Saturday Enquirer) for the first meeting.

(THE OUTLINE BELOW TOTALS AN HOUR AND FORTY MINUTES: ALWAYS OVERPLAN)

B. [:15] Have a get-acquainted conversation

1. Give some personal facts, interests, background about yourself
2. Have the student do the same.
3. Find out why the student wants to read/improve reading, including student's assessment of his/her reading ability.

C. [:15] Assess the student's reading ability by

1. Having him/her attempt to read the newspaper article
2. Having him/her read the literacy article
3. Giving the READ test (or other that your agency uses)

D. [:10] Set up a learning contract between the student and yourself.

1. Agree on a length of time (2 - 3 months; 1 - 2 times a week; 1-1:30 each session; time; place; cancel lesson procedure.
2. Agree on an achievable goal(s) for the time period
3. Set a measurable objective for this lesson and the next.

E. [:15] Read

1. Reread the literacy article/newspaper article: you alone, the two of you together, and then the student alone, **or**

2. Have the student dictate a story to you and read it: you alone, the two of you together, and then the student alone.
3. Check the student's comprehension using literal and inferential level questions (with literal level, have student point to answer in text; with inferential level, have the student explain how he/she got the answer).

F. [:10] Build sight word vocabulary

1. Have student select 5 sight words he/she wants to know first.
2. Make flash cards (or have the student make flash cards): practice.

G. [:15] Write

1. If student can write, have him/her add 3 sentences to the story dictated, **or**
2. Write a reaction to one of the newspaper articles read, **or**
3. If the student can't write, have him/her practice the alphabet or copy one or two sentences from the story he dictated.

H. [:10] Read

1. Another newspaper article the student selects **or**
2. Newspaper headlines **or**
3. Have student re-read the dictated story - with the additional sentences s/he wrote.

I. [:05] Assign Homework

1. Practice flashcards at home.
2. Cut newly learned words out of the newspaper.
3. Assign a new reading selection from newspaper (but make sure s/he recognizes all the words) and have her/him practice at home for reading aloud next lesson.

J. [:05] Modelled Reading - your selection

I N V O L V I N G T H E S T U D E N T

No instruction can be successful unless the student's mind is actively engaged in the learning. That engagement cannot be made unless the student participates in the learning. The tutor - to do this - has to forego the traditional, but mistaken, role of the teacher: being a fountain of knowledge under which the student sits, soaking up all the information passed on by the source. A better role to visualize is that of facilitator of the student's learning, one who "makes things easier" for the student as she learns.

Think of it this way: the tutor is only a midwife. A midwife can ease the birth of a child, but only ease it. Only the mother can give birth. A farmer can plant the seeds, weed the field, and water the plants; but only the plants can grow and ripen. In the same way, the tutor can foster the climate and bring the exercises for learning; but only the student can learn.

Therefore, in planning and conducting lessons, the tutor must keep in the foreground of her thinking that she must stay in the background of the student's learning. All a tutor can do is ease the process: analyze the student's deficiencies, create exercises to address these deficiencies, and then observe and correct while the student discovers and practices.

The process approach to writing, discussed earlier in this manual, illustrates this role of the facilitator quite well. To write an essay for a student serves no purpose other than to improve the tutor's writing skills. To have the student write an essay using the tutor's ideas serves no purpose other than to give the tutor practice in expressing ideas. The student must put down her own ideas. But the tutor can ease this process by discussing with the student a topic selected by the student, principally by asking questions to help the student clarify her own thinking. Furthermore, the tutor can supply models for the student, e.g. illustrating ways that thoughts can be organized

and presented. Finally, the tutor can react to what the student has written - by questioning - to show the student that what she has written has or has not communicated, and - by questioning - why it has/has not. Until the student **understands** her mistakes, she cannot correct them intelligibly. Her discovery makes her able to correct her immediate error, but more important, enables her to avoid making the same error at another time, because she understands why what she put down was confusing to the reader.

The following examples should help the tutor recast his teaching into a facilitating mode.

A. Learning new sight words: Let the student

1. Pick the words - from her own writing, from a text she has shown interest in, or from survival words she wants to know.
2. Write the words on flash cards.
3. Write sentences using those words, or find those words in another context, e.g. "year" in a table.

B. Learning the names and sounds of consonants: Let the student

1. Pick her own key word.
2. Make flash cards.
3. Make up sentences using that word (even if the tutor - at first - must write down the sentence).

C. Learning word patterns: Let the student

1. Identify the word she wants to learn, write the word on a card, read the word.
2. Respond to the tutor's query, "If this word is ____, what is this word ____?" (Sat, mat, etc.)
3. Identify the similarities/differences among the words in a list.
4. Make word cards for the new words.

D. **Capitalization and Punctuation:** Let the student

1. Deduce the rule for a punctuation mark (or reason for capital) being studied, from models using the punctuation mark or capital letter correctly.
2. Use the mark (capital) correctly in his own sentence.

E. **Reading Comprehension:** Let the student answer your

1. Literal level questions,
2. Inferential level questions,
3. Applied level questions,
- **without your answering them for her.** If she doesn't know the answer, ask another question!

(See Section IIE - Comprehension of this manual for a complete discussion of these three types of questions.)

F. **Writing**

Follow the methodology discussed above in Section III - Teaching Writing, under the subheading, "The Process Approach to Writing."

REMEMBER: A useful, if slightly profane, rule of thumb is as follows:

Don't tell the student a anything!

(Let him thrash it out for himself.)

Section VI
STUDENT READING ASSESSMENT

Introduction

This manual is intended for the use of new and experienced tutors in the greater Cincinnati area who would appreciate additional information on adult student reading assessment. There is seldom enough time to cover this important topic completely in the tutor training workshops. Thus, some tutors may become perplexed when either administering certain tests or applying test results to instruction. For those tutors who anticipate additional testing, care has been taken to present as neutral a view as possible on all three tests. At the end, certain advantages and disadvantages of each test are displayed to assist in the final decision process. Other tutors, however, may appreciate the hints for applying test results and for directing student deficiencies to appropriate instructional techniques.

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Ron Williams, Jr.
VISTA Volunteer for the LNGC

BEFORE TESTING

Prior to instruction, tutors need to know something of their students' abilities. This matter can be resolved by a combination of interview and pre-test. First, interviews are very informal. Tutors make students feel relaxed and explain that everything is for both their benefit. The purpose is to locate important information that cannot be tested: the students' interests, background, and reasons for wanting to learn to read.

The next step is testing. Many adult students are terrified of taking tests. Students need time to feel more comfortable. They must realize that the object is not to compete against others; pre-tests frequently result in low scores. Rather, the purpose is to discern where to begin instruction. Thus, testing should be done as soon as possible. The three tests discussed in this manual vary in length, depth, and skills covered. At least one of them could accommodate a particular student's needs.

Once they have obtained test results, tutors should exercise caution. There is no such thing as the perfect test. **NO** test can determine everything that students know nor indicate precisely how well they know it. In many cases, tutors may have to confirm certain test results. Verification is quite simple. Tutors give their students some sample exercises or readings from the particular instructional materials being used. Competency is then judged according to how well students complete the samples.

Finally, tutors should know that many tests evaluate only one facet of reading: either decoding or comprehension. Decoding is the skill of changing symbols to sounds, merging these sounds so that they correctly form a recognizable word, and merging words so that they form an intelligible sentence. Comprehension is the skill of deriving the meaning of one or more sentences or paragraphs in context. Both facets together comprise the act of

reading. Thus, both facets should be examined and taught. The examination of decoding skills is all too common, while comprehension skills, unfortunately, are frequently ignored. All three tests were selected because of their common emphasis on comprehension. The TABE and READ tests focus on both decoding and comprehension, while the cloze procedure only examines comprehension.

NORM-REFERENCED TESTS

SYNOPSIS OF NORM-REFERENCED TESTS

In general, there are two approaches to assessing students: norm-referenced (sometimes called normative) tests and criterion-referenced (sometimes called diagnostic or prescriptive) tests. The contrasts between the two approaches lie in how the final results are determined. Norm-referenced tests obtain a student's raw test score; compare it with raw scores of other students with similar backgrounds; and determine the particular student's ability as above average, average, or below average. This is the basis for the ubiquitous bell curve determination of test results. In order to attain the resulting score (called a norm), tutors use tables and charts to compare a student with other students. There are four types of norms: equivalent grade levels, percentiles, stanines, and normal curve equivalents (NCE). Only equivalent grade levels will be of use to new tutors. However, tutors must exercise caution when comparing adults with children of equivalent grade levels. More on this will be discussed later.

Advantages of norm-referenced tests include vast comprehensive statistics (for administrative purposes), objectivity, a frame of reference for comparing students, and the observation of large groups of students. Tutors should be wary of the last advantage because norm-referenced tests often favor groups of students over individual students.

"When the scores of many students are averaged together, measurement error tends to be minimized, thus affording a relatively accurate picture of achievement. For an individual student, however, the degree of error can be considerable, and the teacher has no way of telling whether the actual score is higher or lower than the true score -- that is, the score the student should have earned based solely on ability." (Page and Pinnell, pg. 428)

Finally, the main disadvantage of norm-referenced tests is their partiality to the group's results over an individual student's results.

TABE TEST

The Test of Adult Basic Education (TABE) is a multiple choice test of students' decoding and comprehension skills, designed and published by CTB/McGraw-Hill. This is the most widely-used student test among provider agencies of the LNGC. In some provider agencies, this test is also used as a progress test. At first glance, the TABE seems to be rather complex and difficult to use because of its many components: a practice exercise and locator test; four levels (**Easy, Medium, Difficult, and Advanced**); a survey test and complete battery for all four levels, covering areas of vocabulary, comprehension, mathematics computation, mathematics concepts and applications, language mechanics, language expression, and spelling (complete battery only); two different forms (five and six) for each complete battery; three types of answer sheets; an answer key for the locator test and complete battery; an individual diagnostic profile; a Norms Book for the conversion of test scores into corresponding grade levels; and an examiner's manual. With so many components, it is easy to understand why some would become apprehensive about using the TABE. As a result, tutors are advised to observe whatever guidelines their particular agency has devised regarding the usage and applications of this test. Nevertheless, some tutors may not have the luxury of any guidelines to follow.

Components

The first component consists of a practice exercise and a locator test. The practice exercise is designed for students who have never before taken a test, and the locator test determines what level of test is appropriate for each student. The majority of LNGC provider agencies, however, dispense with this first component because of its redundancy. Many adult students have a fear of taking tests. Therefore, it is wise to limit the number of tests that

students take during a short period of time. Test results ought to indicate an appropriate instructional level, not an additional test. For this reason, tutors may feel free to dispense with this first component.

The next component consists of four levels of tests. Each TABE level approximates an overlapping range of school grade levels, so that:

TABE LEVEL	≈	GRADE LEVELS
E (Easy)	≈	2.6 - 4.9
M (Medium)	≈	4.6 - 6.9
D (Difficult)	≈	6.6 - 8.9
A (Advanced)	≈	8.6 - 12.9

If tutors already know their students' approximate grade levels (i.e., a particular student went through another instructional program that used grade levels), then they could give those students an appropriate TABE test for verification, if desired. Otherwise, tutors might be better off using the level M test. More on this will be discussed later.

The third component comprises two tests for each level: the survey test and the complete battery, which also has two forms. The differences between these two tests will be discussed in the next section.

Fourth, the TABE uses three kinds of answer sheets: SCOREZE, hand-scorable, and machine-scannable. All three kinds of answer sheets are pre-printed with open circles for each multiple choice answer, so that students answer a question by filling in the circles with a pencil. SCOREZE answer sheets comprise two sheets (one each for forms five and six) with a piece of carbon paper between them, and the sheets generate one summary of testing results. The test results can be determined very quickly because the answers are printed inside the sealed sheets, and no answer key is needed. Conversely, hand-scorable answer sheets are single sheets that require an answer key to determine testing results. Finally, machine-scannable answer sheets require

either table-top scanners or the TABE microcomputer scoring system to determine testing results.

The fifth component is the answer key which contains the answers for all of the tests. The next component is the individual diagnostic profile which assists tutors in converting raw test scores into corresponding grade levels. If such additional information is needed, the profile also assists tutors in converting raw test scores into stanines or percentile ranks. The profile also contains an objectives mastery summary. This summary lays out the skills tested into categories for simple reference and briefly gives an indication of whether students have mastered a particular skill or need more instruction.

The final component is the Norms Book, which contains pages of charts for the conversion of raw test scores into corresponding grade levels, stanines, or percentile ranks.

Survey Test vs The Complete Battery

As has been stated, the TABE consists of two tests for each level: the survey test and the complete battery. Both tests cover six areas: vocabulary, comprehension, mathematics computation, mathematics concepts and applications, language mechanics, and language expression. The difference between the two tests lies in the depth of the coverage of skills; the complete battery includes a separate test on spelling as well. The survey test comprises ninety questions, and takes between one and a half to two hours to complete. The complete battery, on the other hand, comprises two hundred sixty-three questions and takes between three and a half to four hours to complete. Most LNGC provider agencies dispense with the survey test because the complete battery is more accurate and more thorough. Nevertheless, tutors may want to keep the survey test in mind because it takes less time. It cannot be overstated that many **adult students have a fear of taking tests**, and the idea

of facing a test that requires four hours to complete might turn them away. In this case, the survey test would better suit their needs until they get used to tests. Then, at a later time, they could take the complete battery in order to get more accurate results.

Each complete battery consists of two forms, which are labelled five and six respectively. Some LNGC provider agencies may be using older versions of the TABE, in which case the two forms would be labelled three and four. However, these provider agencies have plans to change over to the newer forms in the near future. In any event, the differences in the two forms include both a reordering of the same questions and a rewrite of certain questions. Both forms still test the same skills. Having two forms serves two functions: to prevent cheating among a group of students taking the same test, or to use one as a pre-test and the other as a progress test.

Level M

Which test level should be used? If tutors know a particular student's approximate grade level, then they may use the chart on the previous page to determine which level of the TABE is appropriate (if additional testing is desired). Otherwise, tutors might be better off using the level M test. The range of difficulty begins with Easy and progresses to Advanced. In addition, each test is biased to place students at higher grade levels than a test that is lower in the spectrum. For example, students who make the same number of errors on both level D and level M will score at a higher grade level on the level D test than on the level M test. For this reason, most LNGC provider agencies exclusively use level M as a student pre-test, reasoning that it is better to start adult students at a lower grade level where they can experience more success. Maintaining students' interest is crucial, so providing opportunities for continual success is one means of retaining students.

Interpretation of Test Results

Tutors should exercise great caution when interpreting test results of the TABE. As has been mentioned, the TABE attempts to match students with approximate school grade levels. Converting raw test scores into grade levels is truly a difficult task. The Norms Book contains an abundance of charts and tables which tutors use for this process. First, tutors use the charts and tables to convert raw scores into scale scores. From there, tutors can find the grade equivalent for that test. Second, the first six tests are grouped into pairs: vocabulary and comprehension constitute total reading; mathematics computation and mathematics concepts and applications constitute total mathematics; and language mechanics and language expression constitute total language. The spelling test is dealt with separately, and has its own score, which is NOT figured into any other score. Tutors average the scale scores to find the scale score for that pair of tests. For instance, to find the scale score for total language, tutors average the scale scores for language mechanics and language expression. Tutors then convert those scale scores into equivalent grade levels for the particular pair of tests. Third, tutors average the scale scores for all three pairs of tests (total reading, total mathematics, and total language) to find the scale score for the total battery. Finally, tutors convert this final scale score to find the equivalent grade level for the complete battery.

Matching adult students to children's grade levels can create problems because there is no consensus as to what constitutes a grade level for adults. Many instructional approaches and most provider agencies of the LNGC employ their own distinct classification of grade levels. Rarely do any two classifications agree. Therefore, tutors are warned to abide by whatever classification their particular agency uses. Nonetheless, some tutors may not

have any established guidelines to follow and, consequently, have additional work on their hands. The best solution is for tutors to select sample readings from the particular instructional approach they are using. Each sample reading (or group of sample readings) should represent a different level of the particular instructional approach. Tutors will have to guess which level matches the grade levels of the TABE. Next, students read aloud whatever sample their tutors have chosen. If students can read this sample with relative ease, then a higher level is more appropriate. Conversely, if students struggle too much with the reading, then a lower level is appropriate. As tutors gain experience in doing this, they should have greater success in selecting appropriate instructional levels for their students.

Advantages and Disadvantages

The TABE's most prominent characteristic is that it can be used for all levels of instruction. All students -- from beginning readers to GED candidates -- can take this test. Another advantage is that the TABE covers both skills of decoding and comprehension, although decoding skills are covered more thoroughly. Other advantages include two forms of the complete battery, a testing of mathematics skills, and statistics for administrative purposes.

The principal disadvantage is the difficulty in both determining and applying test results. Beginning tutors may have to spend extra time getting used to this process. Until they gain experience, tutors may feel lost among all the charts and tables for converting raw test scores into grade levels. Once discovered, moreover, the grade levels remain ambiguous for practical purposes. Steps in remedying this situation have already been discussed (see page five). Another drawback is that the TABE does little justice to its coverage of comprehension. This testing section is comparatively small and barely scratches the surface of comprehension skills. Other drawbacks include

an overabundance of test components, creating too much confusion; a large amount of time necessary to complete the test, amplifying the possibility for test burnout; and a disregard of oral reading and listening comprehension. As will be shown later, listening comprehension levels are frequently higher than reading comprehension levels which, in turn, are higher than oral reading levels.

CRITERION-REFERENCED TESTS

SYNOPSIS OF CRITERION-REFERENCED TESTS

Criterion-referenced tests, sometimes called diagnostic or prescriptive tests, are the second general approach to assessing students. Their principal advantage is that they disregard the results of other students and measure reading ability strictly according to how well a student has comprehended the skills being tested. In advance, test designers prescribe the minimum number of correct answers at which students are considered competent. This minimum number of correct answers is called the criterion score. Accordingly, if students correctly respond higher than the criterion score, then they are satisfactory in the skills being tested. Otherwise, they probably need more instruction in those particular skills.

The principal disadvantage of criterion-referenced tests is their subjectivity. Students' test scores may differ from their true ability with reading skills. It is difficult to determine how much of a reading skill that students need to know in order to continue to the next level of instruction. So, designers of criterion-referenced tests arbitrarily decide the criterion score for a particular reading skill, but they base that criterion on past experience. Students whose test scores are barely above a particular criterion score are not necessarily competent in that reading skill. Other students, conversely, whose test skills are barely below a criterion score are not necessarily incompetent in that skill. Hence, the closer that students approach a criterion score, the more alert their tutors should become. Tutors should verify such test results. In this manual, two types of criterion-referenced tests will be discussed: the cloze procedure and the Reading Evaluation Adult Diagnosis (READ) by the Literacy Volunteers of America, Inc.

CLOZE PROCEDURE

A cloze test is a text sample with a regular pattern of missing words which the students must supply. With the exception of minor spelling errors, tutors should hold firm to counting only the exact word as a correct response. Synonyms are to be counted as incorrect responses. Otherwise, tutors create superfluous problems for themselves when grading the test. [Research studies have proven that cloze test scores are not greatly affected by counting synonyms as correct responses (Miller and McKenna, pg. 323).] Scores are determined by the percentage of words to which students correctly respond. These scores then reveal how readable the particular text used in the cloze procedure is for the student: the text is too easy (independent level), the text is too difficult (frustration level), or the text's readability level is just right for the student (instructional level). Tutors must carefully explain that low scores are to be expected. The objective is not to attain a high score but rather to determine the student's readability level. In this sense, cloze tests can be used for one of two functions: to measure progressively a student's reading comprehension ability or to determine a student's instructional level for placement within a literacy program.

There is no standard for determining what percentages of correctly responded words constitute each readability level. However, there is a general pattern. Usually, a score less than thirty-five or forty percent constitutes the frustration level. A score falling in the range of thirty-five to sixty percent makes up the instructional level. Finally, a score equal to or greater than fifty-five or sixty percent makes up the independent level. The pattern of missing words (cloze items) depends on the primary objective of the cloze test itself: the testing of overall reading comprehension, or the testing of specific types of words and their effect on comprehension (e.g., verb

conjugations, specific sight words, prepositions). The general format for all of these objectives is the same. Tutors are free to adapt the cloze procedure according to their own needs, but they should keep in mind the following steps (Miller and McKenna, pg. 321; Page and Pinnell, pp. 98-99):

1. The passage used in the cloze test should not be the beginning of a major section or chapter. Passages should be largely typical of the text from which they are drawn.
2. Check to see that the passage can be understood without referring to the text directly before it.
3. The passage should be relatively free of foreign words; formulas and equations; and lists of names, numbers, and mathematical symbols.
4. Leave intact a sentence at the beginning and end of the passage. This is purely customary, but ignoring this step will not affect the discriminating power of the cloze test.
5. Leave punctuation intact, except for apostrophes which are attached to cloze items. Tutors should omit such apostrophes from the test but expect students to supply them in the answers.
6. Blanks for cloze items should be of equal length.
7. Tutors should omit a minimum of fifty words for good reliability and for ease in converting scores into percentages.
8. The object is to supply the word actually deleted and not a synonym.

Inferential Comprehension

This kind of cloze test is used to measure students' reading comprehension ability at a given time. There are two types of inferential comprehension cloze tests. The first type is the most commonly used: here, tutors omit any one word in the first sentence from which cloze items are drawn and thenceforth omit every fifth word. Tutors are open to change the frequency of cloze items, such as every tenth word instead of every fifth word, but extensive research on alternative formats have not proven any significant change in determining students' instructional levels (see Miller and McKenna, pg. 416). In addition, there is no consensus on where to begin the omission of words. Some maintain

that cloze items are independent of antecedent material, and that the location of the first cloze item is irrelevant (Miller and McKenna, pg. 321); others maintain that the initial cloze item should be any one of the first five words, except for one that is crucial to that particular sentence's meaning (Page and Pinnell, pg. 98). Obviously, tutors decide on this matter when designing the test. Consider the following example text, whose author has designated it at approximately the fourth grade reading level:

The person who has learned to accept himself normally stands in a relaxed way. He does not ___1___ to force his slouched ___2___ back because he doesn't ___3___ slouched shoulders. The person ___4___ has learned to accept ___5___ normally dresses in clothes ___6___ he can afford to ___7___ and take care of. ___8___ does not feel he ___9___ to spend all his ___10___ on fancy clothes because ___11___ has so much to ___12___ others that he does ___13___ need a high-priced suit ___14___ dress in order to ___15___ good. The person who ___16___ learned to accept himself ___17___ not get angry every ___18___ he doesn't get what ___19___ wants. Because he accepts ___20___, he doesn't demand that ___21___ else treat him like ___22___ king. He doesn't think ___23___ else is out to ___24___ him either. The person ___25___ accepts himself can accept ___26___ people. Therefore, this person ___27___ not often feel really ___28___ or upset.

