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ABSTRACT

This book (the 72nd and last in the annual series) summarizes approximately 500 reports of reading research identified between July 1, 1995 and June 30, 1996. The research studies in the book are categorized into 6 major areas: (1) summaries of reading research; (2) teacher preparation and practice; (3) sociology of reading; (4) physiology and psychology of reading; (5) the teaching of reading; and (6) reading of atypical learners. All but the first category in the book are further subcategorized, and individual studies within subcategories are grouped by subject. An author index and a list of journals monitored conclude the book. (RS)

Annual Summary of Investigations Relating to Reading

July 1, 1995 to June 30, 1996

Editor
Sam Weintraub

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Editor

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Foreword

Recognizing a 30-Year Contribution to the Literacy Research Field

It is with great admiration that we all bid adieu to the *Annual Summary of Investigations Relating to Reading* and to Sam Weintraub's unfaltering dedication to excellence. My professional association with Sam has been close and continuous since we served as coeditors of *Reading Research Quarterly* (*RRQ*) from 1969 to 1979. Sam's efforts fulfilling that editorial responsibility are indicative of his top-level professionalism, which has dictated his contributions to the field of language development and, which is tied directly to his amazing contribution in producing the *Annual Summary* for almost 30 years.

Beginning in 1968, Sam was editing the *Annual Summary*, which was then published in *Reading Research Quarterly*. From that year through the present, Sam has overseen the massive task of collecting, critically summarizing, classifying, and editing this collection in *RRQ* and as a separate publication. My observations of the painstakingly careful procedure and my reliance on the inclusive and dependable product that results from it have always suggested to me that it is in itself a full-time responsibility. Sam has done it in conjunction with all his other professional responsibilities as a teacher, editor, researcher, and writer. All of us in the field have valued and depended on the results, but it has always seemed to me that while the extremely demanding and vital responsibility cannot be called a thankless task, it clearly goes underrewarded. What can be done, I have frequently asked myself, to encourage the essential kind of work that Sam Weintraub performs? How can young scholars be encouraged to undertake it?

I am convinced that few others would have continued the work of William S. Gray and Helen Robinson with the kind of focused care that Sam Weintraub dedicated to make the *Annual Summary* such a dependable and essential tool for students, teachers, and researchers alike. Much that has evolved in our understanding of reading and other language-related behaviors is directly related to the responsibility that Sam assumed.

We need to remain aware in 1997 that most of Sam's work on the *Summary* was conducted in decades before the development of computerized databases and that it was accomplished with standards and quality control that can be applied to few, if any, such computer-based collections. While Sam with his intense professional care would be the first to insist that the success of the *Summary* relied equally on leadership of other scholars who were his coeditors and contributors, those who worked with him would be unanimous, I am sure, in acknowledging Sam Weintraub's indispensable leadership.

One must be aware, too, that the *Annual Summary*, which now comprises thousands of pages of references, grew out of the William S. Gray collection and is its

continuation in direct lineage. Dr. Gray's effort to gather and protect thousands of documents on reading testified to his remarkable insight and wisdom; and that effort and impact has been matched, I believe, by Sam Weintraub's devotion to its long continuation.

This is the 72nd and last *Summary.* It has been a remarkable stewardship of the collection and intention of William S. Gray and an invaluable contribution to the understanding and improvement of language development and thus to the goal for universal literacy. This career-long effort reaffirms the values and dedicated interests of William S. Gray himself—and all of us concerned with the pursuit of excellence in service to education.

Roger Farr
Chancellor's Professor
Indiana University

Introduction

The Annual Summary of Investigations Relating to Reading*: A Historical Note, a Note of Thanks, and a Reflective Note*

In previous years, an introduction often accompanied the *Annual Summary.* Among those introductions were ones that dealt with various aspects of the publication's history (Clymer & Summers, 1965; Robinson, 1968; Summers & Farr, 1969; Johns, 1982; Weintraub, 1987). Because this *Annual Summary* is to be the final one published, it seems fitting that a brief history of the *Summary* be reprised. In addition, an acknowledgment of the many individuals who have worked on and for the *Summary* over the years is offered as well as a brief final thought or two on changes in reading research over time.

A 72-Year Run

The *Annual Summary* has had a 72-year run—not an insignificant accomplishment in an era when many things do not last even 72 minutes. In 1925, the late William S. Gray published the *Summary of Investigations Relating to Reading.* In that publication, Gray cited and abstracted 436 scientific investigations of reading carried out in several countries and conducted from years 1880 to 1924. The 275-page monograph includes sections on reading in modern life; the uses of reading in school; the values of various methods of beginning reading; the interpretation of, speed of processing, interest in, and content of different reading materials; and a historical sketch of language and reading. The topics were selected in order to inform teachers, supervisors, and researchers of the research in reading and its implications. Gray hoped to offer readers of the *Summary* facts and principles that could be used to improve the teaching of reading and to reorganize courses of study in reading. It was his hope also that the *Summary* would provide an indication of progress being made in the scientific study of reading and afford researchers suggestions for other problems needing to be investigated. The next year, Gray followed his initial publication with a supplement that included 73 studies covering the year July 1, 1924, to June 30, 1925. An article appeared every year thereafter under the title *Summary of Reading Investigations* covering the year between July 1 and June 30. In 1959, with the growing interdependence among various fields, Gray changed the title to that of the first monograph, again with each current year attached.

It was Gray's intent that the *Summary* be a repository for what exists rather than an evaluative comment. It was up to the reader to go from the abstract to the original source and determine its credibility. Indeed, beginning in the 1930s, Gray prefaced each *Summary* with a statement to that effect.

Gray first published the *Summary* in *The Elementary School Journal* and then in the *Journal of Educational Research* until his death in September 1960. His col-

league at the University of Chicago, Helen M. Robinson, who had completed her doctorate with Gray, assumed authorship and remained the major author and editor until she retired in 1968. Under her guidance, the *Summary* was moved to *The Reading Teacher*, and then, at the request of *Reading Research Quarterly* editors Theodore Clymer and Edward G. Summers, it appeared as one issue of *Reading Research Quarterly* beginning with Volume 1. Robinson modified and added to the categorization schema used in the *Summary* and adopted other organizational features. Upon Robinson's retirement, I assumed the role as major author and editor of the *Summary*. It continued as one issue of *RRQ* until 1978, when it appeared in monograph form again, published by the International Reading Association.

While it was compiled at the University of Chicago, the *Annual Summary* was supported by funds supplied by Gray and later by the Reading Research Center. For a short period after the move to Indiana University, support came from Educational Resource Information Center/Clearinghouse on Retrieval Information and Evaluation on Reading (ERIC/CRIER) and Indiana University. The International Reading Association has supported the work of the *Annual Summary* since 1972.

In his 1982 introduction to the *Summary*, Jerry Johns reported that 12,756 studies had been abstracted since the original 1925 publication through the 1978–79 *Summary*. As of this publication, approximately 25,000 research studies have been abstracted, categorized, and included in subsequent volumes.

The *Annual Summary* has offered scholars, researchers, and anyone interested in the field of reading a source for locating much of the published research in the field. The research has been placed into broad categories that have remained essentially the same over the years. Thus it has been possible for anyone interested in a particular topic to locate in the summaries what had been done in a given area over the years. From the abstract and citation, the interested individual could then find the original publication for complete information. True to Gray's original intent, the *Summary* did not evaluate research but continued as a repository of available research information. No other field in education had such a resource. A similar abstracting service had been initiated by Guy Buswell for the field of mathematics but was discontinued after several years. Although the base of studies in the original ERIC/CRIER came from the *Annual Summary*, there appeared to be little overlap between the journals monitored by the two resources. However, with technological advances and the availability of the Internet allowing access to libraries around the world, the *Summary* may no longer be as unique nor as useful as it once was. Thus the recommendation by IRA's Publications Committee to discontinue it. Therefore, this issue marks the end of the 72-year run of the *Annual Summary*.

A Note of Personal Thanks

Over the years, I have been most fortunate to have had as coauthors a number of excellent and selfless individuals. These people have given their time willingly and deserve a vote of thanks, not only from me but also from the profession. Among

them, the individuals named have given over 100 years of service to the International Reading Association, contributing freely of their time to the *Annual Summary*. Current coauthors are cited first, followed by past coauthors.

Helen K. Smith began as a coauthor when she was at the University of Chicago and Helen Robinson was major author. She has been a loyal and faithful worker for the *Summary* for more than 30 years. The debt of gratitude owed her is immense.

Nancy Roser, University of Texas, has done yeoman's work for the *Summary*, too. I called upon her to help in 1975, and she has been faithful in her service ever since.

Walter J. Moore has a most interesting history with the *Summary*, for his affiliation hearkens back to the days when he served as William S. Gray's research assistant, a role he carried out until called upon by E.W. Dolch to teach reading courses at the University of Illinois. He has been a coauthor since 1984.

Kathleen S. Jongsma works full time with the Northside Independent School District in San Antonio, Texas, and is a current member of IRA's Board of Directors. She began working with the *Summary* in the fall of 1984, while affiliated with Texas Woman's University.

Mary Anne Doyle's (University of Connecticut) name first appeared as a coauthor on the *Summary* with the 1990 edition.

Maria Ceprano, St. Bonaventure University, began with the 1991 *Summary*; thus, this volume marks her seventh year of service in abstracting for the *Summary*.

Diane Graham Truscott, now at Eastern Connecticut State University, began coauthoring the *Summary* while still a doctoral student at State University of New York at Buffalo and my research assistant. Her name, too, appears first on the 1991 *Summary*.

Susan M. Watts, University of Minnesota, has served as a coauthor beginning with the 1994 publication.

Isabel Cavour, University of Dayton, is the newest coauthor on the *Summary*. This is her first year. She has taken particular interest in the research dealing with the reading of bilingual and English as a second language individuals.

Past coauthors are listed in chronological order in terms of the dates they served: Helen M. Robinson, Gus P. Plessas, Michael Rowls, Walter R. Hill, Michael W. Kibby, Frances Beck, Peter J.L. Fisher, Eugene A. Jongsma.

To each of the above, current and past, I offer my sincere gratitude.