What does ___29___ mean to accept yourself? ___30___ have often heard people ___31___, "Okay, I admit I'm ___32___ way, but that's just ___33___ way I am." People ___34___ make statements like this ___35___ think they are accepting ___36___ as they are, but ___37___ just kidding themselves. When ___38___ really accept yourself, you ___39___ judge yourself. Also, you ___40___ give up. The person ___41___ truly

accepts himself says ___42___ like this: "I am ___43___, and whatever I am, ___44___ accept me as me. ___45___, how can I take ___46___ I am so I ___47___ have good health, good ___48___, and greater happiness?" The ___49___ who can truly accept ___50___ lives each minute of ___51___ day with hope in ___52___ heart and the strong ___53___ in his mind that ___54___ life will continue to ___55___ for the better. Do not think that changing for the better is a straight, painless line.

(Murphy, pp. 66-67)

The answers to this passage are as follows:

- | | | | |
|---------------|---------------|---------------|-----------------|
| 1. have | 2. shoulders | 3. have | 4. who |
| 5. himself | 6. that | 7. buy | 8. He |
| 9. has | 10. wages | 11. he | 12. offer |
| 13. not | 14. or | 15. feel | 16. has |
| 17. does | 18. time | 19. he | 20. himself |
| 21. everybody | 22. a | 23. everybody | 24. get |
| 25. who | 26. other | 27. does | 28. angry |
| 29. it | 30. You | 31. say | 32. that |
| 33. the | 34. who | 35. often | 36. themselves |
| 37. they're | 38. you | 39. don't | 40. don't |
| 41. who | 42. something | 43. I | 44. I |
| 45. Now | 46. what | 47. can | 48. friendships |
| 49. person | 50. himself | 51. his | 52. his |
| 53. belief | 54. his | 55. change | |

First, this example is not the beginning of the story; it is largely typical of the text from which it was obtained; and it can be understood without alluding to the text directly before it. This passage is also free of foreign words; formulas and equations; and lists of names, numbers, and mathematical symbols for ease in comprehension. Coincidentally, note the significance of leaving the last sentence intact. The phrase in the last sentence "changing for the better" might induce students to respond correctly "change" for the last cloze item. More on this will be discussed later under forward text clues. Next, all punctuation was left intact, except for apostrophes which were attached to cloze items, but this included three contractions among the cloze items (e.g., no. 37, "they're"; and nos. 39 and 40, "don't"). For cloze item number thirty-seven, students ought to recognize that the subject pronoun "they" is needed and also discern that a contraction is needed because both the subject and verb are missing. Hence, the correct answer "they're." Cloze items thirty-nine and forty might be more difficult to answer. For these two, it is not absolutely clear that a negative helping verb is needed, but the quote which is written two sentences later might provide the necessary context clues. Even if these two cloze items are too difficult for the student taking the test, remember that cloze tests frequently result in low scores: the objective is to determine the student's instructional level based on the percentage of cloze items correctly answered (between thirty-five and sixty percent). If students receive a high score on a particular cloze test, then the level of the text used in that test is probably too easy, and the student is ready to continue to the next level. Finally, the blanks for cloze items were of equal length, and there were at least fifty cloze items taken from the text. If the blanks for the cloze items were not of equal length, then students would find it too easy to respond. The aim is to test students'

comprehension skills, not their ability to count letters.

In the second type of inferential comprehension cloze test, tutors omit specific words instead of a pattern of every fifth word. For instance, cloze items might include words which are important in the text or words which give students the occasion to employ forward and backward text clues. Forward text clues succeed a particular cloze item so that students have to search ahead in the text to determine the correct response. Conversely, backward text clues are those that precede a particular cloze item. Take the following example:

It had been raining for a long time, and the road was very slippery.
The car _____ out of control and crashed through the railing on the
_____. The boat was halfway under the bridge and missed being hit.
(Carr, Dewitz, and Patberg, 1983, p. 382 -- cited in Maria, 1990.)

For the first cloze item, students might correctly respond "skidded" if they were to regard the backward text clue "...the road was very slippery...." Likewise, the forward text clue "...under the bridge..." might induce students to answer "bridge" for the second cloze item. This particular example does not comprise an entire cloze test. The first and last sentences were left intact so as to provide clear forward and backward text clues for the cloze items. Tutors are free to include cloze items in the other two sentences as well, so long as an omitted word is not crucial to the sentence's meaning (i.e., the word "bridge" in the last sentence ought to be left intact).

Cloze Inventory

A cloze inventory is a sequence of progressively difficult cloze tests. Each cloze test represents one of three goals: a specific grade level, an individual basal reader, or any predetermined level of some instructional approach. The aim of the cloze inventory itself is to determine what grade level or basal reader matches each student's instructional level. For example, a cloze test for Laubach Skill Book 4 might be designed around a passage from the accompanying reader People and Places. Similar cloze tests would be

designed around other passages which approximate designated levels of difficulty. When designing the individual tests for the cloze inventory, one may use either type of inferential comprehension cloze test, although the first type (i.e., the omission of every fifth word) would certainly be easier to construct.

When administering the cloze inventory, estimate the students' instructional level and give them an appropriate cloze test for that level. On the first attempt, if a cloze test corresponds to the instructional level, then it would be safe to assume that is the appropriate level. If the particular cloze test corresponds to the students' independent level, then give them a cloze test at a higher level of difficulty. Conversely, if the cloze test corresponds to the students' frustration level, then give them a cloze test at a lower level of difficulty. Continue to administer cloze tests until the instructional level is found. The amount of testing depends on the individual student and how well the tutor guesses the instructional level. Some students may need only one test, while others may need as many as four different cloze tests. In order not to overburden a student with test-taking, one should allow a lapse of time between tests. Many students will be able to manage two tests in a row, but three tests in a row is too much. Depending on the length of time that tutors meet with their students, perhaps an hour or half an hour would be a sufficient lapse. Otherwise, one may wait until the next tutoring session before taking another cloze test.

Multiple Choice Cloze Tests

To make test-taking easier for students at reading levels, tutors may provide a selection of answers for cloze items. The format of the individual cloze test would remain the same, except for the inclusion of multiple choice

responses. Reconsider the previously used example:

It had been raining for a long time, and the road was very slippery.
The car _____ out of control and crashed through the railing on the
_____. The boat was halfway under the bridge and missed being hit.

For the first cloze item, tutors might supply the following choices: parked, skidded, swam, and floated; or these choices: skid, skidded, and skids. Note that in the former selection the emphasis is on the correct verb itself, whereas in the latter selection, the emphasis is only on the verb tense and conjugation. For the second cloze item, tutors might supply the following choices: curb, boat, staircase, and bridge. In all of these instances, the main focus is still on the skill of comprehending through context clues.

Advantage and Disadvantages

The principal advantage of the cloze inventory is its simplicity of construction. Any text from any predetermined level of instruction can be adapted to the cloze procedure. As such, no additional materials are needed. The only cost is the time in constructing the test -- usually a half hour or forty-five minutes per test. Other advantages include ease of applying test results, and relief from problems created by engaging comprehension questions.

The chief drawback of the cloze procedure is that it does not directly test students' decoding abilities -- the only concern being whether students have comprehended the text. In order to obtain test results on decoding skills, tutors would have to rely on other sources. Other disadvantages include a disregard of oral reading behaviors when ascertaining instructional levels and the possibility of burnout from too much testing. Two education researchers believe that cloze tests are suitable only for low levels of comprehension (Miller and McKenna, pg. 433). However, this concern is most likely unwarranted, considering the vast wealth of cloze tests available at the college level of reading.

Conclusion

Cloze tests compel students to rely on many factors outside the skill of comprehension. In order to replace cloze items correctly, students utilize their background knowledge, linguistic knowledge, and previous experiences with different kinds of reading materials (Maria, 1990; Page and Pinnell, pg. 93). As Page and Pinnell have written, "...taking a cloze test requires skills that are not part of comprehension. Cloze performance is an indicator which can help us infer comprehension." (pg. 99) Miller and McKenna concur: "The idea that completing cloze blanks is closely related to comprehension is counterintuitive [sic]. However, a number of studies have provided strong support for cloze as a measure of comprehension." (pg. 416)

READ TEST

The Reading Evaluation Adult Diagnosis (READ) focuses on the examination of both decoding and comprehension skills. READ is both a student pre-assessment test and an evaluation of student progress, designed and published by the Literacy Volunteers of America, Inc. (LVA). This test is intended to be used in conjunction with the LVA's own instructional techniques which are summarized in a book called Techniques Used in the Teaching Of Reading (TUTOR). With intelligent use, nevertheless, this test can be adapted for almost any instructional approach. READ consists of two components: a recording pad to keep track of students' errors; and a testing book comprising student reading materials, directions for conducting the test, and applications of test results to appropriate instruction. The testing book is a small, spiral book arranged in such a way so that the tutors' directions are on one page, and the students' exercises are on the adjacent page. By flipping pages of the spiral book, students need not ever see the tutors' directions and vice-versa. As a whole, READ is divided into three parts: sight words, word analysis skills, and reading/listening inventory. In addition, there is a part four in the test book which explains the application of test results.

Sight Words

In the first part of the test, students are tested on their sight word knowledge. Sight words are ordinary words which students ought to recognize without relying on word analysis skills (phonics). For the purposes of the READ test, sight words are taken from a list of words at the end of TUTOR called "Three Hundred Most Frequently Used Words in Rank Order." An estimated sixty-five percent of all printed words comprise these three hundred words. Students are shown four different lists of ten words. Each of these lists represents one-quarter of the three hundred most commonly used words: the

first list stands for the first seventy-five most common words, the second list stands for the next seventy-five, and so on. Students read all ten words on each list aloud, and tutors record any errors that are made. If students miss three words on any list, then tutors stop testing part one (Sight Words) and continue to part two (Word Analysis Skills). Applying test results for part one (Sight Words) is relatively simple. If, for example, a student misses three words on the third list, the tutor should begin instruction with the one hundred fifty-first word (on the sight word list in TUTOR) and then teach the rest of the words (on the same list). In addition, students will learn these words more usefully if the words are taught in context. Otherwise, the fact that students can remember a word in a series of flash cards has little bearing on whether they can identify that same word in a sentence.

Word Analysis Skills

In the second part of the READ test, students are tested on their word analysis skills. These skills comprise a person's ability to decode new words by identifying particular letter combinations -- similar to phonics skills. Not all students, however, have the ability to learn phonics skills per se. In this case, tutors may find it easier to teach examples of each word analysis skill as sight words. Thus, students will still learn the skills through patterns of words, albeit at a slower rate than learning the skills themselves. Because the READ test evaluates these skills by presenting a list of words to be read aloud, this test should be suitable for such students. Part two is subdivided into eleven sections, with each section progressing in level of difficulty.

Section A examines the student's ability to blend letters and rhyme words. Tutors read aloud a nonsense word, nolo. Students then move down a list of letters, substituting each letter for n in nolo: for example, solo, folo,

molo, etc.. If and only if students are unable to complete this exercise, they read a list of letters to see if they can associate written letters with corresponding vocalized names. Section B tests students to see if they read from left to right. Students read aloud a list of words, all of which are randomly repeated in reverse order: for example, lap, was, pal, tar, rat, and saw. However, if students can correctly read the first five words on the list, then they need not complete this section.

Sections C - F examine certain foundations for the correspondence of written words to their vocalized sounds. If students can correctly read aloud the first five words of a section, then they move to the next section. However, if students make at least three errors in any of these sections, then they immediately move to section G. Tutors still move to section G even if the errors occur in section C. First, students are tested on their ability to read three-letter words in section C. These are simple words that are arranged in a consonant-vowel-consonant pattern, such as fed, kid, mud, yam, and others. On the recording pad, section C is arranged so that all words with the same vowel are grouped together. In this manner, tutors can later glance at the pad to see which consonant and vowel sounds may need further instruction. Next, in section D, students are tested on four-letter words that are arranged in a consonant-vowel-consonant-consonant pattern, such as cuff, dock, jazz, yell, and others. Students who have difficulty with section D will need instruction in word patterns. A lengthy list of word patterns is included at the end of TUTOR. Finally, in sections E and F, students are tested on digraphs -- two distinct letters which together produce a single sound, such as bl- (blab), ch- (rich), gr- (grid), sh- (bash), th- (thus), and others. Errors in these sections will reveal any sounds with which students need further training.

In section G, students are asked to read aloud a very short story. Even

though they may have had difficulty in previous sections, students should still be given the opportunity to complete this exercise. The same option applies to part three (reading/listening inventory) as well. Each paragraph in this story contains a grouping of target words to see if students can understand words in context -- an important goal of reading. The groupings of target words are based on six types of variant vowel sounds: R-controlled vowels (heart & world), L-controlled vowels (cold & stall), W-controlled vowels (awkward & crew), Y-controlled vowels (fraying & enjoyed), vowel digraphs (took, mountain, & poured), and vowel-plus-E (Smokies & lies). Note how the inclusion of the consonants R, L, Y, and W change the pronunciation of vowels (e.g., cod & cold; heat & heart; bow, boy, bore, & owl.) If students struggle too much with this story, then tutors stop testing part two and continue to part three.

Otherwise, tutors continue with sections H -K. Students who have done well on part two thus far should need minimal instruction with basic word analysis or phonics skills. At this point, they will probably need more attention focused on context clues and comprehension.

Part two is almost completed. Sections H - K examine the remaining word analysis skills: suffixes, soft C & G sounds (celery & dance; ginger & village), silent letters, and multisyllabic words (information & satisfaction). Students who score at least three errors in a given section will need more instruction in that particular skill. Notwithstanding any errors in these last sections, tutors should continue to administer the remainder of the test.

Reading / Listening Inventory

In the third part of the READ test, students are tested on their ability to comprehend a text. This part of the test comprises a sequence of stories which advance in difficulty from level B (lowest) to level J (highest). The objective now is to discern which comprehension level matches each student's

instructional level for three distinct comprehension skills: word recognition, reading comprehension, and listening comprehension. First, tutors estimate which comprehension level approximates the students' level of reading ability (if in doubt, tutors could simply start with level B). Unless they demonstrate a total lack of reading ability, **ALL** students are to be given the opportunity to attempt part three of this test. Most students will surprise tutors with their reading ability, even though they may demonstrate some difficulties with word analysis skills. Completely illiterate students, however, should still be tested for listening comprehension using the same tests in part three. Second, students read the story aloud, while tutors record any omissions, substitutions, self-corrections, or insertions of words as errors. Words from the story with which students struggle and tutors subsequently pronounce are also counted as errors. Each level contains a prescribed, maximum number of errors, which, depending on the comprehension level, ranges from two to six (see chart below). If the number of students' errors matches the prescribed maximum, then that particular level is their instructional level for word recognition. If the number of errors is below the maximum, then the students' instructional levels will be higher. Testing continues until the appropriate instructional level is found -- that is, the highest comprehension level at which the number of errors does not exceed the maximum number prescribed.

Next, for each level tested, tutors ask a series of five comprehension questions to discern whether students understand the story. This exercise determines the students' instructional level for reading comprehension. After students read the story, tutors remove the test booklet from sight, so as to test students' comprehension from memory. The prescribed, maximum number of errors for all levels is one question. As before, the appropriate instructional level is the highest level at which the sum total of errors does

not exceed the maximum number prescribed. Finally, when the reading comprehension level is found, testing continues to the next level to discern the instructional level for listening comprehension. At this point, tutors read the story aloud, and students listen. Tutors then read aloud the comprehension questions to determine whether students understand the story that is read to them. The method for finding the proper instructional level for listening comprehension is the same as finding the instructional level for word recognition and reading comprehension.

Students who do not meet the requirements for level B are scored at level A. These particular students have almost no reading ability and will need considerable reading instruction. On the other hand, students who are successful at level J are scored at level J+. This indicates that part three of READ is too easy for them. Because these students have an advanced comprehension ability, a cloze inventory may be more suitable for their testing needs. As a rule, listening comprehension is higher than reading comprehension, which is higher than word recognition.

Application of Test Results for Part Three of <u>READ</u>								
WORD RECOGNITION ERRORS	»	WORD RECOGNITION LEVEL	»	APPROXIMATE GRADE LEVEL	«	READ/LISTEN COMPREHENSION LEVEL	«	READ/LISTEN COMPREHENSION ERRORS
-	=	A	≈	Non-reader	≈	A	=	-
2	=	B	≈	≤ 1.5	≈	B	=	1
2	=	C	≈	1.6 to 2.0	≈	C	=	1
3	=	D	≈	2.1 to 2.5	≈	D	=	1
3	=	E	≈	2.6 to 3.0	≈	E	=	1
3	=	F	≈	3.1 to 3.5	≈	F	=	1
3	=	G	≈	3.6 to 4.0	≈	G	=	1
4	=	H	≈	4.1 to 4.5	≈	H	=	1
5	=	I	≈	4.6 to 5.0	≈	I	=	1
6	=	J	≈	5.1 to 5.5	≈	J	=	1
-	=	J+	≈	≥ 5.6	≈	J+	=	-

Adaptation for Other Instructional Approaches

Those tutors that rely largely on the language experience approach need look no further than the LVA's TUTOR for assistance. With careful use, however, READ can be adapted to almost any other instructional technique. First, applying the test results from part one (Sight Words) should be self-explanatory. Second, a glance at the test results on Word Analysis Skills will reveal which phonics skills will require further instruction. Most instructional approaches contain some particular method of teaching phonics skills. Those tutors who doubt whether the testing of a particular skill is adequate should give their students some exercises to perform. How well the students complete the exercises will indicate how much they have learned the skill in question. For example, tutors who use the Laubach series and wish to discern how well students have learned the digraph th could conduct "Skill Practice 4" in lesson seven from volume three of the Laubach Way to Reading; tutors who prefer the Challenger Adult Reading Series could conduct review exercises from lesson six in volume three; tutors who use Time to Read could conduct the exercises on page four from lesson two; and so on.

Finally, tutors should exercise caution when applying test results from part three (reading/listening inventory). As shown in the chart above, each comprehension level for word recognition, reading comprehension, and listening comprehension approximates a certain grade level of schooling. Matching adult students to children's grade levels can create a dilemma. The LVA has furnished a disclaimer on this subject:

"The authors join with others in their reservations about applying school grade level designations to adults. The general knowledge and vocabulary of adults are far different from that of school-age students, and, therefore, grade level designations of adult reading seem inappropriate in describing the range of competencies which are

displayed. We would prefer that users of READ would regard the paragraphs in the Reading Inventory as a series that escalates in reading difficulty and which can be used as a measure of progress, broadly speaking. We are fully aware of the parts which interest and experience play in readability. A student who is especially knowledgeable about a subject can score much better when reading within that content than would be possible when reading in less familiar material written at the same readability level. We know of no way to avoid this problem. We therefore caution users to regard the results of the Reading Inventory as tentative." (excerpt from READ, pg. 46)

There is no consensus as to what designates a grade level for adults. Many instructional approaches and most provider agencies of the LNCG have their own distinct classification of grade levels. Seldom do any two classifications agree. Therefore, tutors are advised to observe whatever classification their particular agency uses.

Nevertheless, some tutors may not have an established guideline to follow. Tutors that rely on instructional approaches that are already subdivided into grade levels, such as certain basal readers, may find READ easier to adapt to their needs. For example, tutors, whose students score at level E (grades 2.6 -3.0) on the reading inventory, might be tempted to begin instruction in book two of Challenger. As with word analysis skills, tutors should give the students a sample reading from the book. If students complete the sample reading with ease, then book three might be more suitable. Conversely, if students complete the sample reading with too much difficulty or do not complete the reading at all, then book one might be more appropriate. Otherwise, the choice of book two is probably correct. Users of the Time to Read program also have a relatively easy task. Because Time to Read emphasizes

comprehension throughout its program, the solution is simply to begin at a lesson that covers a particular phonics skill in which the student needs further instruction.

Many instructional approaches, however, are not subdivided into grade levels. This is commendable because the designers have shown that the discernment of students' reading skills is more meaningful to them than the arbitrary assignment of grade levels. On the other hand, the same designers leave users of the READ test out in the cold. Such tutors have extra work on their hands. In these circumstances, the only solution is for tutors to guess at where to begin instruction. As they familiarize themselves with the readings in their instructional approaches, tutors can generally match samples of readings to the individual readings in the reading inventory. How well the students read the samples determines if it is at an appropriate instructional level.

Advantages and Disadvantages

The READ test contains several predominate advantages. First, READ is a quick test requiring only two components and far less time than the TABE or the cloze inventory. Furthermore, there is only one test to consider during administration, removing any doubt of test selection. The second advantage is that READ covers both skills of decoding and comprehension. Next, it is relatively simple to determine test results. Fourth, the test booklet contains a section that abundantly describes how to apply the test results for decoding skills. Finally, this test measures three types of comprehension skills: word recognition, reading comprehension, and listening comprehension. This variety is useful as it generally indicates at which levels students can read independently, with some difficulty (instructional level), and with too much frustration.

The primary handicap of the READ test is the difficulty in applying test results for comprehension skills. For advice in applying grade levels for adults, tutors should refer to page sixteen of this manual. In addition, the reading/listening inventory is suitable only for lower levels of comprehension. Tutors of more advanced students (i.e., beyond the 5.5 grade level) will have to rely on other measures of comprehension, such as the cloze inventory. Finally, even though it skillfully covers both reading skills of decoding and comprehension, the READ test does not do so as thoroughly as the TABE (for decoding skills) or the cloze procedure (for comprehension skills).

SELECTING PROPER INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS
FOR IDENTIFIED STUDENT DEFICIENCIES

Once the assessment of students has taken place, tutors need to know where to begin instruction. Sometimes tutors may want to explore other materials that focus more detail on certain reading skills. Furthermore, they may not have time to research all available materials. This section of the manual attempts to remedy such situations. Most instructional materials used by LNGC provider member agencies have been researched. Skills taught in these materials have been organized according to the following outline.

OUTLINE OF DIRECTING STUDENT DEFICIENCIES
TO APPROPRIATE INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

An asterisk (*) indicates skills not directly tested by the tests discussed in this manual.