In addition, there were always those individuals who stood behind me and identified the materials to be included. They were supported through their doctoral programs by funds from grants for the work of the *Summary*, and I have been most fortunate in having had such competent individuals to aid me. To each of them, too, goes a thank you. Beginning with my first doctoral research assistant, they are as follows:

William P. Morris
Molly Ransbury
Sr. John Louis Matthews
Beverly Farr
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Douglas Rogers
Robin Erwin

Jacquilin Stitt
Michael Rowls
Charlotte Kauppi
Sandra Cerenzia
Maria Ceprano
Jill Fitzgerald
Peter J.L. Fisher
Ellen Friedland
Diane Graham Truscott
James Schwartz
Reongrudee Narannun
Poonam Arya

Few efforts are successful without the help of a good secretary. There, too, I have been most fortunate through the years. Two of these rare people, Margaret Taylor and Julie Schneider, are no longer living, but are remembered with much warmth. Two others, Margaret Collins and my current secretary, Eunice Garey, have been of invaluable help.

The individuals I have named are by no means all those to whom some measure of thanks is due. There have been the work-study students who had the task of photocopying materials through the years. Thank goodness for them! And, certainly not least important, there were those persons who served as the chair of departments through my years at Indiana University and SUNY at Buffalo and, without whose support, a project such as the *Annual Summary* would never have been possible. So I thank Leo Fay and Carl Smith of Indiana University, the late William Eller of SUNY at Buffalo, and finally Michael W. Kibby also of SUNY at Buffalo, my most recent and my final chair. And to one very exceptional individual, Roger Farr of Indiana University, who was my coeditor of *RRQ* for ten years, for his support and encouragement through our coediting years and beyond, a very special thanks.

As I write this, I begin to feel like one of the award winners at the Oscars. But thanks, too, is due to the excellent help I have received over the years from the staff at IRA—every editor I have worked with there has been superb. They have been patient, kind, and considerate in all their dealings with me. What is more, they have saved me from many foolish errors because of the care with which they have approached their work with the *Summary*.

Some Thoughts and Reflections

It is not possible to have worked with the *Annual Summary* for over 30 years without having some feeling for the changes that have occurred in the research being published over that period. Certainly, the research being reported now is different in many respects from that which was published in the 1960s. Although I have not made a thorough, careful study of those changes, I offer my general observations.

First, the recent research shows a great deal more focus on classrooms and teachers. There has been an increase in "action research." When I first began with the *Summary*, action research was frowned upon; it was not considered "real" research but something that was often done by a classroom teacher without the rigor of thought, implementation, and analysis, which the "true" scholar brought to bear upon his or her research. It was deemed to be of lesser quality than other research. This,

of course, is no longer the case. Indeed, one can find an increasing amount of research in which university and public school personnel collaborate. The focus of a considerable body of research is now on the classroom. In addition, the category in the *Annual Summary* under the heading "Teacher Preparation and Practice" has grown considerably within the last several years.

A second change has been the increase in qualitative studies now being published, thereby indicating a greater acceptance of such research. With some exceptions, qualitative studies, like action research, at one point were not always deemed to be at the same level of rigor as quantitative studies. For a study to be taken seriously, often it was necessary and important to include sophisticated statistical techniques. The winds of change have swept this notion away. Perhaps because the label is "in" and also, I suspect, because some feel that it is easier to do than to deal with statistics, more qualitative studies are being carried out. However, what is termed "qualitative" varies enormously both in kind and in quality. Regrettably, more than a bit has little quality to it. The same criticism can be and has been made of quantitative research—often, in instances of both types, deservedly so.

Notable all too often, too, with the research in reading is the schism between the qualitative and the quantitative researchers. While some individuals have combined the two in one study, there frequently exists the "us versus them" mentality. How unfortunate that we cannot see the strengths of each as well as the weaknesses and use those strengths to come up with better answers to our many problems. Too, only a few researchers have begun to struggle with the considerable moral issues involved in conducting various kinds of research. And only a small number appear to publicly recognize that both qualitative and quantitative research are limited by the blinders worn by the researcher and by the research community.

A major problem, in my opinion, is that current researchers are not always aware of research done in the 1960s let alone the exemplary studies of the 1920s or earlier. When one looks at the reference listings of some current studies, it would appear that nothing was done prior to 1990 and certainly not before 1980. One of the purposes of the summary that Gray and Robinson had intended was to make it easier for a researcher to identify research that had preceded, so it would not be repeated, but could be built upon. There is still a very real need to do this. Often, the ability to do this means searching far enough back to find the beginnings of what we want to study.

Yet, with all the problems, it is my feeling that the research I read for the most recent summaries is, on the whole, of better quality than that done 30 years ago. It is only my feeling, but it is something that would be worth investigating.

These last statements are but surface comments made without careful study. They are not intended as truth but are the result of general feelings on my part. As authors of almost all studies state, further research is needed.

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Abbreviations

Abbreviations have been used with certain terms and test names that appear frequently in reading research reports.

TERMS

ANCOVA	Analysis of Covariance
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
CA	Chronological Age
CAI	Computer Assisted Instruction
CRT	Cathode Ray Tube
DRA	Directed Reading Activity
DRTA	Directed Reading-Thinking Activity
EH	Emotionally Handicapped
EMR	Educable Mentally Retarded
ESL	English as a Second Language
GPA	Grade Point Average
IQ	Intelligence Quotient
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
LD	Learning Disabled
LVF	Left Visual Field
MA	Mental Age
MANOVA	Multivariate Analysis of Variance
RA	Reading Age
RD	Reading Disabled
RT	Reaction Time
RVF	Right Visual Field
SES	Socioeconomic Status
VF	Visual Field

TESTS

ACT	American College Test
CAT	California Achievement Test
CTBS	Comprehensive Tests of Basic Skills
DRP	Degrees of Reading Power
GMRT	Gates–MacGinitie Reading Tests
GORT	Gray Oral Reading Test
IRI	Informal Reading Inventory
ITBS	Iowa Test of Basic Skills
ITPA	Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities
MAT	Metropolitan Achievement Tests
MRT	Metropolitan Readiness Test
NARA	Neale Analysis of Reading Abilities
NDRT	Nelson–Denny Reading Test
PIAT	Peabody Individual Achievement Test
PMAT	Primary Mental Abilities Test
PPVT	Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test
RMI	Reading Miscue Inventory
RPM	Raven's Progressive Matrices

SAT	Scholastic Assessment Test
Schonell	Schonell Graded Word Reading Test
SDRT	Stanford Diagnostic Reading Test
SIT	Slosson Intelligence Test
Spache DRS	Spache Diagnostic Reading Scales
SRA	Science Research Associates Achievement Series
TORC	Test of Reading Comprehension
WAIS-R	Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale–Revised
WISC-R	Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children–Revised
WISC-III	Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children–Third Edition
WJ–R	Woodcock-Johnson Psycho-Educational Battery–Revised
WPPSI	Wechsler Preschool and Primary Scale of Intelligence
WRAT	Wide Range Achievement Test
WRMT	Woodcock Reading Mastery Test

*Annual Summary of Investigations Relating to Reading July 1, 1995 to June 30, 1996**

SUMMARIZES reports of reading research identified between July 1, 1995, and June 30, 1996. The research studies are categorized into six major areas, five of which have been further subcategorized. As in previous years, the majority of studies reported were classified into the Physiology and Psychology of Reading category. Over 300 journals are monitored for inclusion along with monographs, books, conference proceedings, and yearbooks.

Order of Studies Within Subcategories

STUDIES in the *Annual Summary* are subcategorized under five of the six major categories (Category 1 consists of general reviews only and is not subcategorized). Within any one subcategory will appear a number of loosely related studies. While all the research within one category falls under the same general rubric, the studies will vary markedly in emphasis, in the question being addressed, and/or in the focus. Thus, studies have been grouped within subcategories also. For example, under Factors Related to Reading Disability, those studies that address dyslexia appear together, while those that deal with strategies used by good and by poor readers would be placed in juxtaposition. The reader looking for research on one particular aspect of reading disabilities would then find them all in one spot rather than dispersed haphazardly throughout the subcategory as might be the case if they were listed alphabetically by author.

*Materials for inclusion were identified by Reongrudee Naranunn, at the time, a doctoral student in the Reading Program at SUNY at Buffalo. Dr. Naranunn is now on the faculty of Chulalongkorn University in Bangkok, Thailand, where she serves as a member of the Language Institute. Another doctoral student, Poonam Arya, also aided in the task of identifying materials for this year's summary. A special thanks is due to Eunice Garey who served as the secretary for the summary and kept track of where everything was. Thanks, too, to Bill Strachan, a very conscientious and dedicated work study student who did the photocopying of identified materials. And to Janet Parrack and the staff at IRA Headquarters, for their careful editing of the manuscript as well as for their efforts in numerous other ways, I tender my gratitude. Support for the work of the *Annual Summary* was supplied by a grant from the International Reading Association.

I. Summaries of reading research

SAKS, A.L., & LARSON, RICHARD L. (1995, December). Annotated bibliography of research in the teaching of English. *Research in the Teaching of English, 29*, 451–467.

Presents a selected annotated bibliography of research in the teaching of English. Items selected for inclusion are drawn from dissertation abstracts, articles, and books published from January to June preceding publication of the article. Annotations are categorized under the following major headings: historical studies, language, literature, research education, teacher education, and writing. Several of the categories are further subcategorized.

SAKS, A.L., & LARSON, RICHARD L. (1996, May). Annotated bibliography of research in the teaching of English. *Research in the Teaching of English, 30*, 248–275.

Covers the time period from July to December preceding the publication of the article. Selected research in the teaching of English is cited, categorized, and annotated under six major headings. Subcategories appear under several of the major categories. Included are books, articles, and dissertations.

Annotated bibliography for mini-series. (1995) *School Psychology Review, 24*(3), 440–442.

Cites and annotates 12 publications dealing with various aspects of research in reading. Citations cover the period from 1990 to 1995.

WEINTRAUB, SAM; SMITH, HELEN K.; ROSER, NANCY L.; MOORE, WALTER J.; JONGSMA, KATHLEEN J.; DOYLE, MARY ANNE E.; CEPRANO, MARIA A.; TRUSCOTT, DIANE M. GRAHAM; & WATTS, SUSAN M. (1996). *Annual summary of investigations relating to reading, July 1, 1994 to June 30, 1995*. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Abstracts and categorizes research in reading identified during the period from July 1, 1994, to June 30, 1995. The research is categorized under six major areas, five of which are further subcategorized. Major categories include summaries of reading research, teacher preparation and practice, sociology of reading, physiology and psychology of reading, teaching of reading, and reading of atypical readers.

II. Teacher preparation and practice

II–1 Behavior, performance, knowledge, practice, and effectiveness

MOJE, ELIZABETH B. (1996, April/June). "I teach students, not subjects": Teacher-student relationships as contexts for secondary literacy. *Reading Research Quarterly, 31*, 172–195.

Describes how a veteran high school chemistry teacher and her students used literacy in a first-year, basic chemistry class. Using ethnographic methodology, data were collected over a 2-year period, focusing on the teacher and her 14 male and 8 female students in the second year of the study. Primary data sources included 15 interviews with 7 student informants, daily informal interviews with teacher and students, and 7 formal interviews with the teacher. The researcher describes the relationship established between the teacher and her students and contextualizes their uses of and decisions about literacy, arguing that the relationship estab-

lished between the teacher and her students motivated them to engage in literacy activities. Because the teacher was concerned about her students' success, she searched for pedagogical strategies, literacy strategies, in particular, that she felt would ensure success (and that were consonant with her view of learning in her discipline). Students appreciated the teacher's concern and responded positively to the strategies she taught, although they did not always transfer the strategies to other content classes. The author provides details of literacy uses in this classroom, interprets the participants' experiences and beliefs about teaching and learning and the meanings they made from their classroom interactions, and explains how the interactions led to the development of relationships that contextualized their literacy practices.

PRESSLEY, MICHAEL; RANKIN, JOAN; & YOKOI, LINDA. (1996, March). A survey of instructional practices of primary teachers nominated as effective in promoting literacy. *The Elementary School Journal, 96*, 363–384.

Surveys primary teachers identified as effective in educating their pupils as readers and writers in order to determine their instructional practices. Participants were identified by elementary reading supervisors and were mailed questionnaires. Responses were obtained from 23 kindergarten teachers, 34 first grade teachers, and 26 second grade teachers. Respondents were from 23 states. A first questionnaire requested teachers to identify three lists of 10 practices they believed to be essential in their literacy instruction: one list each for good, average, and poor readers. A list of 300 practices generated from the responses was categorized along with responses received from special education teachers, and a new questionnaire was sent to the primary teachers. Results indicated that as grade level increased, instruction focused more on higher order competencies. All teachers claimed to provide a literate environment in their classrooms that included in-class libraries. Practice on isolated skills was reported as averaging 13% of the literacy instructional day, and respondents (59%) reported the use of drills for letter recognition, phonics, and spelling. A combination of whole-group, small-group, and individual instruction and individual seatwork was reported, with more whole-group instruction reported than small-group instruction. Teachers reported an average of 46% of their instruction was done with cooperative grouping, and 55 teachers indicated the use of ability grouping. Teachers (96%) indicated that children were permitted to progress in literacy at their own pace. Teachers (93%) reported that reading instruction occurred across the curriculum. Respondents reported attending more to lower order skills with poor readers than with good readers.

IRESON, JUDITH; BLATCHFORD, PETER; & JOSCELYNE, TRISH. (1995, September). What do teachers do? Classroom activities in the initial teaching of reading. *Educational Psychology, 15*, 245–256.

Reports information from teachers in the greater London area about their practices and views concerning the teaching of reading. The final sample consisted of 121 teachers from 65 schools: 31 reception class teachers, 29 year 1 teachers, 30 year 2, and 31 year 3. In addition, 57 headteachers were interviewed. Teachers were selected in pairs from each school to include either a reception class teacher and a year 2 teacher or a year 1 and year 3 teacher. The data collection process included interviews; questionnaires including a 55-item checklist, questions about practices in listening to children read, classroom organization and management, parental help, and perceived adequacy of resources; and teacher diary records. Teachers of younger children placed more emphasis on work with sounds and letters and acted more frequently as a scribe for their pupils than did teachers of older children. Older children were asked to do more reading for topic work and more work on punctuation than younger children. The number of reading activities identified by teachers ranged from 7 to 22, with most teachers reporting between 10 and 18 reading activities a week. All teachers reported reading to the whole class, with 92% indicating that they listened to children read

individually. The most common practice in listening to children was to have them read for 5 to 10 minutes (56%).

MARIAGE, TROY V. (1995, Summer). Why students learn: The nature of teacher talk during reading. *Learning Disability Quarterly, 18*, 214–234.

Examines patterns of talk among low- and high-gaining teachers using a reading comprehension framework termed POSSE. POSSE (predict, organize, search, summarize, and evaluate) helps cue pupils to strategies before (predict and organize), during (search and summarize), and after (evaluate) reading. Two subsamples of more and less effective teachers were identified within a population of 15 college seniors, participating in a 10-week practicum experience in teaching literacy in special education. Pupils' reading comprehension was assessed during week 1 and week 10, using free written recall. Teachers whose pupils showed the greatest average increase in total ideas recalled from pretest to posttest were termed high gainers, and teachers whose pupils showed the lowest average increase from pre- to posttest were identified as low gainers. Three teachers were selected from each group at random. All teachers received 6 hours of instruction in the POSSE procedure during the first week of the semester, taught POSSE two or three times a week for 10 weeks, and taught identical passages in week 5 and week 7. Week 7 lessons were audiotaped, and the teachers' discourse examined both quantitatively and qualitatively while they used the POSSE procedure. Six categories were used in analyzing teacher statements: (1) teacher-initiated statements, (2) teacher evaluative statements, (3) teacher scaffolding statements, (4) teacher modeling of the language of POSSE statements, (5) teacher statements that encouraged risk taking and showed acceptance of pupils' own knowledge, and (6) teacher statements that showed an attempt to transfer control of the reading strategies to pupils. The two groups varied in the quality and quantity of their talk. Low-gaining teachers spent most of their time evaluating pupil responses (48%) or trying to initiate conversations (25%), and devoted much less time to scaffolding, modeling, and attempting to transfer control to pupils. For high-gaining teachers, 63% of statements centered around modeling, scaffolding, and attempting to transfer ownership of the strategies to pupils.

LLOYD, CAROL V. (1995–96). How teachers teach reading comprehension: An examination of four categories of reading comprehension instruction. *Reading Research and Instruction, 35*, 170–184.

Provides descriptive details of the reading comprehension instructional practices of 38 intermediate grade teachers. Each teacher was observed during 2 nonconsecutive lessons over the course of 1 semester during the times they were teaching reading comprehension. The researchers took field notes that described teachers' behaviors and language; pupils' behaviors and language were coded. Four major reading comprehension practices were selected for in-depth analysis based on either their prevalence in the classroom observations or their emerging significance in the research literature. The practices were: (1) background knowledge, (2) vocabulary, (3) imagery, and (4) alignment. Analysis included identification of instructional events, the production of descriptions of those events, and identification of subcategories within the 4 major practices. Results indicated that 95% of teachers employed practices that addressed pupils' background knowledge. Fifty-three percent of teachers asked pupils to make connections between prior lessons and current ones. The most prevalent instructional practice (32%) asked children to share their experience and knowledge related to text ideas. In vocabulary instruction, over half the teachers addressed the pronunciation of words, a practice that accounted for 17% of vocabulary instruction. The most frequently observed vocabulary practices were those that asked pupils to address definitions or synonyms of words devoid of context (37% of practice). Few teachers (26%) employed imagery practices, but of the 21 observed imagery-related instructional events, 13 (62%) were related to directing children to

create pictures in their minds. Similarly, only 8 teachers (21%) directed pupils to put themselves in the story (alignment). The author concludes that some of the comprehension practices have strong theoretical and research support.

BAKER, CLIFF, & SIU-RUNYAN, YVONNE. (1996, Spring). How do teachers across Colorado perceive themselves as reading teachers? *Colorado Reading Council Journal*, *7*, 42–44.

Conducts a survey to identify and define differences between whole language and traditional teachers with regard to classroom practices and professional development. Survey questionnaires were mailed to 1,213 K–6 teachers in 69 Colorado schools; 466 (38%) responses were received. Of the respondents, 74% identified themselves as whole language teachers. Respondents claiming to be whole language teachers indicated that they integrated curricular areas and language arts and believed it important that pupils understand the whole prior to dealing with individual skills. Respondents claiming not to be whole language teachers said that they used a basal program as opposed to trade books, that their instructional focus was on skills and phonics, and that they used a separate subjects approach rather than an integrated curricular areas and language arts approach. Based on scores from a 9-item Likert-scale section of the questionnaire, 77% of teachers identified themselves correctly as whole language teachers, and 23% identified themselves incorrectly as whole language teachers. Of those who claimed to be traditional teachers, 68% correctly identified themselves, but the remaining 32% were actually whole language teachers. Of the 275 teachers identified by the Likert-scale score as whole language teachers, 7% used basals primarily, and 54% did not use them at all; 45% of teachers identified as traditional used basals primarily, and 21% did not use them at all. Additionally, it was found that the two groups did not differ in their reading of fiction and nonfiction books for adults, but that whole language teachers did read professional books as well as books for children and adolescents more often than traditional teachers.

STICE, CAROL F. (1995, Spring/Summer). Low numbers/high hopes: A survey of whole language in Tennessee. *Tennessee Reading Teacher*, *23*, 10–15.

Surveys 135 elementary schools across Tennessee in an effort to determine the proportion with a whole language emphasis. The instrument used was the Theoretical Orientation to Reading Profile (TORP), which uses a 5-point Likert scale to indicate degree of agreement with the statements provided. The total score places a respondent in one of three orientation-to-reading categories: phonics, skills, or whole language. Completed questionnaires were received from 1,483 teachers in 89 schools. Total TORP scores and demographic characteristics of the sample were determined, respondents were placed in one of the three categories, and regression analysis was conducted with the TORP score as the dependent variable. Of the total respondents, 19% reported having a phonics orientation, 79% having a skills orientation, and 2% having a whole language orientation. The oldest mean age group was among phonics oriented teachers.

MORRISON, SHARON H., & WIESENDANGER, KATHERINE D. (1996). A survey of cooperative grouping practices used by elementary school teachers to improve reading comprehension. *Journal of Clinical Reading*, *5*, 1–5.

Reports the results of a survey of upstate New York elementary teachers designed to determine the extent to which they had implemented cooperative grouping to improve pupils' reading comprehension. Of 400 questionnaires distributed, 178 were returned—103 from primary teachers and 75 from middle grade teachers. Findings indicated that teachers had made significant changes in the ways they structured their classrooms over the last decade, with 72% indicating they had changed their classroom structures to include cooperative grouping. Primary grade teachers reported using cooperative grouping more than intermediate grade

teachers (85% to 53%). Results also indicated that teachers were most likely to incorporate cooperative grouping if they had attended a seminar, workshop, or class on the topic. Responses from teachers who indicated they used cooperative grouping revealed that most did so for a substantial amount of their instructional time (60% on average). The disparity of use reported by primary and intermediate grade teachers seemed to be due to middle grade teachers' concerns with managing the distribution of workload among the pupils, the problems of assessment, and the logistics of effective cooperative grouping.