1. SIGHT WORDS

2. WORD ANALYSIS SKILLS

- A. Letter Names and Consonant Sounds
- * B. Alphabetizing
- C. Consonant Blends and Digraphs
- D. Short Vowel Sounds
- E. Long Vowel Sounds
- F. Vowel Sounds with "y"
- G. Vowel Combinations
 - 1. R-controlled vowels
 - 2. L-controlled vowels
 - 3. W-controlled vowels
 - 4. Y-controlled vowels
 - 5. Vowel digraphs and vowel+"E"
- * H. Word Families and Rhyming
- I. Hard and Soft "C" and "G"
- J. Silent Letters (Vowels and Consonants)
- K. Syllabication
- L. Forming Contractions
- M. Forming Plurals
- N. Compound Words
- O. Forming Possessives
- * P. Hyphenated Words

3. VOCABULARY DEVELOPMENT

- * A. Number Words
- * B. Time, Dates, and Seasons
- * C. Prices and Quantities
- * D. Human Body and Senses
- * E. Abbreviations
- * F. Jobs and Occupations
- G. Synonyms
- H. Antonyms (Opposites)

- I. Homonyms (Words that sound the same)
 - J. Suffixes and Endings (for nouns only)
 - K. Prefixes
 - L. Word Associations (choosing unrelated words)
 - M. Word Analogies
 - N. Defining Words in Context
 - * O. Using a Dictionary
 - * P. Idioms/Idiomatic Expressions
4. SENTENCE ANALYSIS
- A. Capitalization
 - B. Punctuation Usage
 - 1. Period
 - 2. Question mark and exclamation point
 - 3. Comma
 - 4. Quotation marks
 - C. Parts of Speech
 - 1. Nouns
 - 2. Verbs
 - 3. Verbal inflectional endings (for verb tenses)
 - 4. Pronouns
 - 5. Adjectives and adverbs
 - 6. Adjectival and adverbial endings
 - 7. Prepositions (and prepositional phrases)
 - D. Sentence Parts
 - 1. Subject
 - 2. Predicate
 - 3. Simple, compound, & complex sentences
 - 4. Complete sentences
 - E. Using Standard English
5. PARAGRAPH DEVELOPMENT
- A. Combining Sentences
 - B. Topic Sentence
 - C. Sentence Sequence
6. GENERAL COMPREHENSION SKILLS
- A. Literal Level
 - B. Inferential Level
 - * C. Applied Level
7. SPECIFIC COMPREHENSION SKILLS
- A. Sequencing Events
 - B. Character Analysis
 - C. Central Thought
 - 1. Main idea and supporting details
 - 2. Author's purpose
 - 3. Viewpoints
 - 4. Tone, mood, style, or atmosphere
 - * 5. Distinguishing between fact and opinion
 - D. Interpretation
 - 1. Conclusion
 - 2. Cause and effect relationships
 - 3. Predicting outcome

- * 4. Forming reasoned opinions
- * 5. Comparing and contrasting information
- * 6. Classifying and organizing information
- * 7. Graphs, charts, and diagrams
- * 8. Maps
- F. Types of Writing
- * 1. Job applications, classifieds, and resumes
- * 2. Persuasive techniques (propaganda)
- * 3. Nonfiction (in general)
- * 4. Autobiography and biography
- * 5. Articles
- * 6. Literature (in general)
- * 7. Short story
- * 8. Drama
- * 9. Poems

ABBREVIATIONS OF INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

ASO	<u>Edge on English: All Spelled Out</u>
BSR	<u>Building Basic Skills in Reading</u>
BSW	<u>Building Basic Skills in Writing</u>
CHA	<u>Challenger Adult Reading Series</u>
GWA	<u>Edge on English: Grammar Write Away</u>
LAU	<u>Laubach Way to Reading</u>
LVA	<u>Techniques Used in the Teaching Of Reading (TUTOR)</u>
NBR	<u>New Beginnings in Reading</u>
RTD	<u>Reading for Today</u>
RTM	<u>Reading for Tomorrow</u>
RTR	<u>Ready to Read</u>
TTR	<u>Time/Warner: Time to Read</u>

1. SIGHT WORDS

At the end of TUTOR (LVA), there are nine different lists of sight words. The most useful one is called "Three hundred most frequently used words in rank order." These three hundred words comprise over sixty-five percent of Americans' speaking vocabulary, and they are also used in section one of the READ test. Because many of these words do not follow normal rules of phonics, students should learn them as sight words. Another good source of sight words is the New Oxford Picture Dictionary, which is often used in conjunction with the Laubach series. Finally, almost all textbooks contain lists of sight words used in those particular texts.

2. WORD ANALYSIS SKILLS

A. Letter Names and Consonant Sounds

- ASO, book A, chapter 1-2
- book B, chapter 1, 5
- book D, chapter 1
- CHA, book 1, chapter 1-5, 8
- book 2, chapter 12
- LAU, book 1, throughout
- book 2, throughout
- LVA, chapter 5
- NBR, groundbreaker exercises, throughout
- RTD, book 1, throughout
- RTR, chapter 3, 14
- TTR, chapter 1

B. Alphabetizing

- ASO, book A, chapter 1-2
- book B, chapter 1
- LAU, book 1, chapter 10-11
- book 3, chapter 20-24
- book 4, chapter 5, 7, 21
- LVA, chapter 5
- RTM, book 1, chapter 1
- RTR, chapter 13

C. Consonant Blends and Digraphs

- ASO, book A, chapter 2
- book B, chapter 4
- book D, chapter 1
- CHA, book 1, chapter 6-7, 10, 15-20
- book 2, chapter 12, 18
- book 3, chapter 2-7, 14
- book 5, chapter 2-7, 19
- book 7, chapter 2-7, 16
- LAU, book 1, chapter 5, 8-10
- book 2, chapter 1-3, 5-11, 13-15
- book 3, chapter 1-5, 7, 11-13, 18-20
- book 4, chapter 3-5, 13, 17-19
- LVA, chapter 5
- NBR, book 1, chapter 1
- book 3, chapter 4
- book 7, throughout
- book 8, throughout
- RTD, book 4, chapter 1-3
- RTR, chapter 21, 24
- TTR, chapter 1-2

<u>ABBREVIATIONS</u>	
ASO	Edge on English, All Spelled Out
BSR	Building Basic Skills in Reading
BSW	Building Basic Skills in Writing
CHA	Challenger Adult Reading Series
GWA	Edge on English, Grammar Write Away
LAU	Laubach Series
LVA	TUTOR
NBR	New Beginnings in Reading
RTD	Reading for Today
RTM	Reading for Tomorrow
RTR	Ready to Read
TTR	Time to Read

D. Short Vowel Sounds

ASO, book A, chapter 1-3
book B, chapter 1
book C, chapter 1
book D, chapter 2
BSW, book 2, chapter 5
CHA, book 1, chapter 1-6, 8
book 2, chapter 5-6, 9, 11, 20
book 3, chapter 1
book 7, chapter 1
LAU, book 1, chapter 4-11
book 2, throughout
LVA, chapter 5
NBR, book 1, throughout
book 2, throughout
book 3, throughout
book 4, throughout
book 5, throughout
RTD, book 2, throughout
book 3, throughout
RTR, chapter 18
TTR, chapter 6

ABBREVIATIONS	
ASO	Edge on English, All Spelled Out
BSR	Building Basic Skills in Reading
BSW	Building Basic Skills in Writing
CHA	Challenger Adult Reading Series
GWA	Edge on English, Grammar Write Away
LAU	Laubach Series
LVA	TUTOR
NBR	New Beginnings in Reading
RTD	Reading for Today
RTM	Reading for Tomorrow
RTR	Ready to Read
TTR	Time to Read

E. Long Vowel Sounds

ASO, book B, chapter 2-3
book C, chapter 1
book D, chapter 2
BSW, book 2, chapter 5
CHA, book 1, chapter 1-5, 8
book 2, chapter 5-6, 9, 11, 20
book 3, chapter 1
book 7, chapter 1
LAU, book 3, chapter 1-2, 6-7, 10-11, 14-16, 21-22, 24
book 4, chapter 1-2, 6-7, 11, 16
LVA, chapter 5
NBR, book 6, throughout
RTD, book 3, throughout
book 5, 1-2
RTR, chapter 7, 14
TTR, chapter 6

F. Vowel Sounds with "Y"

CHA, book 1, chapter 9
book 7, chapter 15
LAU, book 2, chapter 3
book 3, chapter 13
LVA, chapter 5
RTD, book 4, chapter 1, 7
TTR, chapter 6

G. Vowel Combinations

1. R-controlled vowels

- ASO, book A, chapter 4
book D, chapter 2
- CHA, book 1, chapter 11, 13
book 2, chapter 13
book 3, chapter 11, 15
book 5, chapter 10
book 7, chapter 10-11
- LAU, book 2, chapter 11-13
book 3, chapter 1, 4, 12, 20
- LVA, chapter 5
- RTD, book 4, chapter 7
book 5, chapter 7

2. L-controlled vowels

- ASO, book D, chapter 2, 3
- CHA, book 1, chapter 14
book 2, chapter 9
book 3, chapter 12
book 7, chapter 4, 12
- LAU, book 3, chapter 2, 14-16, 21
book 4, chapter 13
- LVA, chapter 5
- RTD, book 3, chapter 1, 6
book 4, chapter 5
book 5, chapter 4-5

3. W-controlled vowels

- ASO, book A, chapter 4
- CHA, book 2, chapter 3, 11, 16-17
book 7, chapter 12
- LAU, book 3, chapter 19
book 4, chapter 2, 5, 9-10, 12-14, 16
- LVA, chapter 5
- RTD, book 5, chapter 3, 5-6

4. Y-controlled vowels

- ASO, book A, chapter 4
book D, chapter 2
- LAU, book 3, chapter 3-4, 9
book 4, chapter 15-16
- LVA, chapter 5
- RTD, book 3, chapter 4
book 5, chapter 1-2, 4

ABBREVIATIONS	
ASO	Edge on English, All Spelled Out
BSR	Building Basic Skills in Reading
BSW	Building Basic Skills in Writing
CHA	Challenger Adult Reading Series
GWA	Edge on English, Grammar Write Away
LAU	Laubach Series
LVA	TUTOR
NBR	New Beginnings in Reading
RTD	Reading for Today
RTM	Reading for Tomorrow
RTR	Ready to Read
TTR	Time to Read

5. Vowel digraphs and vowel+"E"

- ASO, book C, chapter 4
- BSW, book 2, chapter 5
- CHA, book 1, chapter 12
- book 2, chapter 6, 8
- book 3, chapter 8-10
- book 5, chapter 8
- book 7, chapter 8-9
- LAU, book 3, chapter 5, 8-9, 11-14, 17-18
- book 4, chapter 1-8, 11, 16
- LVA, chapter 5
- RTD, book 5, chapter 1-2, 6
- TTR, chapter 6

<u>ABBREVIATIONS</u>	
ASO	Edge on English, All Spelled Out
BSR	Building Basic Skills in Reading
BSW	Building Basic Skills in Writing
CHA	Challenger Adult Reading Series
GWA	Edge on English, Grammar Write Away
LAU	Laubach Series
LVA	TUTOR
NBR	New Beginnings in Reading
RTD	Reading for Today
RTM	Reading for Tomorrow
RTR	Ready to Read
TTR	Time to Read

H. Word Families and Rhyming

- CHA, book 2, chapter 15
- book 6, chapter 5, 7, 19
- book 7, chapter 12, 18
- book 8, chapter 13, 17
- LAU, book 2, chapter 8
- book 3, chapter 4-7, 10, 12, 17-18, 20
- LVA, chapter 5
- NBR, book 1, throughout
- book 2, throughout
- book 3, throughout
- book 4, throughout
- book 5, throughout
- book 6, throughout
- book 7, throughout
- book 8, throughout
- RTD, book 2, throughout
- book 3, throughout
- book 4, throughout
- book 5, throughout
- RTM, book 3, chapter 2
- RTR, chapter 18

I. Hard and Soft "C" and "G"

- CHA, book 3, chapter 13
- book 4, chapter 12
- book 5, chapter 11-12
- book 7, chapter 13-14
- LAU, book 4, chapter 18
- LVA, chapter 5

J. Silent Letters (Vowels and Consonants)

- ASO, book B, chapter 2, 4
- book C, chapter 4
- book D, chapter 1-2
- CHA, book 1, chapter 1-5
- book 2, chapter 1, 10
- book 4, chapter 11
- book 7, chapter 17
- LVA, chapter 5
- RTD, book 4, chapter 6
- TTR, chapter 12-13

K. Syllabication

- CHA, book 3, chapter 13-17
- book 4, chapter 1-5, 7, 14, 17
- book 5, chapter 5, 7, 10, 20
- book 7, chapter 18-19
- LAU, book 3, chapter 2-11, 16-17, 21-22
- book 4, chapter 1-2,4,6,10-11,16,18
- LVA, chapter 5
- RTD, book 4, chapter 5
- book 5, chapter 5
- RTM, book 1, chapter 6
- book 2, chapter 5
- TTR, chapter 9, 12-13, 15-20

L. Forming Contractions

- ASO, book A, chapter 2
- book C, chapter 4
- book D, chapter 3
- BSW, book 1, chapter 4
- CHA, book 6, chapter 11-12
- LAU, book 3, chapter 7, 10, 15-17, 19, 23
- LVA, chapter 5
- NBR, book 3, throughout
- RTD, book 2, chapter 3-4
- RTR, chapter 17

<u>ABBREVIATIONS</u>	
ASO	Edge on English, All Spelled Out
BSR	Building Basic Skills in Reading
BSW	Building Basic Skills in Writing
CHA	Challenger Adult Reading Series
GWA	Edge on English, Grammar Write Away
LAU	Laubach Series
LVA	TUTOR
NBR	New Beginnings in Reading
RTD	Reading for Today
RTM	Reading for Tomorrow
RTR	Ready to Read
TTR	Time to Read

M. Forming Plurals

- ASO, book A, chapter 2
- book B, chapter 4
- book C, chapter 2
- BSW, book 1, chapter 2
- CHA, book 4, chapter 8-9, 15
- book 6, chapter 1
- book 8, chapter 7
- GWA, book 1, chapter 2
- book 2, chapter 3
- LAU, book 1, chapter 7, 10, 12
- book 2, chapter 1, 5-6, 10, 14
- book 3, chapter 1
- book 4, chapter 11, 23
- LVA, chapter 5
- NBR, book 4, chapter 2
- RTD, book 1, throughout
- book 2, chapter 1
- book 3, chapter 2
- book 4, chapter 3
- book 5, chapter 7
- RTM, book 2, chapter 2
- RTR, chapter 2

<u>ABBREVIATIONS</u>	
ASO	Edge on English, All Spelled Out
BSR	Building Basic Skills in Reading
BSW	Building Basic Skills in Writing
CHA	Challenger Adult Reading Series
GWA	Edge on English, Grammar Write Away
LAU	Laubach Series
LVA	TUTOR
NBR	New Beginnings in Reading
RTD	Reading for Today
RTM	Reading for Tomorrow
RTR	Ready to Read
TTR	Time to Read

N. Compound Words

- ASO, book C, chapter 1
- BSR, book 1, chapter 3
- CHA, book 1, chapter 16
- book 2, chapter 6-8, 20
- book 3, chapter 1-8, 12, 17, 20
- book 4, chapter 6-7, 14, 16
- book 5, chapter 1, 4, 10, 13, 17, 20
- book 6, chapter 5, 8, 14
- book 8, chapter 14
- LAU, book 3, chapter 15-18, 20, 23
- book 4, chapter 1-4, 6, 8, 11, 13-17, 19-20, 22-23
- LVA, chapter 5
- NBR, book 2, chapter 1-3
- book 3, chapter 3-5
- book 4, throughout
- book 5, throughout
- book 6, throughout
- book 7, throughout
- book 8, throughout
- RTD, book 3, chapter 1
- RTR, chapter 22
- TTR, chapter 10-11

O. Forming Possessives

- ASO, book B, chapter 4
- book C, chapter 2
- book D, chapter 3
- BSW, book 1, chapter 2
- CHA, book 6, chapter 13-14, 16-19
- GWA, book 1, chapter 5
- book 2, chapter 3
- LAU, book 1, chapter 2, 8, 11-12
- book 2, chapter 1-2, 5, 10, 12
- LVA, chapter 5
- RTD, book 2, chapter 6
- book 5, chapter 4

P. Hyphenated Words

- CHA, book 7, chapter 16
- LAU, book 4, chapter 13-14,
- LVA, chapter 5

ABBREVIATIONS	
ASO	Edge on English, All Spelled Out
BSR	Building Basic Skills in Reading
BSW	Building Basic Skills in Writing
CHA	Challenger Adult Reading Series
GWA	Edge on English, Grammar Write Away
LAU	Laubach Series
LVA	TUTOR
NBR	New Beginnings in Reading
RTD	Reading for Today
RTM	Reading for Tomorrow
RTR	Ready to Read
TTR	Time to Read

3. VOCABULARY DEVELOPMENT

A. Number Words

- ASO, book B, chapter 3
- CHA, book 1, chapter 18
- book 2, chapter 3
- LAU, book 1, chapter 11-13, 20
- LVA, chapter 5
- RTD, book 1, throughout
- RTR, chapter 4

B. Time, Dates, and Seasons

- ASO, book B, chapter 4
- BSW, book 2, chapter 2
- CHA, book 2, chapter 6
- book 3, chapter 19
- book 4, chapter 3
- book 8, chapter 6
- LAU, book 3, chapter 11-15
- book 4, chapter 6, 13, 21
- LVA, chapter 5
- NBR, book 2, chapter 2
- book 3, chapter 2
- book 4, chapter 1-2
- book 8, chapter 4
- RTD, book 4, chapter 7
- RTR, chapter 12, 22

C. Prices and Quantities

- LAU, book 3, chapter 1-4, 6, 8-9
- book 4, chapter 10
- LVA, chapter 5
- NBR, book 1, chapter 4
- RTR, chapter 6, 8, 13, 15

- D. Human Body and Senses
 CHA, book 2, chapter 2
 book 4, chapter 1, 19
 LVA, chapter 5

- E. Abbreviations
 ASO, book A, chapter 1
 BSW, book 2, chapter 2
 CHA, book 6, chapter 7, 9
 LAU, book 1, chapter 8
 book 4, chapter 16, 21-22
 LVA, chapter 5
 RTD, book 4, chapter 6
 RTM, book 3, chapter 3

- F. Jobs and Occupations
 CHA, book 2, chapter 5
 LVA, chapter 5
 TTR, section III, lesson B

- G. Synonyms
 BSR, book 1, chapter 3
 CHA, book 1, chapter 8-9, 14-15
 book 2, chapter 7, 13, 17-19
 book 3, chapter 5, 7-8, 11, 14, 20
 book 4, chapter 2, 12, 20
 book 5, chapter 2-3, 15
 book 6, chapter 3-4, 6, 11, 15, 18
 book 8, chapter 1, 3, 10, 12, 17, 20
 LAU, book 4, chapter 20
 LVA, chapter 5
 RTM, book 3, chapter 5

- H. Antonyms (Opposites)
 BSR, book 1, chapter 3
 CHA, book 1, chapter 10, 14
 book 2, chapter 4, 7, 13, 17-18
 book 3, chapter 6-8, 12, 14, 20
 book 4, chapter 2, 12, 20
 book 5, chapter 4, 6
 book 6, chapter 3-4, 8, 11, 15, 18
 book 8, chapter 2-3, 12, 18, 20
 LAU, book 4, chapter 5, 7, 9, 12
 LVA, chapter 5
 RTM, book 2, chapter 4
 RTR, chapter 10
 TTR, chapter 9

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I. Homonyms (Words that sound the same)

- ASO, book D, chapter 3
- BSW, book 2, chapter 5
- CHA, book 2, chapter 1-2, 5, 10
 - book 5, chapter 16
 - book 7, chapter 15
 - book 8, chapter 15
- LAU, book 4, chapter 10, 19, 21-22
- LVA, chapter 5
- RTR, chapter 5-6
- TTR, chapter 7

J. Suffixes and Endings (for nouns only)

- ASO, book B, chapter 1-3, 5
 - book C, chapter 1, 4
 - book D, chapter 2
- BSR, book 1, chapter 3
- BSW, book 2, chapter 5
- CHA, book 1, chapter 13
 - book 2, chapter 14
 - book 3, chapter 1
 - book 4, chapter 1-2, 11, 13-14, 19-20
 - book 5, chapter 9, 14-15
 - book 6, chapter 1-4, 10, 16-18, 20
 - book 7, chapter 11, 14
 - book 8, chapter 2-5, 10
- LAU, book 3, chapter 8, 23-24
 - book 4, chapter 9, 11, 14-16, 18-20, 23
- LVA, chapter 5
- NBR, book 2, chapter 1, 3-4
 - book 4, chapter 1
 - book 7, throughout
 - book 8, throughout
- RTD, book 4, chapter 4
 - book 5, chapter 3
- RTM, book 2, chapter 1, 6
 - book 3, chapter 4
- RTR, chapter 15
- TTR, chapter 16-17, 19-20

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K. Prefixes

- ASO, book C, chapter 2-3
- BSR, book 1, chapter 3
- CHA, book 1, chapter 19
- book 2, chapter 19
- book 3, chapter 11-13, 16-19
- book 4, chapter 12
- book 5, chapter 6-8, 9-12
- book 6, chapter 12-15
- book 7, chapter 20
- book 8, chapter 6, 8-10
- LAU, book 4, chapter 3,6,10,11,16,19,21,23
- LVA, chapter 5
- NBR, book 4, throughout
- book 5, throughout
- RTD, book 4, chapter 2
- RTM, book 2, chapter 1
- book 3, chapter 3
- TTR, chapter 14-15, 19-20

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L. Word Associations (choosing unrelated words)

- CHA, book 1, chapter 10, 19
- book 2, chapter 6, 10, 19
- book 3, chapter 9-10, 17, 19
- book 4, chapter 9-10
- book 5, chapter 1, 5
- book 6, chapter 2
- book 8, chapter 5, 18
- LVA, chapter 5
- NBR, book 2, throughout
- book 4, throughout
- book 6, throughout

M. Word Analogies

- CHA, book 2, chapter 8, 16
- book 4, chapter 4, 7
- book 5, chapter 3
- book 6, chapter 10, 12, 20
- book 7, chapter 5, 9, 15, 18
- book 8, chapter 4, 8, 14, 19
- LVA, chapter 5
- RTM, book 1, chapter 4

N. Defining Words in Context

- BSR, book 1, chapter 3
- CHA, book 1, throughout
- book 2, throughout
- book 3, throughout
- book 4, throughout
- book 5, throughout
- book 6, throughout
- book 7, throughout
- book 8, throughout
- LVA, chapter 5
- RTM, book 1, chapter 2
- book 2, chapter 2
- book 3, chapter 1
- TTR, chapter 41

O. Using a Dictionary

- ASO, book A, chapter 2, 4
- book B, throughout
- book C, chapter 1
- book D, chapter 1
- BSW, book 2, chapter 5
- CHA, book 5, throughout
- book 7, throughout
- book 8, chapter 1-2, 6, 8, 11, 17
- LAU, book 4, chapter 21-23
- LVA, chapter 5
- RTM, book 1, chapter 3
- book 3, chapter 6

P. Idioms/Idiomatic Expression

- CHA, book 7, chapter 2
- LVA, chapter 5
- RTM, book 1, chapter 1, 5
- TTR, section III, lesson E

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4. SENTENCE ANALYSIS

A. Capitalization

- CHA, book 6, chapter 3-6, 8
- LVA, chapter 5
- RTD, book 2, chapter 5
- RTM, book 1, chapter 6

B. Punctuation Usage

1. Period

- BSW, book 2, chapter 2
- LAU, book 1, chapter 1, 12
- LVA, chapter 5
- RTR, chapter 2

2. Question mark and Exclamation point

- BSW, book 1, chapter 1
- book 2, chapter 2
- GWA, book 1, chapter 1, 4
- book 2, chapter 1
- LAU, book 1, chapter 3, 12
- book 2, chapter 6
- LVA, chapter 5
- RTR, chapter 2

3. Comma

- BSW, book 2, chapter 2
- GWA, book 1, chapter 1, 8
- book 2, chapter 7
- LAU, book 1, chapter 3, 12
- LVA, chapter 5

4. Quotation marks

- BSW, book 2, chapter 2
- GWA, book 2, chapter 5
- LAU, book 1, chapter 3, 12
- LVA, chapter 5
- RTD, book 3, chapter 7

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C. Parts of Speech

1. Nouns

- BSW, book 1, chapter 2
- book 2, chapter 3
- CHA, book 2, chapter 15
- GWA, book 1, chapter 1-2, 5
- book 2, chapter 3, 6
- LVA, chapter 5
- RTR, chapter 7
- TTR, chapter 8