SCHUMM, JEANNE SHAY; VAUGHN, SHARON; & ELBAUM, BATYA E. (1996). Teachers' perceptions of grouping practices for reading instruction. In Donald J. Leu, Charles K. Kinzer, & Kathleen A. Hinchman (Eds.), *Literacies for the 21st century: Research and practice* (pp. 543–552). Chicago, IL: National Reading Conference.

Surveys teachers' perceptions and practices as they relate to grouping for reading instruction. Participants were teachers in grades 3, 4, and 5 in an urban school (n = 108). The questionnaire was administered during grade group meetings with the exception of a few teachers who completed it individually. Results indicate that although the majority of teachers did not have advanced certification in reading (77%) or special education (99%), 94% indicated that their knowledge and skills in teaching reading to general education pupils were either excellent or good. Only 57% reported having this same expertise and confidence when teaching LD pupils. Few teachers (33%) reported that their teacher preparation programs provided coverage of a wide variety of grouping patterns, and 42% had no coverage of grouping practices in their training. Sixty percent of the teachers reported that their reading program was a combination of basal and whole language. Whole-class grouping was the most frequently reported pattern (76%) used by the respondents. An absence of a clear endorsement of one grouping pattern over another in respect to social and academic outcomes was noted. Teachers did not seem to recognize a difference between within-class same and mixed-ability grouping in terms of impact on children's self-esteem.

ELLIOTT, CYNTHIA B. (1996). A process of responsive teaching: A Vygotskian perspective on fostering cognitive strategy use. In Donald J. Leu, Charles K. Kinzer, & Kathleen A. Hinchman (Eds.), *Literacies for the 21st century: Research and practice* (pp. 512–521). Chicago, IL: National Reading Conference.

Questions what teacher reflections indicate about decision making within the cognitive apprenticeship setting of a Reading Recovery lesson. The teacher subject was selected because of her record of success in helping poor readers become independent readers. Data were collected across the intervention program of two children. At 3-week intervals for 3 consecutive days, the teacher verbally reflected about the lessons and her decisions during instruction. These think-aloud protocols, ongoing teaching journal, program records and videotaped lessons served as data sources. Idea units were parsed and categorized and later compared to constructed vignettes. Five categories of teacher decisions were identified: (1) to prompt, (2) to plan, (3) to demonstrate, (4) to confirm, and (5) to hold a tentative theory. Findings offer evidence of the teacher's ability to foster cognitive strategy use from teacher-regulated to child-regulated behaviors.

HASIT, CINDI, & SULLIVAN, JANE. (1995, Winter). Recent changes in instructional practices in the teaching of literacy in New Jersey Schools. *Reading Instruction Journal, 38*, 9–18.

Conducts a survey of instructional practices and compares the results with a similar survey conducted in 1989 to determine if changes in practices had occurred over time. Subjects were 500 professionals drawn randomly from the membership list of the New Jersey

Reading Association and included classroom teachers, reading specialists, special education teachers, and principals. The survey instrument was a 2-part questionnaire designed to secure teachers' reactions to literature-based curriculum practices and to identify specific practices used in classrooms. Two hundred (40%) returned the survey, and the investigators made 8 follow-up visits to sites to secure additional observational data. Responses to the current survey were compared to the 1989 survey. Results revealed that the majority of activities most engaged in by teachers were associated with a more traditional approach (use of basal readers, DRAs, and standardized assessment procedures), suggesting that classroom practices remained unchanged; however, movement toward a whole language curriculum was indicated. Specifically, it was noted that some activities associated with a more traditional approach (round-robin reading) were used less frequently, and almost all whole language activities referenced in the survey were used by some. Results indicated that respondents appeared more knowledgeable about strategies connected with a whole language philosophy. Classroom observations (1 kindergarten, 2 second grades, 1 fourth grade, and 1 sixth grade) of respondents who had indicated adoption of a literature-based program confirmed the survey results regarding a change toward a more holistic, integrated approach.

ILLIG, BARBARA A.; ELLIOTT, JOAN B.; & BIEGER, GEORGE R. (1995). Writing workshop: Is it a reality in the classroom? In Wayne M. Linek & Elizabeth G. Sturtevant (Eds.), *Generations of literacy* (pp. 109–120). Harrisonburg, VA: College Reading Association.

Seeks to determine the extent to which writing workshop and the associated techniques and strategies were being utilized in Pennsylvania. The 23-item survey was completed and returned by 401 elementary teachers from across the state. The vast majority of respondents were female (88%), held a master's degree (87%), and had 10 years or more classroom experience (70%). Most teachers (73%) reported that they had taken college coursework within the past 5 years. Classroom literacy approaches reported were a combination basal/literature (45%), whole language (22%), literature-based (20%), and basal (20%). Frequency distributions were calculated for each survey question and a series of ANOVAS used to determine whether significant differences existed in strategy and writing workshop use between groups of respondents. Although prewriting and some publishing strategies were modeled and integrated into the classrooms, strategies and techniques that provide for student autonomy and a constructive approach to learning were not being used to the fullest extent. Significant differences in writing workshop and strategy use with regard to teaching experience and type of reading program were found. Teachers with over 15 years' experience utilized the strategies significantly less than did groups with less than 6 years' experience. The basal group used writing workshop significantly less than those groups using other approaches.

WUTHRICK, MARJORIE A. (1995). Case studies of teacher change from conventional to holistic literacy instruction. In Wayne M. Linek & Elizabeth G. Sturtevant (Eds.), *Generations of literacy* (pp. 69–82). Harrisonburg, VA: College Reading Association.

Asks 3 elementary grade teachers to reflect on and identify what events, persons, and books influenced their teaching practices. Case studies were teachers, identified by the school principal, who had made changes in their literacy instruction. Holistic, traditional, and middle-of-the-road orientations characterized the 3 teachers' approaches to literacy. Structured interviews of approximately 1 hour were audio-recorded and transcribed. Classroom observations of literacy instruction totaled 10 hours per teacher. Lesson plans, pupils' work and other archival data were also collected. Content analysis of all data identified general topics that were sorted repeatedly to triangulate. Core components of every literacy lesson for all teach-

ers were large-group unison reading, small-group guided reading, paired reading, writer's journal, notebooks, and learning stations. All teachers expressed dissatisfaction with traditional methods of literacy instruction. Two teachers described gradual change toward holistic instruction. All teachers said changes in literacy instruction led to more opportunities for greater excitement about learning and more positive pupil attitudes. Each teacher reported the importance of a colleague experimenting with holistic strategies as an influential factor in her own change process. Workshops, graduate classes, and administrative support were also noted as influential. Pupil response to new strategies determined whether strategies were repeated or discarded.

KONOPAK, BONNIE, & WILSON, ELIZABETH K. (1995). Formal and practical knowledge in reading education: Examining preservice, inservice, and university teachers' perspectives on classroom instruction. In Kathleen A. Hinchman, Donald J. Leu, & Charles K. Kinzer (Eds.), *Perspectives on literacy research and practice* (pp. 400–406). Chicago, IL: National Reading Conference.

Explores the use of different knowledges by a preservice, inservice, and university teacher in a second grade classroom. Participants were 3 teachers in elementary education: a student teacher, the school cooperating teacher, and the university supervisor. The classroom was located in a suburban school and had 22 students. Data were collected during a 2-week language arts unit taught solely by the student teacher. Data sources included the unit and lesson plans, teaching and learning materials, notes from conferences, field notes of observations, and teaching log entries. Constant comparative analysis was employed and sources triangulated to validate. Overall, the preservice teacher demonstrated in her plans and practice the academic knowledge acquired from her university lectures and readings. However, she had some difficulty contextualizing this formal knowledge in the classroom. As evidenced by all 3 teachers, knowledge was not dichotomized but represented points on a continuum where theory, research, and practice intersect to varying degrees.

KIRBY, PHILLIP. (1996, April). Teacher questions during story-book readings: Who's building whose building? *Reading, 30*, 8–15.

Analyzes questions asked about storybook texts by 2 teachers of 5- and 6-year-olds, one in Australia and one in Britain. Transcripts were made of story reading lessons over 9 months for the Australian teacher and 6 months for the British teacher. The analysis reported is over a sample of lessons. Neither teacher asked many questions related to the written text. Questions eliciting children's comprehension of the text were few (1.9% from the Australian teacher and 0.77% from the British teacher), and children were seldom called on to discuss the characters or the story theme. Questions calling for prediction and making inferences (7.6% and 9.25%) also were few, and neither teacher asked pupils to apply and translate the story text to new situations. The Australian teacher frequently used questions requiring simple recall of information. She also asked more questions calling for a whole-class choral response (38.8%) than did the British teacher (13.1%). A propositional analysis of the teachers' questions revealed that both asked questions containing mainly one proposition (85.5% and 69.9%). Both teachers asked questions that were primarily teacher initiated, and neither used questions to develop and build on pupils' story knowledge. The author argues that both teachers used questions to teach children how and when to respond as a method of managing the class.

MORGAN, WENDY. (1995, April). Safe harbours or open seas: English classrooms in an age of electronic text. *English in Australia, 3*, 9–16.

Gives 3 English teachers 4 texts all dealing with the same story and asks them to devise a unit around each. The texts were an article from *National Geographic*, a travel book, a

coffee table book, and a CD-ROM. The 3 teachers each taught year 9 English in Australia. Profiles of each teacher along with excerpts of their views on each text are presented. The author notes that the teachers brought various ideas, values, and practices to the texts, with each teacher adhering to a different model of English. Because of this variance, they produced their own version of a text, thereby leading to different kinds of knowledge that in turn would lead to different kinds of knowers. The author raises questions about the unique characteristics of hypermedia and whether it is still appropriate for teachers to instruct primarily in a manner that belongs to the world of printed texts.

McGEE, LEA M., & TOMPKINS, GAIL E. (1995, October). Literature-based reading instruction: What's guiding the instruction? *Language Arts*, *72*, 405–414.

Interprets theory-based instruction of literature by describing 4 teachers' plans for the same story, each of which reflects a different approach to the teaching of literature in elementary classrooms. The 4 stances toward instruction are (1) reading as an interactive, strategic process (a schema theory perspective), (2) reading as knowledge of literary forms (a structuralist perspective), (3) reading as personal response (reader response theory), and (4) reading as critical literacy (cultural theories of reader response). Each perspective is described in relation to teachers' plans, concrete instructional events, and teachers' reflections. Without judging the efficacy of the theories, the researchers argue that each brings potential benefits and negative aspects to a literature-based reading program. Although cautioning against too much instruction and too long an immersion in any literary work, the authors advocate exploring literature from a theoretical perspective as a way of extending children's literary discoveries.