2. Verbs (also see verbal inflectional endings)

- ASO, book D, chapter 2
- BSW, book 1, chapter 3-4
- book 2, chapter 3
- GWA, book 1, chapter 1, 3-4, 8-9
- book 2, chapter 1, 4-7
- LVA, chapter 5
- RTD, book 3, chapter 5
- book 4, chapter 1
- book 5, chapter 5
- RTM, book 1, chapter 2
- book 2, chapter 3, 5-6
- RTR, chapter 7, 9
- TTR, chapter 8

3. Verbal inflectional endings (for verb tenses)

- ASO, book A, chapter 4
- book B, chapter 2
- book C, chapter 4
- book D, chapter 2
- BSW, book 1, chapter 4
- book 2, chapter 5
- CHA, book 1, chapter 5-7, 11
- book 2, chapter 16
- book 3, chapter 9-10
- GWA, book 1, chapter 3-4, 7-9
- book 2, chapter 4-7
- LAU, book 2, chapter 3-4, 6-12, 14-15
- book 3, chapter 1,3-6, 8-15, 17, 24
- book 4, chapter 1-4, 10
- LVA, chapter 5
- NBR, groundbreaker exercises, throughout
- book 1, throughout
- book 2, throughout
- book 4, chapter 2-3, 5
- book 8, chapter 2
- RTD, book 1, throughout
- book 2, chapter 2-3, 7
- book 3, chapter 3, 6
- book 4, chapter 6
- book 5, chapter 7
- RTM, book 1, chapter 2
- book 2, chapter 3, 5-6
- RTR, chapter 7, 9
- TTR, chapter 18

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4. Pronouns

- ASO, book A, chapter 2-4
- BSW, book 1, chapter 3, 5
- book 2, chapter 1
- GWA, book 1, chapter 2, 5, 9
- book 2, chapter 3, 6-7
- LVA, chapter 5
- NBR, book 8, chapter 2-5
- RTD, book 5, chapter 6
- RTM, book 1, chapter 4

5. Adjectives and Adverbs (also see adjectival and adverbial endings)

- BSW, book 1, chapter 6
- book 2, chapter 3
- GWA, book 1, chapter 6
- book 2, chapter 3, 7
- LVA, chapter 5
- RTM, book 3, chapter 4, 6

6. Adjectival and adverbial endings

- ASO, book C, chapter 4
- book D, chapter 2
- BSW, book 1, chapter 6
- CHA, book 1, chapter 9, 14-15
- book 2, chapter 12, 17-18, 20
- book 3, chapter 2-8
- book 4, chapter 1-6, 16-18
- book 5, chapter 13-17
- book 6, chapter 6, 8-9
- book 7, chapter 8
- GWA, book 1, chapter 6
- LAU, book 3, chapter 12-13, 15, 18-24
- book 4, chapter 3-5, 7-12, 15-19, 22-23
- LVA, chapter 5
- NBR, groundbreaker exercises, throughout
- book 1, throughout
- book 2, throughout
- book 3, chapter 1
- book 4, chapter 1, 3-5
- book 6, throughout
- book 8, throughout
- RTD, book 4, chapter 4-6
- RTR, chapter 15
- TTR, chapter 19-20

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7. Prepositions (and prepositional phrases)

- ASO, book B, chapter 5
- GWA, book 2, chapter 7
- LVA, chapter 5
- TTR, chapter 5

D. Sentence Parts

1. Subject

- BSW, book 1, chapter 1, 3
- GWA, book 1, chapter 1, 7
- book 2, chapter 1
- LVA, chapter 5
- RTM, book 2, chapter 1
- book 3, chapter 2

2. Predicate

- BSW, book 1, chapter 1
- GWA, book 1, chapter 7
- book 2, chapter 2
- LVA, chapter 5
- RTM, book 2, chapter 1
- book 3, chapter 2

3. Simple, compound, & complex sentences

- BSW, book 1, chapter 1
- GWA, book 1, chapter 8
book 2, chapter 1-2, 6
- LVA, chapter 5
- RTM, book 3, chapter 1

4. Complete sentences

- BSW, book 1, chapter 1
book 2, chapter 1
- CHA, book 2, chapter 11
book 7, throughout
- GWA, book 1, chapter 1, 7-8
book 2, chapter 1-2
- LVA, chapter 5
- RTD, book 3, chapter 4
- RTM, book 2, chapter 1, 4
book 3, chapter 3, 5

E. Using Standard English

- BSW, book 1, chapter 4, 6
- CHA, book 7, chapter 2-5, 7, 9, 12
- GWA, book 1, chapter 4
book 2, chapter 6
- LVA, chapter 5
- RTM, book 1, chapter 3

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5. PARAGRAPH DEVELOPMENT

A. Combining Sentences

- BSR, book 1, chapter 1
- BSW, book 2, chapter 4
- CHA, book 7, throughout
book 8, chapter 16
- GWA, book 1, chapter 9
book 2, chapter 2
- LAU, book 4, chapter 8-10, 13, 22
- LVA, chapter 5

B. Topic Sentence

- BSR, book 1, chapter 1
- CHA, book 8, chapter 16
- LVA, chapter 5

C. Sentence Sequence

- BSR, book 1, chapter 2
- BSW, book 2, chapter 4
- CHA, book 2, chapter 14-15, 18
book 4, chapter 5
book 7, throughout
book 8, chapter 16
- LVA, chapter 5

6. GENERAL COMPREHENSION SKILLS

A. Literal Level

- CHA, book 1, throughout
- book 2, throughout
- book 3, throughout
- book 4, throughout
- book 5, throughout
- LVA, chapter 6
- NBR, book 1, throughout
- book 2, throughout
- book 3, throughout
- book 4, throughout
- book 5, throughout
- book 6, throughout
- book 7, throughout
- book 8, throughout
- RTD, book 1, throughout
- book 2, throughout
- book 4, chapter 1
- book 5, chapter 1
- RTR, chapter 16, 23
- TTR, chapter 31-40, 42

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B. Inferential Level

- BSR, book 1, chapter 3
- LVA, chapter 6
- RTM, book 1, chapter 1-2
- book 2, chapter 1-2
- book 3, chapter 4-5
- RTR, chapter 5, 25
- TTR, chapter 31-40, 46

C. Applied Level

- CHA, book 7, chapter 1, 5-6
- LVA, chapter 6
- RTR, chapter 25
- TTR, chapter 33-40

7. SPECIFIC COMPREHENSION SKILLS

A. Sequencing Events

- BSR, book 1, chapter 2
- CHA, book 4, chapter 3, 9, 16
- book 7, chapter 4, 7, 17
- book 8, chapter 1, 7
- LAU, book 3, chapter 13, 17, 20
- book 4, chapter 2, 17
- LVA, chapter 6
- NBR, book 2, chapter 2
- book 4, chapter 1-3
- book 8, chapter 4
- RTD, book 4, chapter 4-5
- book 5, chapter 2
- RTM, book 1, chapter 3-5
- book 2, chapter 4-5
- book 3, chapter 1
- RTR, chapter 23
- TTR, chapter 34

B. Character Analysis

- CHA, book 7, chapter 16
- LVA, chapter 6
- RTR, chapter 23

C. Central Thought

1. Main idea and supporting details

- BSR, book 1, chapter 1-2
- CHA, book 6, chapter 17
- LVA, chapter 6
- RTD, book 3, throughout
- book 4, chapter 2-3
- book 5, chapter 3
- RTM, book 1, chapter 4, 6
- book 2, chapter 3-4
- RTR, chapter 23
- TTR, chapter 42-43, 45

2. Author's purpose

- BSR, book 2, chapter 1
- LVA, chapter 6
- RTM, book 2, chapter 2-3

3. Viewpoints

- CHA, book 8, chapter 2, 13, 19
- LVA, chapter 6
- TTR, chapter 36-37, 48-49

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4. Tone, mood, style, or atmosphere
 BSR, book 2, chapter 1
 LVA, chapter 6
 RTM, book 3, chapter 2-3
5. Distinguishing between fact and opinion
 BSR, book 2, chapter 1
 CHA, book 6, chapter 14-15
 LVA, chapter 6
 RTM, book 3, chapter 3-4
- D. Interpretation
1. Conclusions
 LVA, chapter 6
 RTD, book 5, chapter 4-5
 RTM, book 1, chapter 5
 book 2, chapter 6
 RTR, chapter 20
2. Cause and effect relationships
 BSR, book 1, chapter 2
 CHA, book 4, chapter 19
 book 6, chapter 11
 LVA, chapter 6
 RTM, book 1, chapter 6
 book 2, chapter 5-6
 book 3, chapter 1-2
3. Predicting outcome
 CHA, book 7, chapter 5, 10
 book 8, chapter 17
 LVA, chapter 6
4. Forming reasoned opinions
 CHA, book 6, chapter 1-2, 4-8, 11-13, 17-20
 book 8, throughout
 LVA, chapter 6
 TTR, chapter 31-40
5. Comparing and contrasting information
 BSR, book 1, chapter 2
 book 2, chapter 3
 LVA, chapter 6
 RTD, book 4, chapter 6-7
 book 5, chapter 1, 6-7
 RTM, book 1, chapter 2-3
 book 2, chapter 2-3
 book 3, chapter 5-6
 TTR, chapter 35

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6. Classifying and organizing information
 BSR, book 1, chapter 2
 CHA, book 1, chapter 17, 19
 book 2, chapter 2, 14
 book 3, chapter 11, 18
 book 4, chapter 5-6, 13
 book 5, chapter 11, 14, 19
 book 6, chapter 9, 15, 19
 book 7, chapter 6,7,9,13,14,17,19
 book 8, chapter 12-14, 16, 20
 LAU, book 4, chapter 23
 LVA, chapter 6
 RTM, book 3, chapter 6
 TTR, chapter 44, 47, 50

7. Graphs, charts, and diagrams
 BSR, book 2, chapter 3
 CHA, book 5, chapter 19
 book 8, chapter 6-7, 10-11, 19
 LVA, chapter 6-7
 RTM, book 2, chapter 2
 book 3, chapter 1, 3
 TTR, chapter 39, 50

8. Maps
 CHA, book 8, chapter 2, 11
 LAU, book 3, chapter 18, 22
 book 4, chapter 9
 LVA, chapter 7
 RTD, book 5, chapter 2
 RTM, book 2, chapter 5
 book 3, chapter 1, 5
 RTR, chapter 11, 21
 TTR, chapter 44

F. Types of Writing

1. Job applications, classifieds, and resumes
 ASO, book B, chapter 1
 book C, chapter 1, 3-4
 BSW, book 2, chapter 4
 CHA, book 6, chapter 7, 9
 LAU, book 4, chapter 15-16
 LVA, chapter 7
 RTD, book 5, chapter 5, 7
 RTR, chapter 19
2. Persuasive techniques (propaganda)
 BSR, book 2, chapter 1
 CHA, book 8, chapter 3, 13

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3. Nonfiction (in general)
 - CHA, book 6, chapter 1,3,6,8,9,12,16,17,19
book 7, chapter 18
book 8, chapter 2-4,6,7,9,11-13,16,18,20
 - LVA, chapter 7
 - RTR, throughout
 - TTR, throughout
4. Autobiography and biography
 - CHA, book 6, chapter 2, 5, 7, 11, 20
book 7, chapter 14
book 8, chapter 1, 8, 19
 - LVA, chapter 7
5. Articles
 - CHA, book 6, 14-15
 - LVA, chapter 7
 - RTR, throughout
 - TTR, throughout
6. Literature (in general)
 - CHA, book 6, chapter 10, 13
book 7, chapter 20
 - LVA, chapter 7
7. Short story
 - CHA, book 6, chapter 4
book 7, chapter 1-8, 10-12, 15-16
book 8, chapter 10, 14-15
 - LVA, chapter 7
 - RTD, book 1, throughout
8. Drama
 - CHA, book 6, chapter 18
book 7, chapter 13, 19
book 8, chapter 17
 - LVA, chapter 7
9. Poems
 - CHA, book 6, chapter 20
book 8, chapter 9, 19-20
 - LVA, chapter 7

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FRY READABILITY FORMULA

Edward Fry's readability formula (FRF) is one of the more common methods of comparing the difficulty of texts. Like many other readability formulas, the FRF operates under two assumptions: (1) short words are easier to grasp than longer words, and (2) short sentences are easier to understand than longer ones. These assumptions are legitimate to some extent. After all, the word "paper" might be easier to grasp than the word "obstreperousness." And the short sentence "My car is red" would be much simpler to understand than a much longer one written in a college level textbook. These assumptions are widely accepted because quite often they are true. However, these assumptions are not absolutely true. Adult students will probably recognize long words such as, "hippopotamus," "occupational," or "productivity," more than some shorter words such as, "id," "ghat," "waft," or "jato". Furthermore, adult students will probably understand a long sentence like, "The quick, brown foxes jumped over the lazy, white dog," more freely than a shorter sentence like, "The aspirant fastidiously defended her discourse."

There are also other factors to consider. First, all adults have their own unique backgrounds, experiences, and interests in life. People are more inclined to comprehend any interesting topic of reading which relates to themselves than a subject which is either alien or boring to them. Thus, interest and experience play an important part in reading comprehension. Finally, regardless of how short the sentences or words might be, adult readers lacking a higher education would surely have difficulty reading Plato, Chaucer, Shakespeare, James Joyce or anything else which contains archaic or difficult language. In this case, utilizing a readability formula for works by these authors would be meaningless.

The FRF is much simpler to use than most other readability formulas. First, one randomly selects three samples of one hundred words each from the particular text they are using. For each text sample, one counts the number of syllables and then the number of sentences per one hundred words. Next, one averages the number of syllables for all three samples and then average the number of sentences for all three samples. Finally, using Fry's Graph for Estimating Readability, one plots the average number of syllables on the X-axis (horizontal axis) and the average number of sentences on the Y-axis (vertical axis). The intersection of the two numbers on the graph will indicate the text's approximate grade level. An example is included with the graph on the next page.

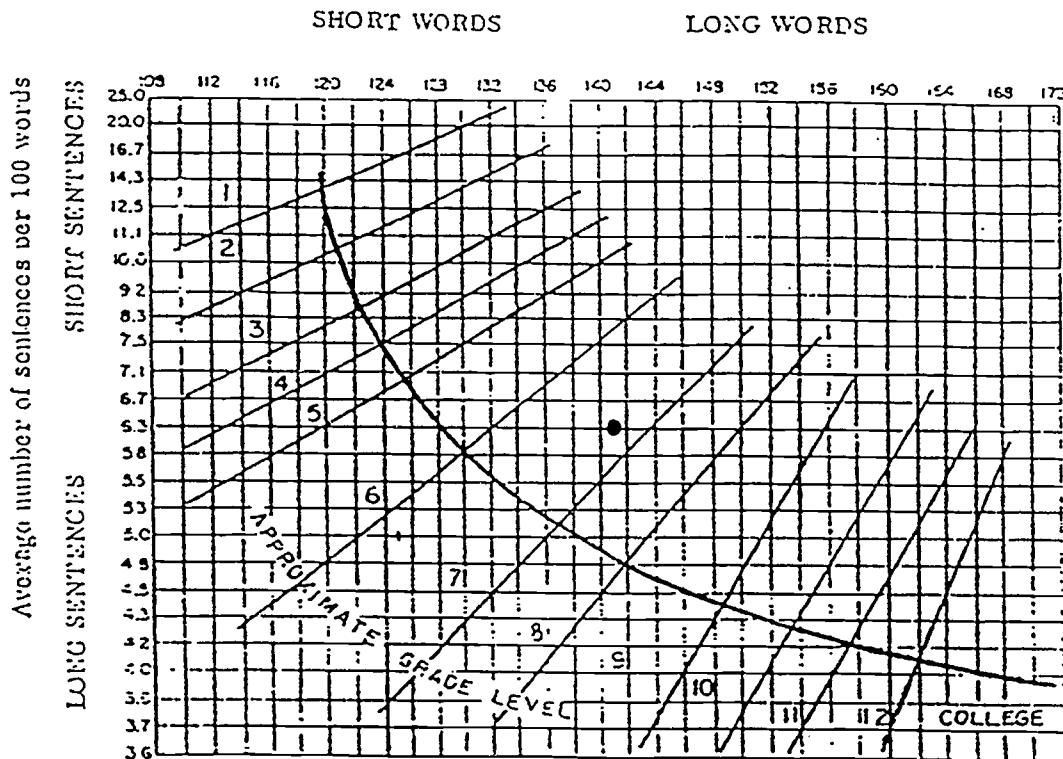
Readability formulas seldom satisfy one's expectations. In fact, sometimes the results of a readability formula do not even come close, but they do create a probable estimation. Reconsider the example used to demonstrate the cloze procedure on page eight of this tutor reference manual. According to Ms. Murphy, her text should be approximately somewhere between the fourth and fifth grade reading levels. According to the FRF, however, Murphy's text would be at the sixth grade reading level. The difference is not too far off. Or take another example from the READ test. According to the LVA, the sample reading on page thirty-three of the test should be approximately between grade levels 5.1 and 5.5. After using the FRF, however, one discovers that the same reading would be at the seventh grade reading level. In this case, the difference is considerable. As a result, tutors should exercise caution when using ANY readability formula, even for a standard one such as the FRF. **Readability formulas are designed to compare the difficulty of texts instead of assigning exact grade levels.** If tutors interpret readability formula results with consistency, then the results will remain fairly accurate.

The Graph for Estimating Readability developed by Edward Fry is one relatively simple and well-known method for estimating readability.

GRAPH FOR ESTIMATING READABILITY

by Edward Fry, Rutgers University Reading Center,
New Brunswick, New Jersey

Average number of syllables per 100 words



DIRECTIONS FOR USING THE FRY GRAPH

Randomly select three 100-word passages from a book or an article. Plot the average number of syllables and the average number of sentences per 100 words on the graph to determine the grade level of the material. Choose more passages per book if great variability is observed, and conclude that the book has uneven readability. Few books will fall in the gray area, but when they do, grade level scores are invalid.

EXAMPLE

	<u>Syllables</u>	<u>Sentences</u>
1st Hundred Words	124	6.6
2nd Hundred Words	141	5.5
3rd Hundred Words	158	6.8
Average	141	6.3

READABILITY 7th GRADE (see dot plotted on graph)

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Section VII

Working with the Learning Disabled

"WHAT IF MY STUDENT HAS A LEARNING DISABILITY"

Alicia Sparks,
Learning Disabilities Classroom Teacher - Springer School,
Cincinnati, OH

You have agreed to volunteer to tutor an adult. You expected to meet someone who could not read or, at best, could read poorly. After meeting with your student a few times, you have the sense that he has tried to learn how to read before and has not been successful. Your student is not making steady progress; he knows a word during one session but not the next. Even worse, he can read a word in the title but then misses the same word further down the page. Your student reads "the" for "a", adds an "s" where none is printed, and fails to pronounce the "s" sound at the end of words. He ignores commas, periods, and question marks and reads "mother" for "mom". When discussing the student with other tutors, someone suggests that your student may be "LD." Now what do you do?

DEFINITION

"LD" stands for Learning Disabled, which is a term that is used in federal laws so that funds can be directed toward the education of students who are identified as having a learning disability. The definition of a learning disability differs, depending upon the agency, school, professional, or layperson using the label. It is a confusing term that is liberally used and often misused. In the purest sense, the term was established to describe students with average to above average IQ's whose achievement in the areas of reading, reading comprehension, written language, spelling, listening comprehension, or math was significantly discrepant from their IQ. This discrepancy cannot primarily be the result of emotional disturbance, mental

retardation, sensory (visual or hearing) deficits, physical handicap, or cultural deprivation.

If teachers are informed that a student has a "diagnosed learning disability," the term "learning disabled" tells the teachers nothing that will help them plan remediation for that student because the term is ambiguous, and perhaps inaccurate. The label "learning disabled" is not a descriptive term. It does not imply specific characteristics or a certain IQ. Therefore, the label is not helpful when trying to plan an effective remediation strategy. It is best not to be concerned with the term "learning disabled" because many students who have been diagnosed with this handicap are not truly learning disabled; others who have not been diagnosed learning disabled might, in fact, possess this handicap. It is more valuable to identify the specific academic problems that the student has; usually, the problem is related to reading. Reading problems can range from mild to severe. Rather than being concerned with the question, "Does my student have a learning disability," it is best to concentrate on the student's specific academic problem. In this case, that problem is reading.

Previously, it was assumed that reading acquisition and intelligence went hand-in-hand. One benefit of the label "reading disabled" is the realization that many intelligent people have had an extremely difficult time learning how to read. Theories that attempt to explain the relationship between reading and intelligence have taken the notion that IQ and reading ability are not necessarily related. Previously, psychologists believed (and taught) that an IQ score, as derived from an individually administered IQ test, would not change significantly as a person grew older. In other words, IQ was supposed to be a "constant" factor and, therefore, would not be affected by learning. More recently, cognitive psychologists have found that this theory is incorrect

and that IQ scores can be negatively affected by a lack of reading over time. For example, a seven-year old child who has trouble learning how to read is evaluated by a psychologist. His full-scale IQ, as measured by a test such as the Weschler Intelligence Scale for Children-III (WISC-III), is 117, which is within the above average range. The child does not get appropriate teaching and continues to be a very poor reader. Because he reads so slowly and so poorly, the child reads very little. As the years go by, his classmates who read very well are reading millions of words more each year than this young man who finds reading extraordinarily difficult. When the child approaches middle school age, he is reevaluated by a psychologist. Now, his IQ is measured at 109. What happened? One researcher has called this phenomenon "Matthew Effects," which is coined from a Biblical verse in the Gospel according to St. Matthew: "For unto everyone that hath shall be given, and he shall have abundance; but from him that hath not shall be taken away, even that which he hath" (Matthew XXV: 29). When the concept of Matthew Effects is applied to reading, its meaning is clear: those who read, learn more and become better readers; those who do not or cannot read, lose ground as they get older. Poor readers have less well-developed vocabularies, grammar, and general knowledge. Often, listening comprehension is weak because they lack the linguistic skills to understand more complex and abstract language.

CAUSES

Various causes of specific reading problems have been suggested. Some research has speculated that the brain of the reading disabled person may be organized differently than the brain of the person who does not have a specific reading disability. Other hypotheses have included prenatal factors, birth trauma, disease, premature birth, poor prenatal care, accidents that cause head trauma, and poor or inappropriate reading instruction in school. Someday, it

may be possible to cite a causal factor. At this time, however, the intervention for reading problems is not dependent upon the cause. Therefore, once the reading problem has been identified, energy is most wisely expended in the direction of intervention, not identification of the cause (which is not a viable possibility at this time anyway).

THE ADULT NON-READER

The adult student who does not read well most likely has very poor phonemic awareness, which means that he does not understand that a word such as cat is really comprised of three separate sounds: /c/ /a/ /t/. When these sounds are spoken naturally within a word, the sounds are coarticulated, or overlap, so that is difficult for the poor reader to determine when one sound ends and the next sound begins. Most good readers are able to analyze and identify the sounds within words easily, which aids in their ability to read the words. Most poor readers do not understand that written words are comprised of smaller units of language, namely the letters which represent sounds. Most poor readers are also poor spellers. Spelling is even more difficult than reading because the writer must be able to break a word into its individual sounds (a process that requires phonemic awareness) and then match letters with the sounds by utilizing knowledge of the sound-symbol relationship of the English language. Exposure to print through frequent reading often enhances one's ability to choose a correct spelling pattern, e.g., knowing that "train" is spelled t-r-a-i-n, not t-r-a-n-e. Reading also enhances one's phonemic awareness; therefore, the person who does not read well has had little opportunity to improve his phonemic awareness skills. Phonemic awareness has been found to be the single best predictor of reading acquisition in young children. Adult non-readers have been found to have phonemic awareness skills similar to very young children.

Often, the adult non-reader will have a very poor vocabulary or will misuse or mispronounce multisyllabic words. This problem is again tied to his lack of reading ability and subsequent lack of exposure to print. As young children, we learn words by hearing words spoken to us. As we grow older, our vocabulary increases through reading. Most vocabulary growth after the fourth or fifth grade is largely dependent upon the amount of free (independent) reading done by the person. It is very unlikely that we will use words in spoken or written language which we have not experienced through print.

CHARACTERISTICS

Remediation techniques are usually most effective when they can be applied to a young child who has been identified as being "at risk" for developing reading problems. It would be easy to identify potential reading problems if a definite set of characteristics were available to parents that would allow them to know if their child may need early intervention in order to learn to read. Some children who develop reading problems have frequent ear infections, but many do not. The most common characteristic that appears in children and adults with reading problems is poor phonemic awareness.

INTERVENTION

Let us return to your student who cannot read. Perhaps this student has been tested by an educational diagnostician and/or a psychologist, perhaps not. You know that your student cannot read well and is not making the kind of progress for which you had hoped. Your student may or may not be highly motivated to continue with the tutoring sessions. Chances are good that he has been frustrated in the past when trying to learn how to read. By now, you have probably heard all of the horror stories of his schooling experience. None of that matters now. Your task is to find a way for this student to "crack the code" of English so that the written word does not forever remain a mystery to

him. How can you do that?

The English language is based upon a phonetic code. Individual letters, or groups of letters, have corresponding sounds. Many people have argued that there exist too many exceptions to letter-sound combinations in English; therefore, they argue that it is not efficient to teach sound-symbol relationships. On the contrary, the English language contains many reliable elements which can be logically taught to students who experience reading problems. Understanding the rule-based nature of the English language demystifies the reading and spelling process and allows the student to approach written language logically. Other people have argued that reading is an interactive process between reader and print and, therefore, should not be broken into the smallest units of the written language, which are letters and sounds. Contrary to this position, studies which have attempted to predict the success of beginning readers have found that knowledge of letter names and phonemic awareness are the two best predictors of early reading ability. Other studies have found that good readers read every word and process every letter of every word when reading for comprehension. This finding seems paradoxical because good readers read very quickly. What this finding means is that good readers are able to "crack the code" with such ease that they can read all of the words very fast and still have plenty of energy left in order to derive meaning (comprehend) from the print. Poor readers struggle to "crack the code," read slowly and inaccurately, and thus cannot comprehend the text very well.

Fortunately, specific techniques to teach reading to students who struggle to learn have been developed and refined. For example, a methodology called Orton-Gillingham has been used for over sixty years. Teachers using Orton-Gillingham methods instruct their students in the sound-symbol relationships of

the language using multi-sensory techniques. A teacher using the Orton-Gillingham method teaches reading by simultaneously stimulating all channels -- auditory, visual, and tactile-kinesthetic. This technique has been found to be effective presumably because it helps focus attention on letters and letter patterns and, at the same time, teaches the sound-symbol system of English. Orton-Gillingham teachers are also trained to teach the logic of the English language because students with poor reading skills often have difficulty internalizing rules about words that many good readers take for granted. For example, poor readers (who are almost always poor spellers) have great difficulty knowing when to use "c", "k", or "ck" at the end of a word. To make written language less of a guessing game, students are directly taught to use "-ck" at the end of a word when the /k/ sound immediately follows a short vowel sound. This information is valuable for reading as well as for spelling when encountering words such as **bake**, **back**, and **bank**. When the logic of language is applied, students can choose the correct pronunciation because they understand why the three words do not share similar pronunciations. Before explanations such as this have been taught, students often perceive reading and spelling as memory and guessing games, which makes these skills seem unattainable because the student is aware that he can memorize only a small number of words.

EARLY DETECTION OF READING PROBLEMS

Even though it may not be valuable to dwell on common characteristics of people with reading problems, there are signs that should not be ignored if one suspects that the child may later have difficulty learning to read. Reading problems seem to occur in families. Once a person has been identified as having a reading disability, it is common to find a mother, father, uncle, cousin, or grandfather who also had a hard time learning how to read. Armed

with this knowledge, a parent can be sensitive to subtle clues that may foreshadow problems. Reading problems are related to language. The most basic level of language is the sound level. Spoken language is comprised of sets of connected sounds. Children who experience difficulty acquiring the language sounds, have trouble understanding language as it is spoken or read to them, or have a great deal of difficulty using language to express their needs may be at risk for learning to read. Parents can stimulate their child's sensitivity to language by playing "games" with words and sounds. For example, a 3-4 year old child could be asked to say "cowboy" without "boy", the expected response being "cow". Young children can also play a "say-it-slow" game, the objective being to pronounce a long word such as "Cincinnati" in syllables instead of saying it fast, the expected response being, "Cin-cin-na-ti." Or, this game can be turned around and the adult can "say-it-slow" and listen to the child say it fast. The opportunities for word-play games are only limited by one's imagination and the child's readiness for such activities. The good news seems to be that a child's phonological (sound level of language) skills can be improved by drawing attention to the sounds of language. Also, the sooner a problem is noted, the sooner that intervention can begin.

CONCLUSION

Having a reading disability is not like having chicken pox, a disease which you have or you do not. A better analogy for a reading disability is the condition of obesity: it is apparent when someone is obese, but the condition cannot be defined correctly by stating that everyone who is fifty pounds "overweight" is obese, because experts do not agree on a definition. Like obesity, reading problems can occur along a continuum from mild to severe. The labels "learning disabled" or "reading disabled" will not help an instructor choose an appropriate remediation technique; therefore, it is best to

concentrate on the specific learning problem and not worry about labels. The task of the tutor is to "treat" the problem, which is a poor reading skill. The tutor's remedy lies in understanding the alphabetic principle and rule-based nature of the English language. The tutor must be able to transmit this knowledge to a person whose language system is resistant to language learning. The tutee may be more than willing, but he will need specialized assistance. Orton-Gillingham methodology coupled with specific phonological awareness training offer the best opportunities for "reading recovery."

"'I Can't Spell.' - The Plight of Adults of Low Literacy"

- by Mary Jo Clark, M.Ed.
Coordinator, Talawanda ABLE

Adults come to Adult Basic Education (ABE) classes saying, "I can read, but I can't spell." How can ABE teachers and tutors help these students? This paper will address that need by discussing the spelling process, causes of spelling problems in adults of low literacy, diagnostic procedures to assess the spelling needs of adults of low literacy, and teaching strategies to help these adult students improve their spelling.

The Spelling Process

Two components of the normal spelling process are that spelling is learned developmentally and that more than one strategy is used by writers when they spell words.

As children grow, they not only learn oral language and discover the rules system that govern it (Ganschow, 1983 p. 185), but also, through an "evolving synthesis emerging from the confrontation between the child's orthographic intuitions and the written standard" (Schlagal, 1992 p. 49), they learn written language as well. These orthographic rule systems, learned incidentally by normal writers through reading and writing practice and through basic instruction, enable people to spell in conventionally accepted ways (Moats, 1991 p. 27).

Developmentally, spelling moves from simple to complex, and from concrete to abstract, in predictable, observable stages, according to the studies done by E.H. Henderson (1990), who observed children as they were mastering the English language system. He recognizes five stages of spelling development characterized by spelling errors that are typical of writers, as they use intuitive language system rules to invent spellings.

*(DO NOT REPRODUCE THIS ARTICLE WITHOUT PERMISSION OF THE AUTHOR)

In the first **Preliterate/Prephonetic** stage, students begin to learn the concepts of writing and words. At first, children make symbols to represent writing (i.e., dog=*mw* ; *dg*). Later, students understand the concept of a word and represent the beginnings and endings of single-syllable words (i.e., bd for bed; flt for float).

The second stage is characterized by **Letter Name** spelling in which students use vowel letter names to represent vowel digraphs (i.e., flot for float), long vowels marked by a silent e (i.e., cak for cake), and short vowel sounds most like the letter name of the vowel (i.e., bad for bed; shep for ship).

Stage three, **Within-Word Patterns**, shows that spellers who have learned the short vowel patterns of closed syllables (i.e., bat, mist, and luck), are experimenting with different ways that long vowels can be represented (i.e., trane for train; chaise for chase), as well as experimenting with vowels influenced by consonants (i.e., brun for burn) and vowel digraphs (i.e., plesure for pleasure).

Polysyllabic words are the focus of stage four, called **Syllable Juncture**. Here, students have learned how to spell single-syllable words correctly and are learning how to combine polysyllabic words by working with the major spelling principle of doubling consonants to protect short vowels (i.e., sitting and betting).

Stage five, **Derivational Constancy**, develops in adolescents when they begin to think abstractly, and the vocabulary of ideas is used. Writers at this stage have learned how most two-syllable words are combined and have mastered short and long vowel spelling patterns (Bear, Truex, & Barone, 1989 p. 180). At this stage, spelling becomes more an issue of vocabulary development as phonemic value becomes increasingly subservient to meaningful forms of words

(i.e., medical, medicinal, and medicine) (Schlagal, 1992 p. 47).

The second component of the spelling process consists of strategies used by writers when they spell. The two main strategies are visual and auditory. They are complemented by supplemental strategies of rule, semantic, and morphological knowledge, and use of analogy. Motor movements of the hand and arm are also used by successful spellers (McAlexander, Dobie, and Gregg, in press, p. 13).

Writers are using the visual strategy when they know that a word "looks right," and are using the auditory strategy when the word "sounds right." The supplementary strategies, tapping linguistic and kinesthetic awareness, complement weak visual and/or auditory modes by providing additional help to spell correctly.

The supplementary strategies of rule, semantic, and morphological knowledge, and the use of analogy utilize the writers' linguistic awareness or knowledge of the structure of English. Motor movements tap their kinesthetic awareness. When using the rule strategy, writers apply the spelling rule that is appropriate to the target word or recognize the appropriate rule-bound spelling pattern (i.e., i before e, except after c). When using the semantic strategy, writers use the meaning of the target word by recognizing root words and homonyms to arrive at the correct spelling (i.e., using to (not too) when writing "to go"). To use the morphological strategy, writers add suffixes and prefixes to a root word to form the target word (i.e., barbecue + ed = barbecued); and by using the analogy strategy, writers use words similar to the target word as models (all wrong = all right). Finally, writers utilize their kinesthetic awareness when they use hand and arm movements that have become familiar and automatic in order to remember how to write the target word (McAlexander, Dobie, and Gregg, in press, p. 15).

Causes of Spelling Problems in Adults of Low Literacy

The causes of spelling problems in adults of low literacy seem to be linked to language processing deficits attributed to underdeveloped phonemic awareness and short term memory which result in impaired, linguistic awareness (Vellutino, 1988).

Normally developing spellers form linguistic awareness, which includes knowledge of the phonology, orthography, meaning and morphology of English words incidentally, as they learn the English language. Adults of low literacy, on the other hand, do not develop linguistic awareness incidentally because of their language processing deficits (Moats, 1991 pp. 24, 26, & 27).

Underdeveloped phonemic awareness has two constituents: impaired ability to decode alphabetic sounds and impaired ability to segment phonemes. The impaired ability to decode alphabetic sounds has a negative effect on spelling because, even though there is not an exact letter-sound correspondence in English, spellers still need to be able to know how to decode the letters that do not correspond to sound. Read and Ruyter (1985) found that their adult subjects performed poorly when asked to spell nonsense words because they had little effective use of letter-sound relationships. Furthermore, Read and Ruyter found that their adult subjects tried spelling English as if it were Chinese by memorizing the associations between individually printed words and their pronunciations, not by using alphabetic principles.

Likewise, impaired phoneme segmentation, the inability to break spoken words into their component sounds (said = /s/ + /E/ + /d/) (Morris, 1980), hinders the spelling of adults of low literacy. According to Read and Ruyter (1985) "...awareness of phonemes within syllables and skill in relating sound to spellings are the locus of much of the substantial, individual variation in the ability to ... spell alphabetically." Like the impaired ability to decode

alphabetic sounds, segmenting phonemes impacts heavily on the ability to spell, especially for adults of low literacy because "English spelling is dominated by underlying sound segments which convey meaning" (Gentry and Henderson, 1980, p. 112). This contrasts to a logographic or pictographic language like Chinese or Japanese in which each symbol represents a meaningful concept (McAlexander, Dobie, and Gregg, in press, p. 1).

The second language processing deficit that affects spelling in adults of low literacy is poor short term memory. Low literacy readers have poor short term memories, specifically for language or material (including digits) that is encoded in language (Read and Ruyter, 1985). According to Read and Ruyter, their

"...subjects' disabilities in short-term memory, decoding, and segmentation are clearly related. What they cannot do is to create and maintain an accurate phonological representation of a word in memory, analyze it into phonemes, and relate those phonemes to spelling, especially at locations other than the beginnings of words. They ... cannot establish a sufficiently conscious, precise, or lasting phonological representation to be able to decode unfamiliar words or to learn sound-spelling correspondences." (p. 50)

Diagnostic Procedures

The goals of diagnostic procedures are to assess the students' stages of spelling development, as well as their linguistic awareness and knowledge of the structure of English words. Two procedures to meet these goals are teacher analysis of invented spellings and student self-assessment.

As asserted in the first section of this paper, children learn to spell developmentally. Consequently - based on the work of Chall (1987) and Read and Ruyter (1985), Bear, Truex, and Barone (1989 p. 172) hypothesize that adults of low literacy also learn to spell developmentally. Thus, since the stage of spelling development of children can be determined by the nature of invented spellings (Schlagal, 1992 p. 49), so can the stage of spelling development of adults be determined by the nature of their invented spellings.

According to this assumption, the ABE teacher or tutor can use a sample of students' invented spellings to determine the students' stage of spelling development in order to implement teaching strategies that would help the students move through developmental stages.

Two ways to obtain samples of the students' invented spellings are through student writing or through a qualitative spelling inventory.

In order to collect samples of spelling through student writing, at least twenty-five misspelled words need to be collected from each student (Ganschow, 1984 p. 26). The advantage of this collection strategy is that the teacher will be able to get a sample of words that are important to the students. On the other hand, this is a disadvantage because poor spellers tend not to use words that they cannot spell, so the sample of spelling errors would give a limited picture of the students' level of spelling development and linguistic awareness.

The second method, using a qualitative spelling inventory (Appendix A) to collect samples of students' errors, consists of a list of twenty graded spelling words that students are asked to spell. There are several advantages to this method: the variables are reduced; students are familiar with the spelling format; there is a wider selection of errors, since students cannot avoid spelling words that they do not know; individual tests can be sorted into levels of achievement by the percent of accuracy scores; and it is easier to observe error patterns systematically (Schlagal, 1992 pp. 33-34).

After samples of student spelling errors are collected, the teacher or tutor analyzes the error patterns (see Appendix B for a list of sources of error patterns) to determine the level of spelling development which also reflects the students' level of linguistic awareness.

An error pattern analysis can use a four-column chart format (see Fig. 1).

Misspelled words are collected from the students' writing or from the qualitative spelling inventory and listed in the first column. The correct spellings are listed in the second column. Then the misspelled words from the first column are analyzed in order to determine the nature of the errors. These conclusions are listed in the third column under "kinds of mistakes." In the fourth column, "ways to remediate," the steps to be taken by the teacher or tutor to remediate the spelling problems are listed (Ganschow, 1984).

The second procedure for spelling diagnosis is the student self-assessment inventory (Appendix C) which activates the students' metacognitive awareness of their spelling strategies, as well as their spelling strengths and weaknesses (McAlexander, Dobie, and Gregg, in press, p. 38). In order to obtain a more accurate response from the students on the inventory, the teacher or tutor should first administer the qualitative spelling inventory so that the students have some objective data about their spelling performance before taking the self-assessment inventory. The self-assessment also should be administered in a supportive environment since adults of low literacy may be uncomfortable at assessing themselves. Whether in a one-on-one situation, or in a group, the adult students need to have the opportunity to clarify questions about the inventory and its purpose (Ganschow, 1979).

Teaching Strategies

The five teaching strategies discussed in this paper--Multisensory Structured Language Approach, Word Sort, Word Families, Metacognitive Strategies, and Writing--fulfill the major purposes of teaching adults of low literacy how to spell by helping them to understand the rules and structure of English and by helping them progress through the stages of normal spelling development. Furthermore, the strategies fulfill additional purposes by helping students reinforce the visual, auditory, and supplemental strategies

used to spell; by addressing the low literacy adults' language processing deficits; and by providing explicit instruction needed by low literacy adults because they have difficulty in intuiting language structures, unless the language structures are taught explicitly and are overpracticed (Moats, 1991 p. 191).

Figure 1

Error Pattern Analysis

Misspelled words	Correct spelling	Kinds of mistakes	Ways to remediate
Rausad	around	nonphonetic	Learn that words are made up of sequences of sounds
caner sholps doneing	captured Spanish during	nonphonetic nonphonetic nonphonetic	
arownd	around	common rule correspondence ow=ou	Learn common rule correspondences (e.g. -ar, -ou)
hunt	haunted	u=au; tense omission	Learn suffix and tense endings rules.
wus	was	common rule for irregular word	Learn memory strategies for irregular words.
wut netel	what needle	" "	
loan	lone	used wrong word for meaning	Learn meanings of homonyms.

Considerations for Remediation

1. What errors are most prominent?
2. Which error patterns will yield the most generalization if worked on?
3. Which types of errors best lend themselves to ease of correction for this student?

See: Ganschow, L. (1984). Analyze error patterns to remediate severe spelling difficulties. The Reading Teacher, 38, 288-93.

The following discussion will examine the purposes served by each teaching strategy, as well as describe each strategy. Finally, the strategies will be linked with the stages of spelling development.

Multisensory Structured Language Approach

Although the Multisensory Structured Language Approach meets the preceding rationale for teaching spelling to adults of low literacy, it especially addresses the students' language processing deficits and their need for explicit instruction. By using a multisensory approach that emphasizes the tactile-kinesthetic-pathway for learning, students can compensate for their weak auditory processing skills by integrating the tactile-kinesthetic mode with the visual and auditory modes of learning (Rome and Osman, 1985). Additionally, since students learn specific letter-sound correspondences and language patterns (i.e., c = /c/; pat = CVC short vowel pattern), they are also receiving explicit language structure instruction.

By using materials such as the Language Tool Kit (Rome and Osman, 1985), teachers can help students learn the written language through the use of visual and auditory drills, such as tracing the sound or word units on a table or in a rice tray.

Word Sort

The word sort strategy addresses the adult students' need to learn the structure of the English language, to reinforce the spelling strategies, to receive explicit instruction, and to develop short term memory.

Through word categorization activities or "sorts," students learn about the various features of words in comparison and by contrast as they sort words into different categories (i.e., sort the short a words into one group and short i words into another) (Barnes, 1989 p. 293). These sorts, according to specific features, (i.e., phonemic, orthographic, and semantic) help students

learn about the structure of English by emphasizing invariant features. Furthermore, their awareness of spelling strategies develops with a growing sense of order and predictability while their emerging orthographic concepts stabilize (Schlagal, 1992 p. 48). Students also receive explicit instruction, as well as short term memory aid through the repeated manipulation of the words.

Word Families

Word families or word patterns fulfill several of the purposes for teaching adults of low literacy how to spell. By focusing on letter-sound correspondences and rhyming, students are helped through the second and third spelling stages because short and long vowel patterns are emphasized. In addition, word families help students make visual and auditory connections with linguistic patterns which increase their linguistic and phonemic awareness.

After students have developed a basic understanding of consonant sounds, word families help students learn that new words can be made by changing the beginning consonant sounds (i.e., bat, chat, brat, or splat can be made from -at) (Laubach, 1989 p. 46). To do this, the teacher chooses known words with rhyming end patterns (i.e., hand). After writing the target word on a piece of paper, the teacher asks, "If h-a-n-d is hand, what is b-a-n-d ?" After students can read the words using the word family technique, the teacher asks the students to spell the word while following the prompt, "If h-a-n-d is hand, spell band."

Metacognitive Strategies

Metacognitive strategies tap into the adults' ability to "think about thinking" and by doing so, address the purpose that teaching strategies should help students understand the structure of English. Using mature, operational thought which, according to Piaget, enables people to engage in "pure thought

which is independent of action" (Thomas, 1985 p. 284), adults are capable of thinking about their learning and thinking. In addition, they also have the life experience to know how they learn and think. When teachers talk with students about how they learn, how spelling is learned, and what are their strengths and weaknesses, teachers are using metacognitive strategies.

Furthermore, by using assessment tools like the student self-assessment inventory, teachers can begin to see how the students see themselves and identify for the students their unproductive learning strategies, as well as introduce more productive ones.

Writing

Writing addresses the major purposes of teaching adults of low literacy how to spell by serving as a vehicle through which students can practice and reinforce their understanding of the rules and structure of English, as well as demonstrate their growth through stages of spelling development. Furthermore, it provides students with practice using the visual, auditory, and supplemental strategies for spelling words.

There are several types of writing activities appropriate for adults of low literacy: guided writing, journal writing, dictation, and real world writing.

Through guided writing, the teacher helps the students structure the story through graphic organizers, such as word maps (see Figure 2). Students can also keep journals that can be either structured or unstructured. A structured journal would have the writing topic assigned by the teacher, whereas in unstructured journals, the topic would be left up to the students (Robson, De Vergilio, and De Butts, 1990).

Words and sentences dictated by the teacher to the students provide opportunities for students to practice the language concepts being taught; and

real world writing, such as job applications, checks, and shopping lists, help students apply their developing spelling skills to real situations.

Linking Teaching Strategies to Stages of Spelling Development

The following outline links the strategies for teaching spelling to adults of low literacy to the stages of spelling development. The characteristics of each stage are listed, as well as the teaching objective(s) for the stage. Next, the teaching strategies are listed with suggested activities appropriate for the stage.