SCHARER, PATRICIA L.; PETERS, DONNA; & LEHMAN, BARBARA A. (1995, September). Lessons from grammar school: How can literature use in elementary classrooms inform middle school instruction? *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, *39*, 28–34.

Surveys elementary classrooms to show ways of developing an understanding of how books are shared and used for instruction in elementary schools. Ninety-four fifth grade teachers in 6 Ohio school districts responded to a 6-page survey containing both multiple-choice and open-ended questions. One of the researchers, a middle school teacher, reflected on the relevance of these data for informing reading instruction in middle and secondary schools. The majority of respondents (60%) reported that the basal is used less frequently than literature or not at all, a finding that the teacher-researcher indicated would make linking and building on instruction less predictable than in previous years. More than 66% reported that children read a book of their choice every day, and in more than half of the classrooms, pupils read for 15 to 20 minutes daily in self-selected books. Thirteen percent reported they provided for small-group discussions focused on children's self-chosen books. Nearly 70% reported reading aloud fiction chapter books 3 or more times each week; the same percentage used these books for reading instruction 3 or more times each week. Most teachers reported they occasionally or rarely used folk tales (88%), poetry (67%), or picture books (77%). However, they reported they often used these genres as models for children's writing and to explore literary elements.

McGLINN, JEANNE M., & McGLINN, JAMES E. (1995, Fall). Teachers' knowledge of African American children's literature: A case study. *The Reading Instruction Journal*, *39*, 15–20.

Focuses on the types of African American literature available in the classrooms of an inner-city elementary school and the teachers' familiarity with contemporary African American children's literature. Participants included 9 teachers in grades 3–5 in a North Carolina school. All teachers used a literature-based approach to reading; no basal readers were used in any of the classrooms. Teachers were asked to list the multicultural titles avail-

able for independent reading in their classroom libraries as well as those used in their reading programs. In addition, teachers were given a list of 18 titles of African American contemporary realistic fiction for children and were asked to identify those titles with which they were familiar. Of the 62 multicultural books teachers reported as available in their classrooms, several titles were repeated across different grades, resulting in a list of 46 different books; 26 were African American titles. On the survey of 18 contemporary realistic fiction titles, more than half the teachers reported unfamiliarity with the books, and an average of 6 teachers stated that they had never used the books in their classrooms.

SHEARER, BARBARA A., & LUNDEBERG, MARY ANNA. (1996). Do models of expert reading strategies facilitate graduate students' reading of research? In Donald J. Leu, Charles K. Kinzer, & Kathleen A. Hinchman (Eds.), *Literacies for the 21st century: Research and practice* (pp. 430–436). Chicago, IL: National Reading Conference.

Compares differences found in graduate students' critiques of research before and after expert modeling and notes reading strategies applied. Twenty-two students in a graduate studies research in literacy course were participants; 20 were teachers. Students were randomly assigned to one of the two research-type groups on the first day. Both research articles included statistics and both reported the results of applied classroom experiments in secondary reading in social studies. Readers were instructed to evaluate the article and write a short critique. Students then responded to a survey of use of 23 specific actions related to comprehension strategies. They were shown models of strategic behaviors expert teachers used in reading research. Discussion focused on the 5 most frequently occurring strategic behaviors exhibited by experts: (1) using strategies, (2) connecting, (3) questioning, (4) monitoring, and (5) evaluating. Students then read and critiqued a second article and completed the survey. A comparison was made of the number of strategies students used prior to being shown the models with the number of strategies they used after. Analysis of whether different types of articles elicited different strategies was conducted. Teacher written comparisons of their 2 critiques were categorized as well. Results indicated that providing students with models of expert teachers' strategic actions tended to facilitate students' reading of research articles. Students reported using more strategies during the second critique than the first. One third of the teachers reported that the models enabled them to be more critical. No significant differences were found on the number of strategies used on both articles, although the kind of strategies employed were significantly different.

FORD, MICHAEL P.; ANDERSON, REBECCA S.; BRUNEAU, BEVERLY J.; & SCANLAN, PATRICIA. (1996). Student portfolios in four literacy education contexts: Challenging decisions about evaluation and grading. In Donald J. Leu, Charles K. Kinzer, & Kathleen A. Hinchman (Eds.), *Literacies for the 21st century: Research and practice* (pp. 398–407). Chicago, IL: National Reading Conference.

Focuses on the issue of using portfolio assessment in grading student performance. The use of portfolios is described in 4 different preservice courses: (1) reading methods, (2) early childhood, (3) student teaching, and (4) professional methods. The four teacher-educators discuss the context in which they used portfolios, the process they used for grading and evaluating student performance, and the challenges they faced. When considering issues related to evaluation and grading, 3 features of the portfolio process seem critical in shaping the way the portfolio is viewed. Ownership of the process by the learner may determine whether the portfolio is seen as just another assignment or as a more authentic opportunity for professional development. Clarifying the purpose of the portfolio establishes how it should be used in evaluation decisions. Finally, setting standards may facilitate the kinds of decisions made by students as they self-evaluate their work.

FORD, MICHAEL P. (1996). Teachers as learners: Experiencing self-evaluation, portfolios and rubrics. In Martha D. Collins & Barbara G. Moss (Eds.), *Literacy assessment for today's schools* (pp. 82–94). Harrisonburg, VA: College Reading Association.

Focuses on 3 graduate students as they encountered the portfolio process for the first time. Each was asked to complete a learning portfolio as a self-evaluation component for a 14-week graduate reading course. The portfolio component accounted for 70% of their grade, and attendance and participation accounted for 30%. Each portfolio was carefully reviewed twice during the course; in-progress portfolios were reviewed at the halfway point, and final portfolios were examined at the end of the semester. Examinations noted quantity and quality of the evidence and the degree of captioning and reflecting within the portfolio. Brief case studies were compiled for each student, describing how they moved through the portfolio process. Analysis of the portfolios revealed that all the students were capable of assessing their knowledge, practice, and habits. They are able to set goals that closely related to their needs as learners. They were able to document their own growth with guidance and to provide evidence to support their self-evaluation decisions.

GALDA, LEE; BISPLINGHOFF, BETTY SHOCKLEY; PELLEGRINI, A.D.; & STAHL, STEVEN. (1995, September). Sharing lives: Reading, writing, talking, and living in a first-grade classroom. *Language Arts, 72*, 334–339.

Presents data from a yearlong collaborative inquiry that focused on the ways in which a teacher-researcher worked to build a first grade classroom community in support of her pupils' acquisition of literacy. Observations were followed by discussions with the teacher-researcher about what her collaborators saw happening in her classroom; in addition, there were 3 formal interviews. Data sources were field notes from both the observations and the interviews. The sharing of narratives, personal and public, played a central role in the building of community in the classroom and in its continued life. Oral sharing opportunities, which the teacher instituted, emphasized the importance of the "dailiness of children's lives" and helped to make sense of their lives through story. Several benefits resulted: Personal narratives connected the children's home and school lives, the children used their oral narratives as a way of getting to know each other and of building community, and personal narratives offered material for the reading and writing children did in the classroom. Further, times offered for self-selected reading and writing invited social configurations, movement, and consultations that promoted community building. To allow children to move ahead of curriculum guide boundaries, the teacher-researcher also explored ways to "get out of the way," which describes the process of providing children with the tools and strategies for pursuing literacy and letting them pursue it in their own manner. Finally, the teacher-researcher modeled a literate self and recognized the children's recurring and individual needs for literate information.

II–2 Beliefs and attitudes toward reading

BAUMANN, JAMES F., & HEUBACH, KATHLEEN M. (1996, May). Do basal readers deskill teachers? A national survey of educators' use and opinions of basals. *The Elementary School Journal, 96*, 511–526.

Surveys elementary educators about their use of and beliefs about basal readers. The 26-item survey was sent to 1,000 International Reading Association members in the U.S. who had identified elementary reading instruction as the focus of their professional responsibility. Of 553 surveys returned, 53% of respondents were classroom, reading, Chapter 1, or special education teachers, and about 33% were supervisors or administrators. Seventy-five

percent of respondents replied that they either currently or formerly used basal readers for instructional purposes, with about 33% indicating that they were expected to use basals some of the time but could supplement them with other materials or set them aside. Twenty-five percent checked that they were required to use basals but were given flexibility in how they could use them. Included in the survey were 14 five-point Likert-scale items evaluating respondents' feelings about being deskilled by basals. Using factor analysis, it was found that 13 of the Likert-scale items clustered on 3 subscales: (1) compliance (7 items), (2) flexibility/benefit (4 items), and (3) individualization (2 items). Compliance scale results indicated that respondents tended to make decisions independently of the basal. Findings on the flexibility/benefit scale supported the argument that basals were not deskilling for teachers. Half of the teachers agreed that children benefit by the teacher's use of a basal reading program. Analysis of 3 open-ended questions indicated that 33% of respondents felt that they were not deskilled by the use of basals, with 12% of respondents replying that they were deskilled.

MORAWSKI, CYNTHIA M., & BRUNHUBER, BARBARA S. (1995, Summer). Teachers' early recollections of learning to read: Applications in reading teacher education in content areas. *Reading Research and Instruction, 34*, 315–331.

Studies 214 elementary and secondary teachers' responses to a questionnaire about their early recollections of learning to read. The teachers represented 5 teaching areas: (1) language, (2) social studies, (3) math/science, (4) special education, and (5) multiple areas. Recollections were rated for affective tone (positive, negative, neutral) and then categorized by themes. Of the coded recollections, 63% were classified as positive and 17% were classified as negative. Within the positive group, themes of satisfaction (90%) and determination (10%) were apparent. The themes of discouragement (67%) and apprehension (33%) were evident within the negative group. A comparative analysis of reported positive and negative recollections yielded significant findings related to the setting in which the recollection occurred, the most significant or influential agent in the recollection, the age of the subject at the time of the recollection, and the locus of control of the subject (whether external or internal). Positive early recollections cited home almost twice as often as school, whereas negative recollections cited school more than 4 times as often as home. Parents were mentioned 3 times as often as teachers in positive recollections of influences on literacy, whereas teachers were mentioned 3 times as often as parents in negative recollections. Among positive responses, school and preschool recollections were mentioned about equally. However, for the negative recollections, the age of the teacher subjects fell within the school age range (85%) almost 6 times as often as the preschool age range (15%). Further, teachers in the positive group indicated an internal locus of control (76%) more than 3 times as often as an external one (24%).