Stage 1 - Preliterate/Prephonetic

Characteristics:

- ✓ some knowledge of consonant letter-sound correspondence
- ✓ none or very little notion of vowel sounds

Teaching objective: To learn regular letter-sound correspondence

Strategies:

- ✓ Multisensory Structured Language:
 - reinforce consonants
 - begin teaching vowel sounds one at a time
- ✓ Word Sort:
 - use one-syllable words
 - categories: - beginning & ending consonants
 - vowels
- ✓ Word Families: combine the consonants with the vowels as they are learned.
- ✓ Metacognition: help student understand that the two main strategies for spelling a word are visual and auditory
- ✓ Writing:
 - journal writing encouraging use of invented spellings
 - dictating word families that were taught
 - guided writing encouraging use of invented spellings

Stage 2 - Letter Spelling

Characteristics:

- √ vowel letter names used
 - to represent vowel digraphs
 - as long vowels marked by silent e
 - as short vowel sounds most like letter name of vowel
- √ initial & final consonants and some consonant blends & digraphs mastered
- √ some short vowels mastered

Teaching objectives:

- √ to reinforce consonant letter-sound correspondence
- √ to focus on short vowel patterns of known words
 - CVC cluster pattern
 - introduce one pattern at a time, and introduce new pattern when old pattern is used correctly in writing
- √ to compare vowels across vowels (i.e., distinguish sick from sack)

Strategies:

- √ Multisensory Structured Language: teach unknown vowels one at a time
- √ Word Sort:
 - compare patterns across vowels
 - sort word families
 - continue to sort consonants
- √ Word Families: work with word families for short vowel sounds
- √ Metacognition:
 - recognize the closed vowel CVC pattern
 - reinforce the fact that auditory and visual are main modes for learning to spell
- √ Writing:
 - write in journal or other authentic writing
 - teacher observes when the student begins to use short vowels correctly
 - guided writing

Stage 3 - Within-Word Pattern

Characteristics:

- ✓ short vowel patterns learned
- ✓ experimenting with long vowel representations, r-controlled vowels, and vowel digraphs

Teaching objective: To learn long vowel patterns.

Strategies:

- ✓ Multisensory Structured Language: teach long vowel patterns
- ✓ Word Sort:
 - start semantic groupings (Bear, Truex, and Barone, 1990 p. 180)
 - long vowel sounds and their subgroups
- ✓ Word Families: practice long vowel word families
- ✓ Metacognition: introduce supplemental spelling strategies, especially semantic and long vowel rules
- ✓ Writing:
 - dictation to reinforce visual and auditory strategies of spelling
 - journal writing
 - teacher observes error patterns for growing linguistic awareness
 - real world writing: checks, grocery lists

Stage 4 - Syllabic Juncture

Characteristics:

- ✓ learned how to spell single-syllables
- ✓ learning how to spell polysyllabic words concentrating on doubling rule
- ✓ rarely found in ABE programs; mostly in developmental reading programs in community colleges (Bear, Truex, & Barone, 1989 p. 180)

Teaching Objectives:

- ✓ To recognize and use the doubling rule
- ✓ To teach syllabication in order to reinforce the auditory strategy of spelling
- ✓ To teach affixes and general ways in which syllables are combined

Strategies:

√ Multisensory Structured Language:

- reinforce/remediate any letter-sound correspondence weakness
- work with individual syllables within words

√ Word Sort:

- words with similar syllables
- double and single consonants
- affixes
- word families

√ Word Families: reinforce any that are weak

√ Metacognition:

- introduce morphology as a supplemental spelling strategy
- help student become aware of rules related to spelling errors

√ Writing:

- journal writing & dictation
- teacher continues to look for developing linguistic awareness
- real world writing: letters of application

Stage 5 - Derivational Constancy

Characteristics:

- √ long & short vowel patterns mastered
- √ knows how most two-syllable words are combined

Teaching Objectives:

- √ To remediate any weakness in previous stages
- √ To introduce and practice words derived from Latin and Greek
- √ To examine root words
- √ To help student be metacognitively aware of all aspects of the spelling process

Strategies:

√ Multisensory Structured Language:

- remediate any weaknesses in previous stages
- practice spelling words from foreign roots

√ Word Sort:

- affixes
- roots
- foreign derivations

√ Word Families: Review any weaknesses.

√ Metacognition:

- help student recognize semantic and derivational, supplemental spelling strategies
- spelling is constant according to the meaning, even though the words sound differently (Henderson, 1990 p. 76)
- help student be aware of all aspects of the spelling process

√ Writing:

- Essay Writing: teacher assigns a topic
- Journal writing and dictation continues
- Teacher continues to look for continuing linguistic awareness

Conclusion

By understanding that learning how to spell is a developmental process and that adults of low literacy seem to have language processing deficits interfering with their progress through the stages of spelling development, ABE teachers and tutors can link teaching strategies to the stages of spelling development, so they can help adults of low literacy who come to class saying, "I can read, but I can't spell."

Prepublication Draft
"CASE STUDY OF AN ADULT OF LOW LITERACY WITH DEVELOPMENTAL DYSLEXIA"
Leonore Ganschow, Associate Professor
Department of Educational Psychology
Miami University, Oxford, OH 45056
and Tutee (anonymous)

Prevalent figures indicate that up to 10% of school children experience unexpected reading failure, i.e., their reading levels are not commensurate with their cognitive ability or IQ (Kavanaugh & Truss, 1988; Nichols & Chen, 1981). The term "developmental dyslexia" is sometimes used to describe this population (Aaron, 1987, 1988; Rourke, 1991). These individuals have particular difficulties with reading, writing, and spelling, and their underlying problems appear to involve a lack of understanding of the basic sound/symbol relationships of written language, otherwise known as "phonological processing" or "phonemic awareness" (Rutter, et al., 1976). Though unnecessary for speech, phonemic awareness is thought to be a necessary prerequisite for decoding an alphabetic language because this decoding depends on mapping phonemes (sounds) to graphemes (letters). For example, students developing phonemic awareness learn that the word cat has three distinct sounds, and that without the c, cat says /at/. There is converging evidence that some form of phonemic awareness is necessary in order to learn to read (Adams, 1990; Liberman, 1987).

Among adults of low literacy with average to above average intelligence, limited phonemic awareness is thought to have had a severe impact on their attempts toward literacy, and typically, despite many years of instruction, these adults remain functionally illiterate (Read & Ruyter, 1985; Liberman, et al., 1985; Pratt & Brady, 1988). To date, little information has been published about successful techniques for remediating deficits in phonological skills of adults of low literacy. Perhaps the most well-established and far-

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reaching adult literacy program in this country is Laubach Literacy Tutoring,

which emphasizes a phonics-based approach. Yet, it would appear that for adults with severe phonological deficits, the Laubach method does not go back far enough -- to the underlying "conceptualization of sound/symbol relationships" -- nor does it emphasize the multi-sensory feedback necessary for some adults to retain the concepts. In particular, the conceptual understanding that words are segmented into component sounds which are blended together may not be clarified for the adult of low literacy through traditional phonics-based approaches.

In the first part of this paper, I describe a sequence of lessons I developed to teach phonological skills using multisensory instruction to Nick (fictitious name), a thirty-three year old adult of low literacy. In the second half of this paper I use Nick's case as a springboard for discussion about recent findings in the literature which might help those who work with adults of low literacy. Since this instruction involved mutual "discoveries" of the tutor (myself) and the tutee (Nick) learning from each other, this paper is a collaborative effort. Nick wanted teachers to read his story, so they could help others like himself. I wanted teachers to become familiar with instructional techniques for teaching reading, writing, and spelling to adults who have not been successful under traditional teaching approaches. Through this case study, we wanted to dispel two myths: (a) that adults of low literacy necessarily have below-average intelligence; and (b) that it's too late for adults of low literacy to become literate.

We begin with a brief description of Nick's background (Nick's own words in italics) and a summary of his initial psychoeducational evaluation. We then provide a synopsis of his instruction, broken down into three twenty-lesson segments. Sample lesson plans and Nick's personal reflections about his progress are reported. In the second half of the article, I discuss Nick's

case in relation to current research and thinking on illiteracy. Lastly, the two of us make suggestions for instruction to prospective tutors and tutees.

CASE STUDY: NICK

Background

I teach Karate and have owned my own business for half a dozen years. I've also worked a Civil Service job now at the Post Office for about 15 years. As a hobby I like to rehab old houses. My brother, mother, and father had problems reading and spelling. Two sisters had not problems. In school I got special reading and spelling help from third grade through high school, but all they did was "set you down and tell you to read." Recently, I opened up to a counselor that I couldn't read, and she suggested getting tested. I knew that my concentration was good and that I knew a lot of things from TV and listening to the radio. The way I got through the Civil Service exam was to take the test every time it came up and basically memorize the answers, since I really couldn't read it. I guess I finally passed by cheating after 6 or 7 times. ...Until you and I started working together I thought reading was knowing words. To me, the A was an A, the B, a B. They didn't have any other sounds than that. The struggle part for me was letting go of my pride and admitting that I couldn't read. Only a few people know this.

Professional Psychoeducational Evaluation

According to Nick's psychoeducational report, an examination of Nick's high school transcripts indicated that he had made grades of mostly A's and B's, and Nick himself reported being in the "top ten percent of his Class." He had no history of speech therapy or hearing difficulties, and his medical history was unremarkable. The educational specialist reported that Nick's attention span during the two testing sessions was excellent, and that he worked "extremely slowly" but made an "excellent effort" to answer questions. Table 1 presents a summary of test results. Test names are abbreviated in the text; full titles and test references are provided in the table.

** TABLE 1 **

In his written evaluation report, the evaluator noted that Nick was able to decode many one-syllable words but missed virtually all words of two and three syllables. He appeared to use visual configuration clues and seemed "unable to sound-out words." He was able to discriminate between sounds on the LAC (e.g. /p/ /p/ /b/), and he isolated some sounds within words, but with

difficulty, suggesting only the rudiments of phonemic awareness. In spelling, Nick wrote the first three words correctly on the WRAT-R; the rest were attempts at phonetic renditions (e.g. train/tram; heaven/heven; fashion/fasgin; believe/belev; arm/rm). He was able to write a few sentences of personal information (name, age, date of birth) where evidence of ability to use simple sentences with a capital letter at the beginning and punctuation marks at the end were noted. His handwriting, both manuscript and cursive, was neat and legible. The evaluator noted a large discrepancy between Nick's performance on the WJPB: Test of Cognitive Ability -- Visual Spatial Subtest (58th percentile) and the Visual Matching Subtest (16th percentile). Vocabulary and auditory memory were especially weak. Arithmetic skills were approximately at the sixth grade level. The examiner concluded that Nick's skills "were quite strong in the visual/spatial, bodily kinesthetic, and 'hands-on skills' and very weak in language-based skills that affect performance in reading, spelling and written language."

The WAIS-R was administered by a school psychology graduate student under the supervision of a licensed school psychologist after Nick had begun receiving tutoring. Testing showed a Verbal IQ of 83, a Performance IQ of 98, and a Full-Scale IQ of 87 (+/- 4 at the 95% confidence level). By State of Ohio criteria, a discrepancy of thirty standard points (two standard deviations) between Full-Scale IQ and one or more academic areas (reading, writing, spelling, oral language, etc.) constitutes a problem that is significant enough to diagnose a specific learning disability. Nick's discrepancies on all measures of reading and spelling ranged from thirty standard points (WRMT-R: Word Attack) to forty-six points (WRMT-R: Word Identification).

SAMPLE INSTRUCTIONAL LESSONS

Introduction

Tutoring sessions were held twice a week, from one to one and a half hours each. Over nine months, we had a total of sixty sessions (excluding progress assessments, which were administered after each twenty sessions; only initial and final evaluations are reported here). A synopsis of what transpired in these tutoring sessions is presented here and described in three segments, each representing twenty tutoring sessions. Each segment included: (1) the focus of the twenty-lesson sequence; (2) the materials used during that sequence; (3) the tutoring procedures used; and (4) Nick's comments about that instructional period.

Lessons 1-20

Focus. The first twenty lessons focused on overall instruction in phonemic awareness (i.e., familiarizing Nick with the basic principle that printed words are comprised of letters that represent sounds and occur in a certain order), the alphabetic principle (i.e., basic sound/symbol relationships), and phoneme segmentation skills (i.e., seeing, saying, and writing sequences of phoneme segments (e.g., p.i.t.; p.a.t.)).

Materials. Materials during the first twenty lessons consisted primarily of the Language Tool Kit, a set of cards containing single letters and letter combinations (blends, digraphs, and diphthongs) and an accompanying instructional manual (Rome & Osman, 1972); a notebook with dividers in which Nick kept practice sheets illustrating various sound/symbol rules; practice word lists from Angling For Words (Bowen, 1972); and copies of National Geographic's World Magazine (written at approximately the third grade reading level).

Procedure. A multisensory approach was used, in which Nick learned to say

the sound(s) represented by a letter (e.g., c = /k/ when followed by a, o, or u; or /s/ when followed by e, i, or y) (visual drill); listen to, repeat (articulate), and write the letter(s) represented by a given sound (e.g., /s/ = c or s) (auditory drill); and blend letters together to form real or nonsense words (e.g., b-i-c = /b-i-c/) (blending drill). (For more information on this approach, see description in the Language Tool Kit manual; for related programs and materials, see Clark, 1988; Cox, 1985; Greene & Enfield, 1985; and Sondag, 1991.) During the first six lessons, Nick was taught six-syllable vowel pattern rules (see Figure 1), which were practiced during blending drills, reading, and spelling. The rules were placed in his notebook and referred to regularly. Beginning with lesson 5, Nick was asked to read at least 10 minutes per day at home, and he was given copies of World magazines. During tutoring sessions he was asked to read aloud material that he had read at home. During oral reading, he pointed to each word as he read, and I provided words that could not be sounded out. He was reminded to use syllable vowel pattern rules with pencil underlining (for examples, see Figure 1) to assist him in deciphering a word. An outline of the content of a typical tutoring session during this instructional period may be found in Figure 2.

** FIGURES 1 & 2 **

Nick's Comments. It was the first approach to really make sense to me. For the first time I began to discover the rules about reading. I learned about short vowels, vowel teams, blends. I learned about language. Now I didn't have to always ask my wife for help. I also knew I wouldn't get away with making up words. I didn't want to, either. One problem was that I couldn't really take the reading materials to work to read during my break because then they would find out about me. But I told my tutor that I wanted my own Language Tool Kit cards because I felt that she was teaching me techniques but that I had to put them into action and needed time to work on them on my own.

Lessons 21-40

Focus. In lessons 21-40 we continued our focus on phonemic awareness skills and the alphabetic principle, but by this time we were using more

complicated phoneme/grapheme cards from the Language Tool Kit, e.g., diphthongs (pronunciations of /oo/), digraphs (/ng/ /tch/), and unusual letter combinations (gn = /n/). With the routine of visual, auditory, and blending drills well established, we began to work on expanding vocabulary through an emphasis on affixes (additions to the beginning or end of words, e.g., -ed; -s/-es) and to increase reading pace through "repeated readings" (O'Shea, Sindlear, & O'Shea, 1987; Rashotte & Torgesen, 1985).

Materials. Major materials in this sequence were the Language Tool Kit; lists of affixes commonly used in the first three grades (e.g., -ed; -ing; -s; -es; -ness; -able); Nick's "rule" notebook; the SRA Reading Kit (**NEED REF**); and typed, double-spaced reading passages of about one hundred thirty words covered with acetate and accompanied by author-designed timed reading charts.

Procedure. Visual, auditory, and blending drills continued but comprised only about half of the instructional lesson. For the study of affixes, Nick was taught to remember these as meaning units, rather than as parts of words to be sounded-out. He learned to circle common prefixes or suffixes in words he read, and many of the affixes were put on cards and added to his tool deck cards, where he read (visual drill), heard, and wrote them (auditory drill). This involved showing Nick how larger words could be built and modified through the addition of prefixes and suffixes. First to be studied was the concept of plural, and we moved quickly from that to other affixes (-ed, -ing, etc.). The material to be read for repeated reading exercises came from a pamphlet on dyslexia (at the ninth grade reading level, according to the Fry Readability Formula), and we set a target of one hundred fifty words per minute (which was soon changed to one hundred twenty-five, as we realized that Nick would attain that fast of a pace, given his slow rate of oral speech). The pamphlet material was selected because of Nick's growing interest in dyslexia and his

interest in trying more challenging reading. For timed readings, materials well above a student's instructional reading level are often used. Nick was given three one-minute oral reading timings per tutoring session, after which he counted the number of words correctly, as I provided him with the number of errors (only errors which changed meaning were counted). These were recorded on a timed reading chart (see sample of one of Nick's repeated reading charts in Figure 3). For homework, Nick used the SRA Reading Kit series, and he read a paragraph aloud, while still pointing at each word and using syllable vowel pattern rules (pencil underlining of vowel patterns when he came to words he could not decode).

** FIGURES 2 & 3 **

Nick's Comments. At first when I did the repeated readings, I didn't realize how it was helping me and they made me nervous. Also, I thought I was cheating. But then they made me realize that I didn't have to pause on every word and they helped build my confidence. I discovered that all the words didn't have to be sounded out. Now I find that I read faster. The SRA Kit gave me materials that were at my level and I pushed myself to read at least one each day. But I still couldn't take these to work.

Lessons 41-60

Focus: Lessons 41-60 involved a heavy focus on practicing the skills that Nick had mastered in meaningful contexts. He increased his reading time at home to a minimum of fifteen minutes a day and began writing in a journal. We moved now to a study of roots, and together we began to practice dictionary skills. We continued repeated reading practices and added a new instructional component: grammar. Drills with a few remaining cards from the Language Tool Kit continued, and Nick himself reviewed cards with his own deck at home.

Materials. Materials in this sequence included a workbook on roots with accompanying root cards (Cross, 1990), an elementary classroom dictionary, reading passages from the pamphlet on dyslexia for repeated readings, a theme book for journal writing, the SRA Kit, and a reading comprehension series,

Reading For Content and Speed, Books 1-3 (Einstein, 1986), grammar worksheets that I prepared which were drawn from Writing Skills for the Adolescent (King, 1985), and the remaining Language Tool Kit cards.

Procedure. Because of the amount of information to be covered, the material was divided into two weekly sessions, with repeated readings and oral reading included in both sessions. The first day focused on dictionary exercises, continued with visual and auditory practice with the Language Tool Kit, reading (and selective correcting) of Nick's journal entries and introduction of a grammar homework assignment. The second day focused on root drills and the grammar lesson (see Figure 4). For the dictionary exercises, I would select a word with which he was unfamiliar, and together we would look it up and discuss the diacritical markings and meanings. Nick read his journal entries aloud, after which I would write the standard spelling of two or three words that he wanted spelled correctly above his word. Selected misspelled words were discussed and added to his deck of cards for visual and auditory drill. For the grammar assignments, in accordance with King's suggestion that grammar lessons begin with "...the noun, article, pronoun, adjective, verb, adverb, conjunction, interjection, and preposition in that order" (p. 23), we focused first on nouns and articles; then nouns and adjectives. I would make a worksheet of simple phrases and sentences containing adjectives and nouns, and Nick would draw an arrow from the adjective to the noun. For pronouns and verbs, we followed her suggestion that "...verbs are troublesome and are probably best learned by practicing their conjugations" (p. 24), and I made out conjugation worksheets (see King, 1985, pp. 25-26). We began with regular verbs (walk, walked), moving gradually into irregular verbs (eat, ate, eaten); after a dozen lessons on present, past, and future tenses, I introduced the perfect tenses (present, past, and future). Through the conjugations, Nick

learned the concept of pronouns and which pronouns are used with verbs. He learned to underline subjects and verbs in simple sentences and to separate subject from verb with a double vertical line.

** FIGURE 4 **

Nick's comments. The hardest part for me was the journal. When it comes to writing, it's like you can't fool yourself about what you know. When you have a spelling problem, writing is really hard. I found myself trying to use words I knew how to spell (not many) over and over again. After a while I became more comfortable with the writing. I had to get over the humility of seeing for myself the problems I have with spelling. Prefixes, suffixes, and roots were also hard to me. If I had heard about them when I was younger I could have picked up on it. But I found that I began to recognize new words within words and I feel my vocabulary began to improve. The dictionary exercises helped me too. Now I find I can read my mail myself. I also read the newspaper, especially things about the neighborhood. My son makes me read him a story every night now. He's six.

Post-evaluation after 60 lessons. Between the time of the initial and final evaluations, Nick's overall reading score, as measured by the WRMT-R Basic Skills Cluster, increased by twenty-two standard score points (from GE of x to GE of 4.6). His passage comprehension was close the sixth grade level. His spelling showed modest improvement, and his writing showed attempts to spell words phonetically. His vocabulary had improved substantially, from a PPVT standard score of 66 to 77. Both reading and spelling errors continued to reflect his attempts to spell and read words phonetically with frequent omissions of phonemes/graphemes, especially on three-consonant blends and on multi-syllabic words (e.g., selluderate for celebrate, and cares for cards). On repeated readings, Nick averaged six sets of timed readings to reach the goal of one hundred twenty-five words per minute. This showed a decrease from the nine to twelve sets when he first started the timed readings.

ONE YEAR FOLLOW-UP CONVERSATION WITH NICK

I still need a lot of help. One thing I can do now is read the paper on my own and I do this every day at work. I still struggle with the reading and am not as fluent as I'd like. The books I'm able to read I can't take to work with me because they still look too simple. I'd like to take a brush-up course.

Research on Adults of Low Literacy

Nick's "story" is reflective of several recent findings in the literature:

- (a) adults with low literacy have a linguistic deficit in phonemic awareness;
- (b) this deficit can affect overall cognitive growth; and (c) explicit instruction in phonemic awareness can result in overall improvement in reading and written language. We will examine the literature on each of these points and their application to the case study here.

Deficits in Phonology

Research on Adults: Research clearly points to a deficit in phonology as a causal factor in reading, writing, and spelling problems among adults of low literacy. Pratt and Brady (1988), in their comparison of phonemic awareness of good and poor adult readers with that of third-grade good and poor adult readers, found that over forty percent of the variance between the adult and child reading groups was accounted by phonemic awareness measures and concluded that "...poor readers have a fundamental problem acquiring awareness of the phonemic structure of language that is not merely a developmental delay or simply a result of lack of reading experience" (p. 323). Read, et al. (1986), in their comparison of phoneme segmentation skills among literate Chinese adults, who either were or were not exposed to an alphabetic writing system, found that the non-alphabetic group was unable to do a segmentation task -- adding or deleting a consonant at the beginning of a syllable. The authors suggested that the ability to manipulate speech sounds does not develop by itself but, rather, requires explicit instruction. Similar findings were shown in Morais, et al.'s (1979) comparison of literate and illiterate unschooled adults in Portugal. Byrne and Ledez (1983) examined the performance of metalinguistic tasks (e.g., a phoneme reversal task, an ordered recall task on nonsense words, or the reading of acoustically confusing word lists) among

three groups of reading disabled adults who differed in their degree of reading retardation. Findings showed that the groups differed significantly on most tasks, and the authors concluded that adults with illiteracy appear to have "...little apparent insight into phoneme structure" (p. 195) and "...the non-independence (sic) of reading skill and metalinguistic processes tested here is confirmed" (p. 196). In her study of adult illiterates enrolled in a community literacy class and a comparison group of first graders in their third month of school, Liberman and her colleagues (Liberman, et al., 1985) found that first graders were slightly better in phoneme deletion and addition than adult illiterates. The adults had only thirty-eight percent of the nonsense words in spelling correct, even when multiple options were possible (e.g., leat, lete, lete, liet). These adults were equally poor in reading and spelling nonsense words but substantially better in their reading of real words. Liberman concluded that these adults have "...only the dimmest understanding of the phonemic structure of words" (p. 173).

Case Study. In our case study, Nick himself reflected on his lack of phonemic awareness:

I was taught sight words, never phonics. My sister would say, "Sound a word out;" by that it meant to me A was A; B was B; etc.. Never during school was I ever taught any sounds. My report card reflects A's in reading classes, still never learning any sounds. Teachers would tell me to go and read.