BEAN, THOMAS W., & READENCE, JOHN E. (1995). A comparative study of content area literacy students' attitudes toward reading through autobiography analysis. In Kathleen A. Hinchman, Donald J. Leu, & Charles K. Kinzer (Eds.), *Perspectives on literacy research and practice* (pp. 325–333). Chicago, IL: National Reading Conference.

Asks why students have a positive or negative attitude toward reading at various stages and what sociocultural dimensions influence such attitudes. Fifty-three participants (35 Hawaii students and 18 mainland students) completed individual reading autobiographies as part of a required content area reading class from fall and spring semesters. Autobiographies were read and coded for positive or negative statements that revealed attitudes within beginning (grades 0–5), middle (grades 6–12) and later (college and work) stages of reading development. Low reports of consistently positive attitudes toward reading were reported by Hawaii and mainland students (23%, 17%, respectively). A combination of positive and neg-

ative attitudes was revealed by the majority of both groups (77%, 83%). The analysis of stages of reading development indicates that most participants exhibited positive attitudes at the beginning stage of reading development. Negative or mixed attitudes were common in the middle stage and attributed to increasingly complex and uninteresting content of textbooks. Many participants moved back to a more positive attitude in the later stage as they gained control of their book selection. Preservice and inservice teachers had comparable overall attitudes toward reading, as did male and female teachers.

BLACHOWICZ, CAMILLE L.Z., & WIMETT, CATHRYN A. (1995). Reconstructing our pasts: Urban preservice teachers' definitions of literacy and literacy instruction. In Kathleen A. Hinchman, Donald J. Leu, & Charles K. Kinzer (Eds.), *Perspectives on literacy research and practice* (pp. 334–341). Chicago, IL: National Reading Conference.

Documents urban preservice students' initial views of literacy and literacy instruction and the ways in which they elaborate these with personal vignettes. Participants were 12 urban preservice teachers in their final year of preparation enrolled in a language arts methods and materials course. Students represented a variety of ethnic backgrounds. Data were collected from reflective journals kept weekly by each student. All journal transcripts were entered into a hypercard database and analyzed using the method of constant comparison. Analysis revealed where initial, decontextualized attempts to define literacy resulted in constructs that were formal and homogeneous; autobiographical reminiscences characterized literacy as having many functions apart from commonly recognized academic ones. Data suggest that autobiographical reflection in preservice classes can be useful in helping students elaborate constructs of literacy produced in more formal writing.

SCHLOITHE, RONDA. (1996). Constructions of literacy: Preservice teachers' perspectives. In Bobbie Neate (Ed.), *Literacy saves lives* (pp. 223–232). Herts, UK: United Kingdom Reading Association.

Explores the literacy constructs held by first year preservice teachers at the University of South Australia. Participants were 53 students, 11 of whom were selected as key informants. Qualitative data collected included written autobiographical accounts and interviews. Participants' definitions of literacy encompassed school literacy only; literacy was seen as a form of cultural capital. There was no recognition that learners come to their learning with different understandings of what literacy is. Subjects suggested that literacy learning is a natural process and offered only vague notions of how literacy learning occurred. They had a minimalist view of the teacher's role in literacy learning.

WEBSTER, ALEC; BEVERIDGE, MICHAEL; & REED, MALCOLM. (1996, February). Conceptions of literacy in primary and secondary school teachers. *Journal of Research in Reading, 19*, 36–45.

Investigates how primary and secondary school teachers conceptualize literacy teaching. Questionnaire data from 50 year 6 (10- to 11-year-olds) primary teachers and 50 year 7 (11- to 12-year-olds) secondary teachers in the Bristol, England, area were analyzed. The questionnaire required 20 responses to questions concerning favored teaching approaches in each of several different areas of literacy: print skills (alphabet, letter sounds, and phonic blends), vocabulary (sight vocabulary and vocabulary development), reading (assessment, text selection, reading content, and discussions of problems), writing (spelling, function, presentation, letter formation, and letter patterning), and literacy curriculum (relation to learning, who is responsible, creative components, relation to problems in reading and writing, its construction, and role of pupils' interest). Four possible responses to questions in each of these

20 sub areas were provided on the questionnaire, 1 from each of 4 quadrants of a literacy teaching model. Approximately 50% of all responses fell in the quadrant ascribing active roles to both teacher and child in the learning partnership. The remaining responses fell in the quadrant emphasizing child-centered factors but also the use of more prescriptive, rule- and resource-based approaches. Primary teachers were more likely than secondary teachers to select graded reading materials for children. Primary teachers also gave more recognition to the value of enjoyable activities that draw attention to the rhyming and spelling structures of words and also were more likely to consider literacy as an integral part of teacher-child dialogues, whereas some secondary teachers viewed literacy as only indirectly related to their subject matter teaching or the responsibility of the English Department.

CHESTER, MITCHELL D. & BEAUDIN, BARBARA Q. (1996, Spring). Efficacy beliefs of newly hired teachers in urban schools. *American Educational Research Journal, 33*, 233–257.

Explores the relations between change in self-efficacy beliefs, teacher characteristics, and school practices for 173 newly hired teachers in Connecticut urban schools. Specifically, the study examined whether changes in self-efficacy vary by teacher experience and age, by the level taught, and by the student population. Self-efficacy beliefs in relation to teachers include feelings of confidence to perform certain tasks, as well as beliefs about the causes of teachers' or students' performances. Earlier research concluded that the self-efficacy beliefs of beginning teachers typically decline over the course of the first year. Data for this study included responses to two survey instruments administered during September and February of the teacher's first year in the district. Survey responses were used to construct the dependent variable, "change in self-efficacy beliefs," as well as 3 school practice variables: (1) opportunities for collaboration, (2) supervisor attention to classroom performance, and (3) quality and availability of resources. The findings suggested that the decline is not universal. Beliefs were mediated by the teacher's age and prior experience, as well as by school practices such as opportunities for new teachers to collaborate with colleagues, supervisor attention to instruction, and the level of resources available in the school.

RUEDA, ROBERT, & GARCIA, ERMINDA. (1996, January). Teachers' perspectives on literacy assessment and instruction with language-minority students: A comparative study. *Elementary School Journal, 96*, 311–332.

Investigates the beliefs and practices of 3 groups of teachers (special education, credentialed bilingual, and bilingual waivered) relevant to the education of language-minority pupils. In particular 3 selected areas were investigated: (1) value of bilingualism, (2) reading-related instructional models and practices, and (3) reading-related assessment. Subjects included 18 grade 3 or 4 teachers in each of the 3 groups and were from 6 urban California districts serving primarily language-minority Hispanic pupils. Data sources included semi-structured interviews, a questionnaire, classroom observation (4 teachers from each group), and classroom products related to assessment. Interviews lasted 2 to 3 hours and were tape-recorded, transcribed, coded, and analyzed. Relative to bilingualism/biliteracy, the data indicated a great deal of variance within each group of teachers. None of the groups showed a favorable attitude toward bilingualism/biliteracy. However, both bilingual and waivered teachers held more positive views and special education teachers more negative views of bilingualism/biliteracy. Special education teachers tended to align more closely with a transmission model of reading emphasizing control in the classroom; no group fell at the constructivist end of a continuum of reading instruction, which emphasized a personal construction of meaning, function over form, integration of curricular activities, and a freer classroom control. Again, there was significant variance within each group. On assessment,

special education teachers demonstrated views of a discrete-skills perspective, but there was marked variance among individual teachers within each group. Classroom practices were mediated by aspects of the local context such as demands on teachers' time and the pressure on children to learn English.

MAXON, SYLVIA. (1995). At-risk learners: The influence of teacher beliefs on classroom practice. *Reading: Exploration and Discovery, 16*, 31–38.

Presents a multiple-case study designed to examine and describe the influence of teachers' beliefs about literacy instruction for at-risk first graders. A volunteer sample of 5 first grade teachers participated. Two of the teachers had been teaching first grade for 4 years, the others less than 2 years. Each was in a different school that was designated as having a high number of at-risk pupils. Individual data were collected during 1 academic year using a range of procedures, including interviews, observations of classroom instruction with at-risk learners, a reflective activity that involved personal writing activities, and completion of the Propositions About Reading Inventory test. Data, which were analyzed through a constant comparative method, revealed 8 general observations. The results indicated that the teachers held specific beliefs about their pedagogy, and their beliefs were actualized in their practices. Additional findings indicated that the teachers' literacy instructional decisions were influenced by multiple factors. The overall classroom environment, combined with the outside influences on the pupils in the classroom, dramatically influenced what and how teachers taught their pupils.

LENSKI, SUSAN DAVIS, & WHAM, MARY ANN. (1995, Spring/Summer). Instructional change through self-reflection. *Illinois Reading Council Journal, 23*, 17–27.

Compares 5 teachers' articulated beliefs about instruction with their classroom behaviors, using an objective self-evaluation survey. The teachers worked with their administrators for 2 years to develop a set of beliefs about primary instruction consistent with their knowledge about the ways children learn. Ten tenets reflecting developmentally appropriate instruction were identified through discussion. The survey, based on the tenets, was administered 4 times over a 12-month period to assess change. Each time, teachers were asked to fill out the survey while thinking about their classroom instruction in general and indicating the frequency with which they used the instructional practices listed (from rarely to often). Results are presented by individual cases. The participants were able to examine their own beliefs about effective instructional practices and make informed decisions about their teaching behaviors based on these beliefs. Each teacher moved toward implementing more practices "often." These teachers also became aware of individual children's needs and responded by increasing their use of resource personnel, by providing more opportunities for pupils to progress at their own pace, and by including children in the process of planning for instruction. Other visible areas of growth included incorporation of process writing, greater amounts of content integration, and the development of portfolios for assessment purposes.

MILLER, LYNNE D.; FINE, JOYCE C.; & WALKER, JUDITH J. (1994). Pre-service teachers' literacy dispositions. In Bernard L. Hayes & Kay Camperell (Eds.), *Reading: Putting the pieces together* (pp. 37–52). Athens, GA: American Reading Forum.

Evaluates the literacy dispositions of 112 student teachers to discern their personal beliefs and opinions, feelings, and uses of reading and writing. Each day, preservice teachers participated in student teaching as the final phase of their teacher preparation program. Once a week, students met for a seminar where they were administered the Writing or Reading Disposition Scale–Revised (WORDS-R) and the Behavioral Reading Attitude Measure. The WORDS-R consists of 15 items, which subjects identify as most characteristic of themselves, using a 5-point scale. Subjects reported most of the items related to reading as less characteris-

tic of them than most of the items related to writing. Initial analysis suggests that students may have less than positive attitudes and fewer personal reading experiences than expected of future teachers. In addition, many preservice teachers in this study may not be disposed to teach and encourage the kinds of writing experiences in the classroom that will in turn support children in their development of positive attitudes toward writing. Information on the validity and reliability of the WORDS-R and interpretation of individual items are presented.

PAILLIOTET, ANN WATTS. (1995). Seven elementary preservice teachers' perspectives of literacy: A longitudinal study. In Kathleen A. Hinchman, Donald J. Leu, & Charles K. Kinzer (Eds.), *Perspectives on literacy research and practice* (pp. 66–84). Chicago, IL: National Reading Conference.

Examines what 7 preservice teachers' talk revealed about their perspectives of literacy. The 7 participants were selected from a group of 23 enrolled in an undergraduate teacher preparation program leading to dual elementary and special education certification. The selection process considered scores on a departmental writing exam for program admission, performance in methods courses, and demographic traits. Interview and participant–observer field notes were primary data sources collected each semester during the 2-year study. Other sources (students' assignments, and program and course documents) provided background information and served as a basis for triangulation. This study reports only data collected during the first and last semesters. Using the constant comparative method of analysis, the structural components of talk in interviews and field notes generated the following initial themes: meanings of repeated words and phrases, definitions, and descriptions; perceived purposes of literacy; positive and negative descriptions; described roles; and speech behaviors. Selective and axial coding were performed throughout the study. Participants were found to assign their purposes for literacy to 4 distinct settings: (1) utilitarian (abstract, social context), (2) academic (student role), (3) personal (real-life), and (4) teaching (teacher role). Although participants had differing educational backgrounds and academic abilities, they often talked about literacy in comparable ways. By the end of the study, most had changed their abstract definitions of literacy, but their differentiation among academic, personal, and teaching literacies remained distinct and often grew stronger.

STURTEVANT, ELIZABETH G. (1996). Beyond the content literacy course: Influences on beginning mathematics teachers' uses of literacy in student teaching. In Donald J. Leu, Charles K. Kinzer, & Kathleen A. Hinchman (Eds.), *Literacies for the 21st century: Research and practice* (pp. 146–158). Chicago, IL: National Reading Conference.

Follows 5 novice secondary mathematics teachers as they include literacy strategies in their content area instruction during the induction years of teaching. Participants were in a content literacy course as part of a special graduate program for military personnel who had selected teaching as a second career. Most students were officers or former officers planning to teach secondary mathematics or science; ages ranged from 42 to 50 years. Data included written products collected during the course (essays, reflective journals, exams, exit questionnaires) and during student teaching (interviews, observations, and related documents). Presented are case synopses highlighting each student teacher's experiences and the influences each student felt most strongly affected his or her instruction and uses of literacy. The uses of literacy in the mathematics instruction were influenced by a wide variety of personal and contextual factors. Most students had knowledge of and an interest in using literacy activities because of their district's push toward new standards. However, some participants believed some activities were most suited for higher track students.

GALLEY, SHARON MARTENS. (1996, April). Talking their walk: Interviewing fifth graders about their literacy journeys. *Language Arts, 73*, 249–254.

Discusses interviews with 2 sets of 2 fifth graders each about their reading and writing and notes the impact of the televised interviews on teachers attending workshops and seminars. The author also notes the impact of the televised interviews on her own thinking. It is argued that the interviews changed teachers' perspectives of their pupils and gave both teachers and pupils a new view of assessment and curriculum.

II–3 Preservice and inservice preparation

WOLF, SHELBY A.; CAREY, ANGELA A.; & MIERAS, ERIKKA L. (1996, April/June). "What is this literachurch stuff anyway?": Preservice teachers' growth in understanding children's literary response. *Reading Research Quarterly, 31*, 130–137.

Reports the results of a yearlong study of 43 undergraduate education students in which each student was asked (as part of a class assignment) to conduct a reader response case study with a young child. Each preservice teacher read with a child on a weekly basis, documenting each session with books read, questions asked, children's comments, related activities, and plans for the next session. The purpose of the assignment was to increase the undergraduates' understanding of response to literature and to strengthen their instructional strategies and critical stance toward literature. Analysis of field notes and final papers, as well as the course lecture notes, handouts, activities, and assigned readings, revealed patterns that marked shifts in the preservice teachers' perspectives on literary response. The teachers began the study with relatively low expectations. In their initial, comprehension-based view of response, they privileged the text over the child. Over the course of the study, however, the teachers moved toward a vision of literary response that highlighted interpretation over comprehension. Their broadened expectations emphasized the affective, personal, and social nature of literature discussions, which privilege connections between the text on the page and the texts of the readers' lives.

WOLF, SHELBY A.; CAREY, ANGELA A.; & MIERAS, ERIKKA L. (1996). The art of literary interpretation: Preservice teachers learning about the arts of language arts. In Donald J. Leu, Charles K. Kinzer, & Kathleen A. Hinchman (Eds.), *Literacies for the 21st century: Research and practice* (pp. 447–460). Chicago, IL: National Reading Conference.

Considers the impact of using reader response case studies of young children to help teachers learn to envision and enact literature. Subjects were 43 elementary preservice teachers enrolled in a children's literature class. Case study children were selected by the preservice teachers and ranged from 2 to 12 years old. The case study assignment required students to read with an individual child over the course of the semester and keep detailed field notes on their child's literary responses. Data collected included the field notes, final papers, artistic renderings by children, commentary by the instructor, lecture notes, and course handouts. Analytic categories were coded and aligned with events during the course. Over time and experience, the preservice teachers learned that the art of reading stories had to be nurtured through practice and inventive risk taking. The students (66%) discussed children's dramatic response as imitation or interaction. Children who engaged in drama replicated sounds and actions or imitated gestures of the reader. Other children would imitate facial expressions or gestures described or illustrated in the text. Young children often made direct contact with the story by waving to characters, stroking them or hitting them in defiance of their actions. Children's comments on illustrations were reported across the case studies (79%). Preservice

teachers learned that a child's response to a book is not bounded by verbal expression but can emerge in transmediated modes of expression.

ALLEN, DIANE D., & PIERSMA, MARY L. (1995, Fall). Implementing literature-based instruction: The experiences of three preservice teachers. *Journal of Reading Education, 21*, 17–26.

Describes the experiences of 3 student teachers as they attempted to implement literature-based instruction and examines their specific concerns related to using literature in an elementary classroom. In addition to 3 courses in reading and language arts, the student teachers had completed other methods courses focused on the integration of curriculum areas through literature. The student teachers were selected as the focus of the study based both on their willingness to have their work closely scrutinized and on their interest in implementing literature-based instruction. Each student teacher kept a reflective journal that was read, coded, and analyzed by the researchers on a weekly basis for references to literature-based instruction. Field notes from observations of their classrooms and lesson plans were analyzed to document the success or failure of the students' implementation attempts. A follow-up interview was conducted with each student teacher. In general, the student teachers were all successful in their attempts to implement literature-based instruction to some degree. A primary concern was finding time to implement instructional plans and units. A second, related concern was the perceived pressure to complete adopted basals and workbooks. Two of the student teachers were concerned that their cooperating teachers did not understand or value literature-based instruction. Each found implementation more difficult than expected.

HENNINGS, DOROTHY GRANT. (1995, Fall). Students' perceptions of literature response journals (LRJs) used in a graduate language arts course. *Reading Research and Instruction, 35*, 48–63.

Describes an informal study of literature response journals in a masters' level language arts methods course of 24 students. The graduate students in the class taught in grade levels from preschool to high school, with teaching experience ranging from recent completion of student teaching to more than 14 years. Students were introduced to aesthetic response journals through reading, discussion, models, and specific guidance. During each class session, they listened to or read a poem or story, responded in their journals, and shared responses. The instructor responded to the students' journals at the end of the semester, but did not grade the journals. Students anonymously completed a questionnaire on which they indicated their impressions of response journals in general and the instructional strategies used in relation to them. Over half (58%) said they had begun to use response journals in teaching as a result of the class experience, and all indicated their desire to incorporate response journals when they had classes of their own. All students indicated on the questionnaire that they felt "positive" or "very positive" about the use of the journal. Further, 96% of the group said that writing the journal had a positive or very positive effect on their understanding of literature, and 92% said that a journal had a positive or very positive effect on their appreciation of literature. Informal analysis of the responses indicated that despite the course emphasis on aesthetic response, students more often took an efferent rather than an aesthetic stance toward literature. They tended to summarize, analyze, and criticize, and to discuss how they would use the piece in their classes rather than to express feelings, images, or extensions of meanings.

LEHMAN, BARBARA A., & SCHARER, PATRICIA L. (1995–96, Winter). Teachers' perspectives on response comparisons when children and adults read children's literature. *Reading Research and Instruction, 35*, 142–152.

Devises an action-research project to help pre- and inservice teachers understand children's responses to a book. Students in 5 children's literature classes (n = 129) were asked to read and respond in writing to the same children's book. Students then collected verbal or written responses to the book from at least one child. Children were in grades 3–8. Data collected from children (n = 140) included transcriptions and notes taken by adults during conversations with children, pictures drawn by children, and children's journals. Both adult and child responses were brought to the university classes to share during group discussions. Following whole group discussions, adults were asked to complete an open-ended questionnaire describing new insights about the book and to draw and explain conclusions comparing adults' versus children's responses to the book. Data analysis revealed that initial responses from both children and adults tended to be more reader based than text based. Adults felt that children had a tendency to read for enjoyment and to take the book at face value. Adults characterized their own focus as stressing literary elements and deeper meanings. Children tended to identify with child characters and expressed strong feelings about the story, whereas adults identified with all characters at various times. Adult/child comparisons are discussed also in 5 text-based categories: (1) characterization, (2) plot, (3) foreshadowing/suspense, (4) themes, and (5) writer's craft. The analysis of the open-ended questionnaire indicated that class discussions were important in eliciting more text-based responses by adults. The nature of the discussion was influential in the insights adults developed and also in the understanding of children's responses.

MOSENTHAL, JAMES. (1995). A practice-oriented approach to methods coursework in literacy teaching. In Kathleen A. Hinchman, Donald J. Leu, & Charles K. Kinzer (Eds.), *Perspectives on literacy research and practice* (pp. 358–367). Chicago, IL: National Reading Conference.