Nick's initial test scores revealed significant difficulties with phonemic awareness and the alphabetic principle. Though by the end of the instructional lessons he had learned the concept of phonemic awareness and developed skills for decoding words, his reading was still laborious and his spelling was still at the phonetic stage (Frith, 1980; Henderson & Beers, 1980). After nine months of instruction, Nick was on his way to literacy, but it would still take much practice and perseverance to continue this progress, as is revealed in his

comments a year later.

Effect on Overall Cognitive Development

Matthew's effects. In his so-called "Matthew's Effects" hypothesis, reading researcher Keith Stanovich (1988, 1986) speculated that early phonological difficulties are likely to have long-term effects on students' overall reading comprehension and general cognitive development. The term "Matthew's Effects" derives from the Gospel according to St. Matthew: "For unto every one that hath, shall be given, and he shall have abundance; but from him that hath not, shall be taken away, even that which he hath" (XXV:29). According to Stanovich, like those who have little, poor readers lag farther and farther behind while emerging readers, the ones who "have," continue to have increasing exposure and practice reading, thus expanding their overall knowledge base. Stanovich (1988) says, "...in short, many things that facilitate further growth in reading comprehension ability -- general knowledge, vocabulary, syntactic knowledge -- are developed by reading itself. The increased reading experiences of children who crack the spelling-to-sound code early thus have important positive feedback effects that are denied the slowly progressing reader" (p. 163). Nagy and Anderson (1984) have shown that as early as midway through the first-grade year, large ability differences are reflected in exposure to print. Fielding and colleagues (1986) estimate that children at the tenth percentile of reading ability in the fifth grade read about fifty thousand words per year out of school; however, those at the ninetieth percentile are exposed to four and one-half million words per year. Vellutino and Scanlon (1985) described the "cumulative deficits that inevitably accrue as a result of long-standing reading disorder" (p. 211). Others have drawn similar conclusions. For example, Pratt and Brady (1988) found that the Verbal IQ of third grade, both good and poor, readers did not differ, whereas

in the adult good and poor readers, there were significant differences. They suggested the likely alternative that "...illiteracy seriously retards growth of vocabulary and thus poor readers' low PPVT scores are, in part, a result of the lack of reading skills" (p. 322). Similar findings have been noted in longitudinal studies on children assessed at different ages (Bishop & Butterworth, 1980; Share, McGee, and Silva, 1989; Share & Silva, 1987). Furthermore, Stanovich and others have suggested that "Matthew's Effects," which start out specifically as deficits in phonology, eventually are likely to affect memory processes (Brainerd, Kingman, and Howe, 1986; Mann, Cowin, and Schoenheimer, 1990; Stanovich, 1988) and listening and speaking (Crain, 1989; Juel, 1988; Shankweiler and Crain, 1986; Stanovich, 1988).

Case Study. The significant discrepancy between Nick's Verbal and Performance IQ, his low PPVT-R score, his high Spatial Relations score, and his obvious kinesthetic strengths revealed in his ability as a karate instructor, are suggestive of "Matthew's Effects" in Nick's overall psychoeducational profile. We might speculate, then, that lack of exposure to the written word has had negative effects on Nick's overall cognitive development. On his WAIS-R interesting gaps in WAIS-R Information were noted, e.g., Nick had not heard of Hamlet, and he did not know the name of the President during the Civil War; yet, he knew Louis Armstrong and the names of several recent Presidents. In WAIS-R Vocabulary, he was able to provide solid definitions for the words "remorse" and "tangible" but received only half-credit for the word "winter" (defined as "cold"). His spelling and grammatical errors reflected the paucity of his exposure to reading and heavy reliance on articulation, in such examples as his use of in and an for and (an indication of his reliance for sound clues) and improton for important. In virtually every instructional lesson, I found gaps in knowledge of basic morphological concepts, such as "plural" and

"possessive," and in basic grammar skills. He lacked understanding of relationships among words with similar derivatives, which we began to remediate through the study of prefixes, suffixes, and roots (for instructional techniques, see Henry, 1988; Henry and Redding, 1991; and Templeton, 1980). His frequent misarticulation of words often resulted in miscommunications. In short, we had to start at ground zero, realizing that it would be virtually impossible to "catch-up." Nick's substantial improvement in PPVT-R scores (eleven standard score points), however, provided cause for the hopeful speculation that "Matthew's Effects" can be reversed.

Effects of Explicit Instruction in Phonology

Over the past few years, a number of studies have been reported that support the benefit of explicit instruction using multisensory, structured language approaches in the technique of phonemic awareness skills and the alphabetic principle (Bradley and Bryant, 1983; Perfetti, 1991; Treiman and Baron, 1983; Vellutino and Scanlon, 1985). There are articles on how to teach phonology (e.g., Ball and Blachman, 1988; Blachman, 1984; Lewkowicz, 1980; Williams, 1987, 1980) and word analysis skills (e.g., Henry, 1988; Henry and Redding, 1991), and there are specific phonemic awareness programs (e.g., the Auditory Discrimination in Depth Program by Lindamood & Lindamood, 1969; for additional review of programs on the alphabetic principle and phonemic awareness, see Adams, 1990; Clark, 1988). Research findings, on the results of instruction using multisensory structured language to teach the alphabetic principle, explicate and directly, in a logical, step-by-step fashion, suggest that these students make superior reading, writing, and spelling gains when compared to poor readers who did not receive such instruction. These findings have been reported for emerging readers (Bradley and Bryant, 1983; Content, Kolinsky, Morais, and Bertelson, 1986; Lundberg, Frost, and Peterson, 1988);

elementary school students (Alexander, et al., 1991; Enfield, 1988; Hutcheson, Selig, and Young, 1990; Ogden, Hindman, and Turner, 1989; Vickery, Reynolds, and Cochran, 1987; Williams, 1987); junior high and senior high school students (Alexander, et al., 1991; Ogden, Hindman, and Turner, 1989; Royal, in press); and even college-age students with learning disabilities (Guyer and Sabatino, 1989; Kitz and Nash, 1992).

Case Study. With Nick, too, explicit teaching of sound/symbol relationships seems to have worked when "all else failed." Nick himself says:

All through school I was taught that it was all "sight" words. You just read. I thought that people that knew how to read had good memories. I feel like I had no basics about sounding out words. It helps me to keep going over the same things that I have been taught. I have to keep using it until it becomes a habit. I also like the structure of tutoring - learning something well before going on. Saying it, seeing it, hearing it, and writing it also help me to remember. Now when I read the newspaper I can figure out words from context. When I read now I use both my sounding out strategies and context.

His progress is reflected in his overall improvement in reading, vocabulary development, and written language performance. However, this improvement has not been gained easily and one might question whether the effort on the part of both the tutor and tutee has "paid off." Here, Nick says:

I just wish someone had started earlier with me. I don't think it's too late, but it's really hard now. I have some anger at the system for having failed me. But now I know that I can continue to improve, and I know where and how to get the help I need. I plan to keep going back for help.

SUGGESTIONS TO PROSPECTIVE TUTORS AND TUTEES

Nick and I have compiled a list of suggestions for instruction; Nick to the prospective tutee, and I to the tutor. We conclude, then, with the following advice:

Nick's advice:

- (1) Have humility and trust your tutor. The process may not seem like it will work, but it does.

- (2) Hearing sounds is the most important thing, not learning sight words. Everything isn't visual or done through memory.
- (3) No matter how basic or babyish the reading is, start at your level.
- (4) Motivation -- It's hard when you've got family and kids. It's hard to set aside the time just for you. But it's worth it. I can now spend time with the kids with their homework. Because of the time I spend with myself, it has also given me more confidence at work.

My advice to tutors:

- (1) Become familiar with the phonology of the English language and how to teach phonemic awareness and the alphabetic principle by enrolling in workshops that emphasize a multisensory structured language approach. There are many such programs across the country. See Clark, 1988, for a list, or call your Orton Dyslexia Society.
- (2) Don't overestimate what the student can do. Most likely, if the student is reading under the fourth grade level and this level is not commensurate with his/her cognitive functioning, you will have to start with phonemic awareness activities and at the beginning in teaching the alphabetic principle. For starters, I recommend informal testing of the student's performance in recognizing letters and the sounds they make by asking the student to listen to sounds and write the letters that the sounds represent, and giving a phonemic awareness test, such as the LAC, an oral reading sample, and a writing sample. This assessment will help you to decide how to begin instruction.
- (3) In accordance with good teaching practices of multisensory instruction, follow these principles: (a) teach phonology explicitly in a systematic, step-by-step fashion; (b) present a small amount of information at a time; (c) provide time for mastery of material before new information is introduced; and (d) use multisensory approaches -- auditory, visual, and tactile-kinesthetic pathways,

with particular emphasis on the articulatory features of phonemes

(Lindamood & Lindamood, 1975; Williams, 1987).

- (4) Don't underestimate the student's ability to learn. Adults will tell you when they do and do not know something. If they're getting what they need, they generally come back for more.
- (5) Don't be swayed by arguments from "learning style" proponents who suggest that we should teach to a student's learning "strengths." It is very possible, judging from Nick's comments and his assessment results, that his failure to learn to read was a result of this kind of misguided logic. Nick has a severe phonological deficit, and until it was addressed directly and explicitly, he had limited contact with the printed word. In the case of phonological dyslexia, it is the weak component that requires our initial energies (see Aaron, 1991, for comments on teaching to the weaker component).

CONCLUSION

In their book on the psychology of reading, Downing and Leong (1982) describe three phases of reading skills development: cognitive, mastery, and automaticity phases (Chapters 2 & 3). In the cognitive phase, the student masters the purposes (why one reads) and processes (the way spoken and written language are used to communicate meaning; the concepts of words, syllables, consonants, and vowels; and the relationships between the sounds of words and the letters that represent them). Some readers learn these concepts quickly and easily. Others (perhaps as many as thirty percent) need a great deal of explicit instruction (Leong, 1986). Nick clearly falls into the latter category. Hopefully, those of us who work with adults of low literacy will realize the crucial importance of this first phase and give it the attention that it deserves.

Table 1 (need revisions)

Test Results of Educational Evaluation*

Tests and Subtests	%ile Rank	Standard Score
PPVT	1	66
WAIS-R**		
Verbal		83
Performance		98
Full Scale		87
WRMT-R (Form H)		
WI	<1	41
WA	1	67
WC	<1	49
PC	<1	44
Basic Skills Cluster	<1	57
WRAT-R		
Reading	<1	51
Spelling	<1	54
Arithmetic	4	73
WJPB: Tests of Cognitive Ability		
Perceptual Speed Subtest		
Spatial Relations	58	103
Visual Matching	16	85
Memory		
Memory for Sentences	2	69

Numbers Reversed	13	72
WJPB: Tests of Achievement		
Math	4	74
Knowledge	8	79
LAC		75*

*based on raw scores; a recommended minimum score is 99

PPVT = Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (Dunn...(reference citations needed)

WAIS-R = Wechsler Adults Intelligence Scale-Revised

WJPB = Woodcock Johnson Psychoeducational Test Battery

WRAT-2 = Wide Range Achievement Test

WRMT-R = Woodcock Reading Mastery Test - Revised

LAC = Lindamood Auditory Conceptualization Test

Table 4

Test Results after 60 Lessons (needs revising)

Tests and Subtests	Percentile Rank	Standard Score	Grade Equiv.
PPVT-R (Form L)	6	77	.
WRMT-R (Form G)			
WI	2	70	4.9
WA	19	87	3.7
WC	---	---	---
PC (read on his own)	5	75	5.7
PC (read to)	27	91	
BSC	8	79	4.6
WRAT-R (level 2)			
Reading	(34 correct -- age 35)		4B
Spelling	<1	58	<3

Sample reading errors (real and nonsense words):

/slit/ for split; /element/ for eliminate; /transquility/ for tranquillity; /from/ for form; /ti-rumph. for triumph; easy, every for early; perolnum for petroleum; dunds for dud's; ajax for adjex

Sample spelling errors:

heven for heaven; fashtion for fashion; equment for equipment; mu joity for majority; belea for believe; sug? tion for suggestion

Writing sample

The kis camn't wate for school to git out. Evry so often I want to say think you for evrying have done for me.

Figure 1

Outline of a Typical Tutoring Session* (Lessons 1 - 40)

review of Language Tool Kit card learned previously (usually 2 or 3)
visual drill (see to say task)
auditory drill (hear to write task)
blending drill (see to say task)
spelling (usually incorporated into auditory drill; utilized regular words
drawn from letter/sounds learned in auditory drill)
prefixes, suffixes, roots (after lesson 20)
timed readings (after lesson 20)
oral reading
homework assignment
10 minutes per day (lessons 1-20); 15 minutes per day (lessons 21-40)
writing in journal (after lesson 20)

*Adapted from Rome & Osman (1977), The Language Tool Kit.

Figure 2 (DRAFT)

Syllable (Vowel Pattern) Rules and Examples¹

When Taught	Vowel Pattern	Example ²	
1st	C: Consonant-Vowel-Consonant	p. <u>a</u> .f	a.f
4th	L: Consonant + le	a. <u>ble</u>	baf. <u>fle</u>
2nd	O: open syllable	ba.	i.con
5th	V: two vowels together	pe <u>ach</u>	ba <u>it</u>
3rd	E: vowel + consonant + silent e	co <u>ne</u>	pa <u>ne</u>
6th	R: r-controlled	he <u>r</u>	doct <u>or</u>

¹adapted from Rome & Osman (1977), The Language Tool Kit.

²Student underline syllable (vowel) patterns in words

Dire ft

Figure 3
Sample of Timed Readings Progress Chart

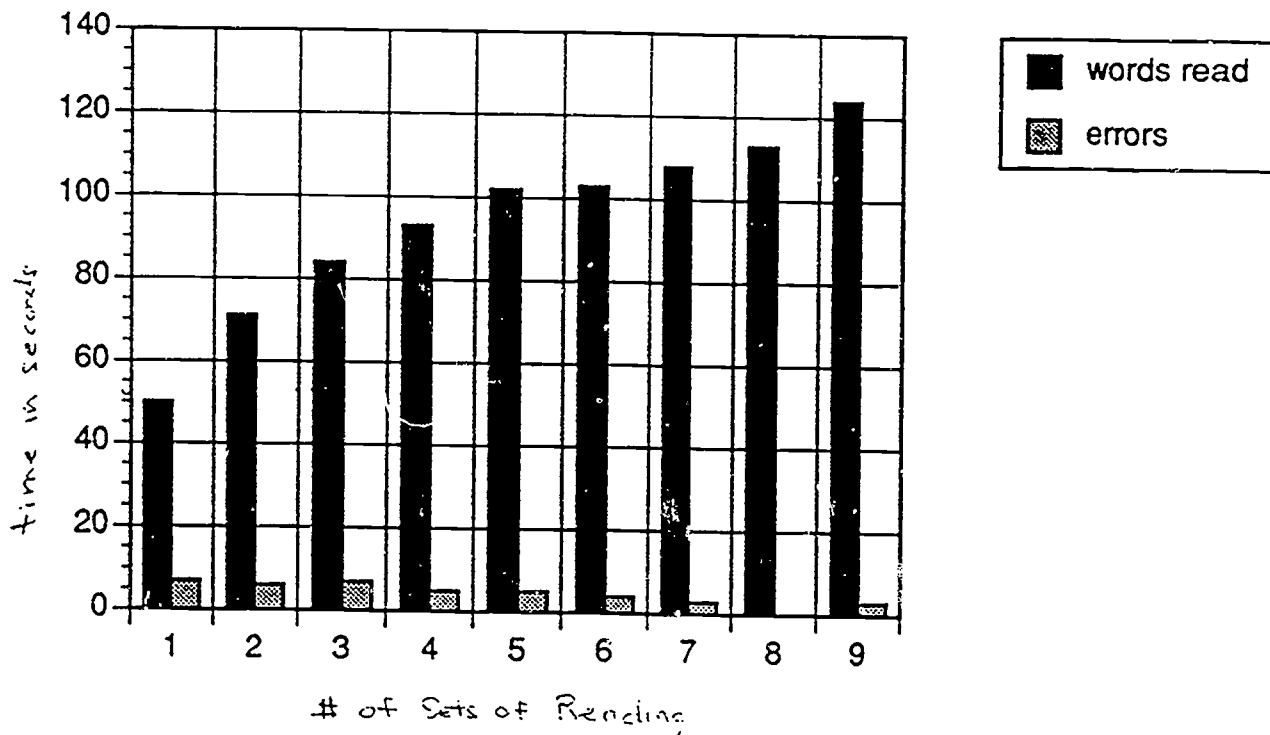


Figure 4

Outline of Weekly Tutoring Sessions (Weeks 40-60)

Session 1

Repeated readings

Review of Tool Deck

Dictionary skill practice

Oral reading

journal reading and correcting

Homework assignment

 reading (at least 15 minutes daily)

 grammar sheets

Session 2

Repeated readings

roots drill

grammar lesson

oral reading

Homework assignment

 reading (at least 15 minutes per day)

 journal entry

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References on Tests

(to be inserted)

Section VIII

Useful Lists

1. THREE HUNDRED MOST FREQUENTLY USED WORDS
In Rank Order

- | | | | |
|--------------|--------------|--------------|---------------|
| 1. the | 2. of | 3. and | 4. to |
| 5. a | 6. in | 7. that | 8. is |
| 9. was | 10. he | 11. for | 12. it |
| 13. with | 14. as | 15. his | 16. on |
| 17. be | 18. at | 19. by | 20. I |
| 21. this | 22. had | 23. not | 24. are |
| 25. but | 26. from | 27. or | 28. have |
| 29. an | 30. they | 31. which | 32. one |
| 33. you | 34. were | 35. her | 36. all |
| 37. she | 38. there | 39. would | 40. their |
| 41. we | 42. him | 43. been | 44. has |
| 45. when | 46. who | 47. will | 48. more |
| 49. no | 50. if | 51. out | 52. so |
| 53. said | 54. what | 55. up | 56. its |
| 57. about | 58. into | 59. than | 60. them |
| 61. can | 62. only | 63. other | 64. new |
| 65. some | 66. could | 67. time | 68. these |
| 69. two | 70. may | 71. then | 72. do |
| 73. first | 74. any | 75. my | 76. now |
| 77. such | 78. like | 79. our | 80. over |
| 81. man | 82. me | 83. even | 84. most |
| 85. made | 86. after | 87. also | 88. did |
| 89. many | 90. before | 91. must | 92. through |
| 93. back | 94. years | 95. where | 96. much |
| 97. your | 98. way | 99. well | 100. down |
| 101. should | 102. because | 103. each | 104. just |
| 105. those | 106. people | 107. Mr. | 108. how |
| 109. too | 110. little | 111. state | 112. good |
| 113. very | 114. make | 115. world | 116. still |
| 117. own | 118. see | 119. men | 120. work |
| 121. long | 122. get | 123. here | 124. between |
| 125. both | 126. life | 127. being | 128. under |
| 129. never | 130. day | 131. same | 132. another |
| 133. know | 134. while | 135. last | 136. might |
| 137. us | 138. great | 139. old | 140. year |
| 141. off | 142. come | 143. since | 144. against |
| 145. go | 146. came | 147. right | 148. used |
| 149. take | 150. three | 151. states | 152. himself |
| 153. few | 154. house | 155. use | 156. during |
| 157. without | 158. again | 159. place | 160. American |
| 161. around | 162. however | 163. home | 164. small |
| 165. found | 166. Mrs. | 167. thought | 168. went |
| 169. say | 170. part | 171. once | 172. general |
| 173. high | 174. upon | 175. school | 176. every |

177. don't	178. does	179. got	180. united
181. left	182. number	183. course	184. war
185. until	186. always	187. away	188. something
189. fact	190. though	191. water	192. less
193. public	194. put	195. think	196. almost
197. hand	198. enough	199. far	200. took
201. head	202. yet	203. government	204. system
205. better	206. set	207. told	208. nothing
209. night	210. end	211. why	212. called
213. didn't	214. eyes	215. find	216. going
217. look	218. asked	219. later	220. knew
221. point	222. next	223. program	224. city
225. business	226. give	227. group	228. toward
229. young	230. days	231. let	232. room
233. president	234. side	235. social	236. given
237. present	238. several	239. order	240. national
241. possible	242. rather	243. second	244. face
245. per	246. among	247. form	248. important
249. often	250. things	251. looked	252. early
253. white	254. case	255. John	256. become
257. large	258. big	259. need	260. four
261. within	262. felt	263. along	264. children
265. saw	266. best	267. church	268. ever
269. least	270. power	271. development	272. light
273. thing	274. seemed	275. family	276. interest
277. want	278. members	279. mind	280. country
281. area	282. others	283. done	284. turned
285. although	286. open	287. God	288. service
289. certain	290. kind	291. problem	292. began
293. different	294. door	295. thus	296. help
297. sense	298. means	299. whole	300. matter

Source: Computational Analysis of Present-Day American English by Henry Kucera and W. Nelson Francis, Brown University Press, 1967. Reprinted from TUTOR, 6th edition, Literacy Volunteers of America.

2.

ADULT BASIC WORD LIST

** a	** about	* after	again
airplane	** all	alone	along
* also	* always	** am	* an
** and	* any	* anything	** are
* around	* as	ask	* at
away	baby	* back	bad
ball	baseball	basketball	** be
beach	beat	beautiful	** because
bed	* been	* before	being
* best	* better	Bible	* big
bike	* blue	boy	boyfriend
bring	* brothers	* bus	** but
buy	* by	call	* came
** can	* can't	* car	care
chance	child	* children	Christmas
* church	city	close	color
* come	* coming	cook	* cooks
* could	country	* daddy	dancing
** day	days	dead	did
* didn't	dinner	** do	does
doesn't	dog	* doing	** don't
* down	* dream	* dreams	drive
* each	easy	* eat	end
* enjoy	enjoyed	* every	everything
* family	fast	favor	* favorite
* feel	feeling	few	fire
* first	fishing	flowers	flying
food	football	** for	forget
* friend	* friends	* from	* fun
gave	G.E.D.	** get	getting
girl	girls	* give	** go
* God	** going	** good	goodbye
* got	grade	* great	* had happiness
happiness	* happy	* hard	* has
** have	having	** he	head
* heart	* help	* her	here
* high	* him	* his	hobbies
hobby	holiday	* holidays	* home
** hope	hopes	* house	houses
* how	hurt	* husband	** I
* I'm	* if	** in	* into
** is	** it	* it's	* job
joy	July	* just	* keep
kind	** know	ladies	* land
* last	late	later	* learn
leave	* let	* life	** like
* likes	* little	* live	* long
* look	looking	Lord	* lot
lots	** love	made	* make
mama	* man	married	math
may	** me	mean	meeting
* memories	met	* mind	miss

* money	* more	* morning	most
* mother	* mother's	mountain	move
* Mrs.	* much	** my	* myself
* name	* need	needs	* neighborhood
neighbors	never	* new	* next
* nice	* night	* no	* not
* now	** of	off	* old
** on	** one	only	open
* or	* other	* our	* out
* over	* own	parents	party
** people	* person	picnic	plan
* play	* played	* playing	pretty
put	reach	* read	reading
ready	really	red	relatives
rich	ride	right	running
safe	said	* say	** school
* see	** she	* sister	sitting
skating	sky	small	** so
soccer	** some	* someday	* someone
* something	* sometimes	song	soon
special	sports	start	stay
still	* stop	story	study
summer	Sunday	supper	swimming
* take	* talk	talking	* teacher
team	* tell	than	thanks
** that	* that's	** the	* their
* them	* then	* there	these
** they	** thing	* things	* think
thinking	* this	those	three
** time	tired	** to	* today
* together	* told	* too	top
* trip	trouble	* true	* try
* two	until	* up	us
* used	vacation	* very	wait
** want	wanted	wants	** was
watch	* watching	* water	* way
** we	* week	weekend	* well
* went	* were	* what	** when
* where	which	* while	white
* who	* why	** will	* wish
* with	women	* won't	words
* work	* working	* world	worries
worry	worst	** would	wouldn't
write	* year	* years	** you
* your			

Words preceded by two asterisks (**) appeared 50 or more times; with one asterisk (*), 10 or more times. All other words were used 5-9 times.

Pages 246-247 of "First Steps Toward An Adult Basic Word List," Elaine G. Wangberg, Bruce Thompson, Justin E. Leviton, *Journal of Reading*, Dec., 1984
Reprinted from TUTOR, 6th edition, Literacy Volunteers of America.

3.

SURVIVAL WORD LIST FOR ADULTS

a
accept
address
age
air
also
American
and
application
arm
ask
automatic
away
be
been
begin
beside
better
bill
board
box
breakfast
business
buy
can
case
check
cigarette
clean
coat
color
complete
corner
cream
daily
day
department, dept.
dime
distance
doctor, Dr.
don't
dress
dry
earn
edge
emergency
enter
establish, est.
etc.
every
experience

able
account
admit
ahead
all
altogether
amount, am't.
any
are
army
at
available
back
beauty
beer
belong
besides
between
birth
boat
bread
building, bldg.
but
by
car
cause
children
city
cleaner
coffee
come
condition
cost
credit
danger
dealer
dependent
dinner
district
dollar
door
drive
during
east
egg
employ
equipment, equip.
estate
evening, eve.
exceed
express

about
add
after
aid
allow
a.m.
an
apartment, apt.
area
as
automobile, auto
avenue, ave.
bar
because
before
benefit
best
big
block
body
break
bus
butter
call
care
charge
church
class
clothes
cold
company, Co.
continue
could
cross, crossing
date
delivery
did
disability
do
done
down
driver
duty
easy
electric
employment
escape
estimate
ever
exit
eye

fat
finance
fire
floor
foot
found
from
furnish
gas
give
goes
guard
half
has
head
heat
her
him
hospital, hosp.
house
I
in
individual
insurance
it
keep
know
law
left
like
liquor
local
low
mail
man
mark
maximum, max.
mean
mechanical
member
mile
minute, min.
Monday, Mon.
monthly
most
Mr.
must
narrow
need
nickel
north
number, no.
of
oil

feet, ft.
fine
first
following
for
free
front
furniture
gasoline
glass
good
had
hand
have
hear
height, ht.
here
his
hot
how
ice
include
information, info.
into
join
kind
large
lease
license
limit
live
long
machine
make
manager, mgr.
married
may
means
medical
men
military
Miss
money
more
motor
Mrs.
my
national
new
night, nite
not
nurse
off
old

female
finish
fish
food
former
Friday, Fri.
full
game
get
go
group
hair
hardware
he
heart
help
high
home
hour, hr.
husband
if
income
installment
is
just
kitchen
last
leave
life
line
loan
loss
made
male
many
material
me
meat
meeting
metal
milk
modern
month, mo.
mortgage
move
much
name
near
next
no
now
occupation
office
on

one
opposite
other
over
page
paper
pass
period
picture
please
police
private
promptly
public
quiet
real
red
repair
restaurant
road
safe
sale
Saturday, Sat.
say
see
service
she
should
side
signature
size
smoke
social
some
special
stand
station
stock
store
such
supply
tavern
television, TV
that
them
they
thru
time
too
traffic
turn
under
up
vegetable

only
or
our
own
paid, pd.
park
pay
person
place
p.m.
present
prohibit
property
quality
radio
reason
register
residential
return
roof
safety
sandwiches
save
school
self
sex
she
shoe
show
sign
since
slow
snow
society
son
speed
state
stay
stone
street, st.
suit
system
tax
term
the
there
this
Thursday, Thurs.
tire
tool
truck
two
unite
upon
vehicle

open
order
out
owner
paint
part
payment, pymt.
pick
plan
point
price
prompt
provide
quarter
rate
record
rent
rest
right
room
said
satisfaction
saw
security
serve
shall
shop
shut
signal
single
small
so
sold
south, so.
stamp
state
steel
stop
strike
Sunday, Sun.
take
telephone, tel.
than
their
these
those
ticket
to
trade
Tuesday, Tues.
type
United States, U.S.
use
wait

walk
wash
way
weight, wt.
west
where
wife
with
work
yellow
you

want
watch
we
welfare
what
which
will
women
write
yes
your

was
water
week, wk.
were
when
who
window
word
year, yr.
yet

Mitzel, M. Adele, in **Adult Education**, Winter, 1966.
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4.

SUGGESTED KEY WORDS

INITIAL CONSONANT SOUNDS

ENDING CONSONANT SOUNDS

Group I.

s sun, sink, socks, sandwich
f fish, fan, fire, feet, feather
m man, match, money, motor, milk,
mother, mittens
t telephone, towel, table, tub,
turkey, tomato, tea
p pot, pan, pig, pants, pipe,
pumpkin, pen

gas, kiss, bass
cuff, reef, beef
Tim, rim, tam
rent, sit, bet
cup, lip, sheep

Group II.

r rat, radio, rocket, rope,
river, red
l leg, lamp, lock, leaf, ladder,
leather
n name, nose, nail, needle
d dog, dish, doll, desk,
doughnut
g gas, girl, game, gate, garage

jar, stair, fear
pill, sell, ball
can, barn, grin
bed, Ford, glad
rag, drug, leg

Group III.

j jar, jacket, jet, jug, jeep
v valentine, vest, valley,
vacuum, van
z zipper, zebra, zoo
c cat, cup, can, cake, comb,
coffee
k key, kite, king, kerchief

(no words ending in j)
(no words ending in v ; words that
end in /vvv/ sound: dove, give)
fizz, buzz
picnic, attic, traffic
rock, back, luck

Group IV.

b bus, baby, ball, bed, banana,
bag, bird
x (no words starting in x)
h hand, hat, house, ham, horn,
hi-fi
w window, wing, wig, watch,
wagon, water
y yellow, yarn, yoyo, yardstick

tub, crib, rib
wax, fix, box, tux
(no words ending in h)
(no words ending in w)
(no words ending in y)

Others

qu quarter, queen, quilt, quick
sh shoe, ship, shower, shovel
ch church, chair, children
wh wheel, whale, white
th this, the, them, these
th thumb, thank, theater

(no words ending in qu)
dish, cash, rush
rich, ranch, church
(no words ending in wh)
bath, truth, fourth

5.

USEFUL PREFIXES

- in-** meaning **not** or **in, within, into**
- ir-** before words beginning with **r**
il- before words beginning with **l**
im- before words beginning with **m** or **p**
en- used almost entirely with verbs always meaning **in, into, or within**
- un-** meaning **not** or **the opposite of**

Prefixes with one meaning:

apo-, circum-, equi-, intra-, intro-, mal-, mis-, non-, syn-, com-

6.

SUFFIXES

Adjective endings with one meaning:

-est, -ferous, -fic, -fold, -form, -genous, -scopic, -words, -wise, -less, -able, -ible, -ble, -most, -like, -ous, -ose, -acious, -ful

Noun endings -- add no meaning, rather note the word denotes

"quality, state, or condition" and

"action or result of an action":

-ance, -ence, -ation, -ition, -ion, -ism, -dom, -ery, -mony, -ment

Noun endings that indicate only that you are dealing with a noun --

useful when looking for core meanings of words:

-acity, -hood, -ness, -ty, -tude

7.

GRAMMATICAL SUFFIXES

Verb Endings

1. Where there is a vowel plus a consonant in the root words, double the consonant before adding any ending:

(Exception -- **y** and **w**)

permit permitted permitting

(exceptions)

delay delayed delaying

2. Where there is a vowel plus two consonants in the root word, add the ending directly:

camp camped camping

3. When there is a vowel, plus a consonant (e.g. **s** plus the letter **e**), remove the **e** and the ending **-ing**:

bite biting

drive driving

4. When a root word has a vowel, a consonant, and a final **e**, simply add **s** to form the plural:

drive drives

give gives

5. When a root word ends in a vowel and two consonants, add **es**:

cash cashes

The inflected endings **ed** and **s** represent various sounds, but it is more helpful simply to point out that the **ed** ending refers to a past action, and **s** refers to more than one than to call attention to the variety of sounds that these letters represent.

Noun Endings

In forming plurals, the conventions 4 and 5 above under verb endings apply under the same conditions.

Adjective Endings

1. With adjectives which end in **e**, merely add the **r** and **st**.
brave braver bravest
2. With other adjectives sometimes double the final consonant before you add **er** and **est**.
big bigger biggest
3. With others just add **er** and **est**.
cold colder coldest
new newer newest

8. WORD PATTERNS

Short a Sounds:

- ab cab, dab, gab, jab, lab, nab, tab, blab,
 flab, slab, crab, drab, grab, scab, stab
- ack back, hack, jack, pack, rack, sack, tack, black,
 slack, crack, track, shack, whack, smack, snack, stack
- ad ad, bad, cad, dad, fad, had,
 lad, mad, pad, sad, clad, glad, shad
- ag bag, gag, hag, lag, nag, rag, sag, tag,
 wag, brag, drag, flag, shag, snag, stag
- am am, ham, jam, clam, slam, swam
- amp camp, damp, lamp, champ, clamp, cramp, stamp, tramp
- an an, ban, can, fan, man, pan, ran, tan,
 van, clan, plan, scan, span, than
- and and, band, hand, land, sand, gland, grand, stand
- ang bang, fang, gang, hang, rang, sang, tang, clang, slang

-ank bank, rank, sank, tank, yank, blank, clank,
plank, crank, drank, frank, spank, thank

-ap cap, gap, lap, map, nap, rap, sap,
tap, chap, clap, flap, slap, snap, trap

-ash ash, bash, cash, dash, gash, hash, lash, mash,
rash, sash, clash, crash, smash, stash, trash

-asp asp, gasp, hasp, rasp, clasp

-ass ass, bass, lass, mass, pass, brass, grass, class, glass

-ast cast, fast, last, mast, past, vast, blast

-at at, bat, cat, fat, hat, mat, pat, rat,
sat, vat, brat, chat, flat, slat, scat, that

-atch catch, hatch, latch, match, patch, thatch

-ath bath, path, wrath

-ax ax, wax, flax

Short e Sounds:

-eck deck, heck, neck, peck, check, speck

-ed bed, fed, led, red, wed, bled, fled, sled, shed, sped

-eg beg, egg, keg, leg, peg

-elf elf, self, shelf

-ell bell, dell, fell, hell, sell, tell, well,
yell, quell, shell, smell, spell, swell

-elp help, yelp

-elt belt, felt, melt

-em hem, them, stem

-en den, hen, men, pen, ten, glen, then, when

-end end, bend, lend, mend, send, blend, spend, trend

-ent bend, dent, lent, rent, sent, tent, went, spent

-ept kept, wept

-ess less, mess, bless, chess, dress

-est best, nest, pest, rest, test, vest, west, chest, crest, quest

-et bet, get, jet, let, met, net, pet, set, wet, yet, fret

Short i Sounds:

-ib bib, fib, rib, crib

-ick kick, lick, nick, pick, sick, tick, wick, brick,
trick, chick, thick, click, flick, slick, quick, stick

-id bid, did, hid, kid, lid, rid, grid, skid, slid

-ift gift, lift, rift, sift, drift, shift, swift,

-ig big, dig, fig, jig, pig, rig, wig, brig, swig

-ilk bilk, milk, silk

-ill bill, fill, gill, hill, kill, mill, pill, rill, sill,
till, will, chill, drill, grill, quill, spill, skill, still

-im dim, him, rim, skim, slim, swim, trim, whim

-in in, bin, din, fin, kin, pin, sin, tin, win,
chin, shin, thin, grin, skin, spin, twin

-inch inch, cinch, pinch, clinch

-ing bing, ring, sing, wing, bring, fling, sling, sting, swing, thing

-ink ink, pink, sink, wink, blink, slink, stink, think

-int hint, mint, tint, flint

-ip dip, hip, lip, nip, rip, sip, tip, yip, zip, chip,
ship, whip, flip, slip, grip, trip, quip, skip, snip

-ish dish, fish, wish, swish

-iss hiss, kiss, miss, bliss

-ist fist, list, mist, twist

-it it, bit, fit, hit, kit, lit, pit, sit, wit,
grit, mitt, quit, slit, skit, spit, twit,

-itch itch, ditch, pitch, witch, stitch, switch

-ive give, live

-ix fix, mix, six, twix

Short o Sounds:

-ob cob, fob, gob, job, rob, mob, sob, blob, slob, snob

-ock cock, dock, hock, lock, mock, pock, rock, sock, tock,
clock, flock, crock, frock, shock, smock, stock

-od cod, God, hod, nod, pod, rod, sod, clod, plod, shod

-og bog, cog, dog, fog, hog, jog, log, clog, frog, smog

-oll doil, loll, moll

-on on, don, non, yon

-ond bond, fond, pond

-ong bong, gong, long, song, tong, wrong, strong

-ot cot, dot, got, hot, not, pot, rot, blot,
clot, plot, slot, shot, spot, trot

-ox ox, box, fox

Short u Sounds:

-ub cub, dub, hub, nub, pub, rub, sub, tub, club, grub, stub

-uck buck, duck, luck, muck, puck, suck, tuck,
chuck, shuck, cluck, pluck, stuck

-ud bud, cud, mud, stud, thud

-uff buff, cuff, huff, muff, puff, bluff, gruff, stuff

-ug bug, dug, hug, jug, mug, pug, rug,
tug, chug, thug, plug, slug, smug

-ull cull, dull, gull, hull, lull, mull, null, skull

-um bum, gum, hum, mum, rum, sum, glum, slum, drum, scum, chum

-ump bump, dump, hump, jump, lump, pump,
clump, plump, slump, stump, thump

-un bun, fun, gun, nun, pun, run, sun, shun, spun, stun

-unch bunch, lunch, punch, brunch, crunch

-ung dung, hung, lung, rung, sung, clung, flung, stung, swung

-unk bunk, dunk, hunk, junk, sunk, chunk, drunk, flunk, skunk

-up up, cup, pup, sup

-us us, bus, plus, thus

-ush gush, hush, lush, mush, rush, blush,
flush, plush, slush, brush, crush, shush

-usk dusk, husk, tusk

-ust bust, dust, just, lust, must, rust, crust

-ut but, cut, gut, hut, jut, nut, rut, shut

-uzz buzz, fuzz

Long a Sounds:

-ace ace, face, lace, mace, pace, race, brace, place, space

-ade fade, jade, lade, made, wade, blade,
glade, grade, trade, shade, spade

-age age, cage, page, rage, sage, wage, stage

-aid aid, laid, maid, paid, raid, braid

-ail ail, bail, fail, hail, jail, mail, nail, pail, rail, sail,
tail, vail, wail, frail, quail, snail, trail

-aim aim, maim

-ain gain, main, pain, rain, vain, brain, drain,
grain, train, chain, plain, slain, stain

-aint faint, paint, saint, quaint

-ait bait, gait, wait, trait

-ale ale, dale, gale, hale, kale, male, pale, sale,
tale, vale, scale, shale, stale, whale

-ame came, dame, fame, game, lame, name,
same, tame, blame, flame, frame, shame

-ane cane, lane, mane, pane, sane, vane, wane, crane

-ape ape, cape, gape, nape, rape, tape, drape, grape, shape

-ase base, case, vase

-aste baste, haste, paste, taste, waste, chaste

-ate ate, date, fate, gate, hate, late, mate, rate,
sate, crate, grate, plate, skate, slate, state

-ave cave, gave, nave, pave, rave, save, wave
brave, crave, grave, shave, slave

-ay bay, day, gay, hay, jay, lay, may, nay, pay, ray,
say, way, clay, play, fray, gray, tray, stay, sway

-aze daze, faze, gaze, haze, maze, raze, blaze, glaze, graze

-eigh eight, sleigh, weigh

Long e Sounds:

-e be, he, me, we, she

-ea pea, sea, tea, flea, plea

-each each, beach, peach, reach, teach, bleach

-ead bead, lead, read, plead

-eak beak, leak, peak, weak, bleak, freak, speak

-eal deal, heal, meal, peal, real, seal, veal, zeal, steal

-eam beam, ream, seam, team, cream, dream, gleam

-ear bean, dean, lean, mean, wean, clean, glean

-eap heap, leap, reap, cheap

-east east, beast, feast, least

-eat eat, beat, feat, heat, meat, neat, peat,
seat, cheat, cleat, pleat, treat, wheat

-eech beech, leech

-eed deed, feed, heed, need, seed, weed, bleed, breed,
creed, freed, greed, speed, steed, tweed

-ee bee, fee, see, tee, wee, free, tree, glee, thee, three

-eef beef, reef

-eek leek, meek, peek, reek, seek, week, cheek, creek, sleek

-eel eel, feel, heel, keel, peel, reel

-eem deem, seem, teem

-een keen, seen, teen, green, queen, sheen

-eep beep, deep, jeep, keep, peep, seep,
weep, creep, sheep, sleep, steep, sweep

-eet beet, feet, meet, fleet, greet, sheet, sleet, sweet, tweet

-ief brief, chief, grief, thief
-y carry, marry, bunny, funny, sunny

Long i Sounds:

-ice ice, lice, mice, nice, rice, vice, slice, spice, twice
-ide bide, hide, ride, side, tide, wide, bride, glide, slide
-ie die, lie, pie, tie, vie
-ife life, rife, wife
-igh high, nigh, sigh, thigh
-ight fight, light, might, night, right, sight, tight
 bright, fright, flight, plight, slight
-ike bike, dike, hike, like, mike, pike, spike
-ild mild, wild, child
-ile file, mile, pile, rile, tile, vile, smile, while
-ime dime, lime, time, chime, crime, grime, slime
-ind bind, find, hind, kind, mind, rind, wind, blind, grind
-ine dine, fine, line, mine, nine, pine, tine, vine,
 shine, spine, swine, thine, twine, whine
-ipe pipe, ripe, wipe, gripe, swipe
-ire ire, dire, fire, hire, mire, sire, tire, wire
-ise rise, wise
-ite bite, kite, mite, site, quite, spite, white
-ive dive, five, hive, live, chive, drive
-y by, my, cry, dry, fly, ply, fry, shy, sky, sly, spy, sty, thy, try
-ye dye, eye, lye, rye

Long o Sounds:

-o go, no, so
-oach coach, poach, roach

-oad goad, load, road, toad
 -oal coal, goal
 -oam foam, loam, roam
 -oan loan, moan, roan, groan
 -oast boast, coast, roast, toast
 -oat oat, boat, coat, goat, moat, bloat, float, gloat
 -obe lobe, robe, globe
 -ode ode, bode, code, mode, rode
 -oe doe, foe, hoe, toe, woe
 -oke coke, joke, poke, woke, yoke, bloke, choke, smoke, spoke
 -old old, bold, cold, gold, hold, mold, sold, told
 -ole dole, hole, mole, pole, role, stole
 -olt bolt, colt, dolt, jolt, volt
 -ome dome, home, Nome
 -one bone, cone, lone, pone, tone, zone, shone, stone
 -ope cope, dope, hope, mope, rope, scope, slope
 -ose hose, nose, pose, rose, chose, those, close
 -ost host, most, post
 -ote note, rote, tote, vote, quote
 -ove cove, dove, rove, wove
 -ow bow, low, mow, row, sow, tow, blow,
 flow, glow, slow, crow, grow, show, snow

Long u Sounds:

-ew few, hew, blew, flew, slew, chew, crew, drew, grew, stew
 -ule mule, yule
 -use use, fuse, muse
 -ute cute, mute, flute

Other Sounds in Word Patterns:

-all	all, ball, call, fall, gall, hall, mall, tall, wall, small, stall
-alk	talk, walk, chalk, stalk
-ar	bar, car, far, jar, par, tar, scar, star
-arch	march, parch, starch
-arge	barge, large, charge
-ark	bark, dark, hark, lark, mark, park, shark, spark, stark
-arm	farm, harm, charm
-arn	barn, darn, yarn
-arp	carp, harp, sharp
-arsh	harsh, marsh
-aught	caught, naught, taught
-aul	haul, maul
-aunch	haunch, launch, paunch, staunch
-aunt	gaunt, haunt, jaunt, taunt, vaunt
-ause	cause, pause, clause
-aw	caw, jaw, law, maw, raw, saw, chaw, claw, flaw, draw
-awl	awl, bawl, brawl, crawl, shawl
-en	brighten, dampen, darken, freshen, hasten, lengthen, shorten, silken
-er	either, fatter, matter, poorer, richer, scatter
-ern	fern, stern
-ew	dew, Jew, new, brew, crew, drew, grew, chew, flew, slew, stew
-ird	bird, gird, third
-irl	girl, swirl, twirl, whirl
-irt	dirt, shirt, skirt, squirt
-oard	board, hoard
-oice	voice, choice
-oil	oil, boil, coil, foil, soil, toil, broil, spoil

-oin coin, loin
 -oint joint, point
 -oise noise, poise
 -oist foist, hoist, joist, moist
 -oo boo, coo, moo, too, zco, shoo
 -ood food, mood, brood
 -ook book, cook, hook, look, nook, took, brook, crook, shook
 -ool cool, fool, pool, drool, spool, stool
 -oom boom, doom, loom, room, zoom, gloom, groom
 -oon boon, coon, goon, loon, moon, noon, soon, spoon, swoon
 -oop coop, hoop, loop, droop, troop, scoop, stoop, swoop
 -oost boost, roost
 -oot boot, hoot, loot, root, toot, scoot, shoot
 -ooth booth, tooth
 -or or, for, nor
 -ord cord, ford, lord
 -ore ore, wore, chore, score, swore
 -ork cork, fork, pork, York, stork
 -orm form, norm, storm
 -orn born, corn, horn, morn, torn, worn
 -ort fort, sort, tort
 -orth forth, north
 -ouch ouch, couch, pouch, vouch
 -ought ought, bought, fought, sought, brought, thought
 -ould could, would, should
 -ound bound, found, hound, mound, pound, round, sound, wound, ground
 -our four, pour
 -ouse house, louse, mouse

-out out, bout, gout, pout, shout, spout, stout, trout
-outh mouth, south
-ow bow, cow, how, now, vow, wow, plow
-owl owl, cowl, fowl, howl, jowl, yowl
-own down, gown, town, brown, crown, clown, frown
-sion decision, division, occasion, collision, television
-tion action, motion, nation, mention, fraction, attention
-ude dude, nude, rude, crude
-ue rue, sue, blue, clue, glue, true
-uke duke, Luke
-ull bull, full, pull
-une dune, June, tune
-ush bush, push
-ute lute, flute

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