Addresses the question of what situated learning looks like in a practice-oriented approach to coursework in literacy methods. The subject of the case study was a preservice teacher enrolled in her second semester of work in a literacy methods course. The field requirement placed her in an urban primary grade classroom where her main role was to work with a small reading group and to follow the routines of the weekly reading contract designed by the classroom teacher. Field notes of classroom observations and debriefings, assignments, and an interview at the end of the semester were data. One dilemma for a practice-oriented approach to methods instruction is that the opportunities for students' participation and reflection shape the personal criteria used in participating. Any instructional routine that provides constraints and represents a form of entrenchment is an important aspect of situated learning as long as it is made explicit in a teacher's reflection on his or her teaching.

SIPE, LAWRENCE R., & MCCARRIER, ANDREA. (1995). Constructing a knowledge base for in-school leadership in a school-wide literacy model. In Kathleen A. Hinchman, Donald J. Leu, & Charles K. Kinzer (Eds.), *Perspectives on literacy research and practice* (pp. 428–437). Chicago, IL: National Reading Conference.

Reports on the changes in perspectives of 8 local leaders (literacy coordinators) after the first year of a 5-year model of professional development. The literacy coordinators represented 8 schools and were selected based on their effective teaching abilities. The training for the coordinators included an intensive yearlong course followed by a highly structured program (early literacy lesson framework) during their first year of work with teachers in their schools. Literacy coordinators taught small groups of primary grade children or shared a classroom for half the school day, spending the other half in staff development activities. Data sources were observations of teaching and analysis of videotaped teachings, self-reflection in oral and written forms, course evaluations and written records, and 3 interviews across the

year. Three major shifts in learning and thinking occurred during the training. First, although midyear concerns centered around the materials and organization needed to implement the program, by the end of the year, coordinators were much more concerned with their own self-construction of knowledge and how they could facilitate self-construction on the part of other teachers. The second major shift was a change from a transmission mode of teaching and learning to the beginnings of a transaction model. The third major shift involved an increase in the level of awareness in (1) the connections between their learning, the children's learning, and the ways to facilitate the learning of others; (2) the complex process of school change; and (3) the importance of constructing a new school culture.

HOPKINS, CAROL J.; SCHMITT, MARIBETH CASSIDY; NIERSTHEIMER, SUSAN L.; DIXEY, BRENDA P.; & YOUNTS, TAMMY. (1995). Infusing features of Reading Recovery professional development model into experiences of preservice teachers. In Kathleen A. Hinchman, Donald J. Leu, & Charles K. Kinzer (Eds.), *Perspectives on literacy research and practice* (pp. 349–357). Chicago, IL: National Reading Conference.

Applies the Reading Recovery professional development model to preservice teacher training in order to determine what salient features of behind-the-glass observations and discussions undergraduates will identify. Twenty-five students enrolled in one section of a corrective reading methods course participated. Each student tutored one child who was referred to the university's reading clinic during weekly 75-minute lessons for 12 weeks. Students observed and discussed the lessons of peers on alternate tutoring days. Sources of data were participant observations of events and behaviors, audiotapes, videotapes, individual student written responses, and transcribed small group discussions of the behind-the-glass observations. Data were analyzed using within- and cross-case analysis. The central findings indicated that students believed they had learned to look at teaching and learning in new ways. Many students identified new perspectives that they gained by learning how to observe.

RISKO, VICTORIA J. (1995). Using videodisc-based cases to promote preservice teachers' problem solving and mental model building. In Wayne M. Linek & Elizabeth G. Sturtevant (Eds.), *Generations of literacy* (pp. 173–187). Harrisonburg, VA: College Reading Association.

Describes how preservice teachers and practitioners analyze and respond to authentic teaching problems presented in a written case study. Subjects were 16 undergraduates (initial certification) and 14 graduate students (masters' degree in language and literacy) enrolled in sections of a remedial reading course. Each course was taught by the researcher. Students in each course were asked to analyze a written case on the first day of class and on the last day of class. The case contained information about a middle school pupil who had a history of reading problems. To analyze each case, students had to indicate what they noticed in the video segments corresponding to the case, explain and justify their beliefs about how the teacher in the case defined reading, and describe the child's participation in and learning about the reading/writing process. After completing the post-course case analysis, students reread their pre- and post-case analyses and compared the 2 using a set of guide questions. Constant comparative method and 3 independent reviewers were used to treat the data. The 2 groups were similar in that they made substantial progress from pre- to post-case activity in their ability to analyze and interpret problems. Differences between the 2 groups involved the number of perspectives taken to analyze the case and the ability to provide theoretical support for perspectives and recommendations. Patterns found consistent across the data sets are discussed relative to modifying and extending the mental models about teaching and learning for preservice teachers.

RISKO, VICTORIA J. (1995). Effects of anchored instruction on preservice teachers' knowledge acquisition and problem-solving. In Kay Camperell, Bernard L. Hayes, & Richard Telfer (Eds.), *Linking literacy: Past, present, and future* (pp. 45–54). Logan, UT: American Reading Forum.

Summarizes findings from studies conducted over 5 years on the effects of using videodisc case methodology in undergraduate developmental and remedial reading methods courses. Primary findings across the studies support the use of case methodology and creating cases that have multiple sources of information (classroom scene, interviews with parents, teachers, principals, and literacy experts). Findings from 2 sets of studies (pretest–posttest control group designs and participant–observer questionnaires and interviews) strongly support the case method to enhance preservice teachers' ability to think flexibly and to solve disparate problems in the classroom from multiple perspectives. A consistent finding of the studies relates to the in-depth comprehensive discussions occurring around the cases. Two recent studies report that continued involvement in the analysis of the videodisc cases produced noticeable shifts in the students' ability to adopt additional perspectives prior to actual teaching experiences. Students move from linear models of learning and teaching to models that integrate multiple perspectives to guide their analysis of case information.

TIDWELL, DEBORAH L. (1995). Practical argument as instruction: Developing an inner voice. In Kathleen A. Hinchman, Donald J. Leu, & Charles K. Kinzer (Eds.), *Perspectives on literacy research and practice* (pp. 368–373). Chicago, IL: National Reading Conference.

Examines the use of practical arguments to elicit preservice and novice teachers' rationales and reasoning for instructional practice. Six university students (4 preservice, 2 novice teachers) in reading education were chosen as subjects. All subjects were females, ages 20–45. Each student was assigned to tutor 1 pupil (ages 6–18) 2 or 3 sessions weekly for 10 weeks. Once a week each tutor was videotaped while teaching. After viewing the tape independently, the tutor met with the clinic supervisor for an hour, the last 30 minutes of which was devoted to a practical argument session. During the practical argument, the tutor presented her understanding about her instruction from 2 perspectives, with the teacher teaching the lesson and an outside observer watching the lesson. The weekly practical argument transcripts were analyzed using a categorizational methodology. The total amount of tutor talk during practical arguments increased over time as did the number of tutor-initiated discussions. The role of the learner and the role of the tutor were key elements in almost every practical argument discussion. The choice of text, pupil interest, and interpersonal dynamics were the focus of many discussions. The quality of the arguments changed in content over time.

MILLER, SAMUEL D. (1995, Summer). Teachers' responses to test-driven accountability pressures: "If I change, will my scores drop?" *Reading Research and Instruction, 34*, 332–351.

Reports a 2-year project in 7 third grade teachers' classrooms where teachers were modifying their skills-based reading and language arts programs by increasing the number of opportunities children had to write extended prose and to work and study together for extended periods of time. Data collected from children during the study were compared with data collected from pupils during previous instructional years. At the completion of the project, program effectiveness was studied by comparing changes in (1) scores on standardized reading and language arts tests, (2) number of special education referrals, and (3) number of retentions. Throughout the study, teachers were concerned that the instructional interventions would lead to drops in children's standardized achievement test scores. Over the 2-year period, teachers decreased the number of discrete reading and language arts assignments 62% as

they increased the percentage of assignments with collaborative writing (10%) and the number of assignments involving several days for completion (16%). In 4 classrooms, language arts standardized test scores increased. Overall, special education referrals diminished and retentions diminished by 81%. Interview data reflect teachers' concerns with implementation, assessment of individual student work, and their ongoing concerns as to whether test scores would drop with such a program.

HARLIN, REBECCA POTTER, & LIPA, SALLY E. (1995, Fall). How teachers' literacy coursework and experiences affect their perceptions and utilization of portfolio documents. *Reading Research and Instruction, 35*, 1–18.

Investigates the effects of literacy coursework and experience on teachers' analysis, perceptions, and ranking of documents presented in sample portfolios. The subjects included preservice elementary teachers, graduate elementary school teachers, and graduate reading teachers (n = 75). All were randomly assigned to analyze 1 of 3 portfolios of primary grade children and to write a summary for a parent audience describing the child's literacy development. Included in the portfolio contents were reading and writing samples, anecdotal records, informal task results, and children's self-reported data from attitude surveys and interviews. After completing the summaries, subjects answered a questionnaire that required them to rank the portfolio documents from most to least reliable as sources of data and to discuss the usefulness of the sources in learning about the individual child's literacy development. The results indicated that all groups of teachers cited children's work samples for the majority of their conclusions in the written summaries. All 3 groups used pupils' self-reports least frequently. Additionally, it appeared that the frequency with which the teachers used a source in their summaries was reflective of the reliability ranking it received. Qualitative differences in the rationales for rankings were also found; for example, teachers with the most literacy coursework supported their decisions by citing the objectivity of the data sources, as well as the amount and specificity of data.

SMITH, LYNN C., & ERICKSON, LAWRENCE G. (1994). Elementary school adopts two reading professors: Lessons from a five year partnership. In Bernard L. Hayes & Kay Camperell (Eds.), *Reading: Putting the pieces together* (pp. 25–35). Athens, GA: American Reading Forum.

Describes how 2 reading professors and a small, midwestern parochial school collaborated to facilitate change in their reading and writing programs. The school team, consisting of the entire school faculty (n = 10), 2 university reading professors, and the principal, met monthly for 5 years. Initial meetings included the sharing of relevant research and articles and viewing videotapes illustrating best practices. Later meetings were devoted to talk and questions centered on areas of evolving concern. A notebook was kept to log important ideas, monitor decisions, and manage meeting duties. Sessions were audiotaped and teachers were asked to write about the experience at the end of the first year. By the end of the first year, an informal but strong partnership appeared to emerge. The second year began with new members, and a positive climate for change had replaced a climate of wariness. Years 3 and 4 were marked by optimistic trials by the teachers but a continued commitment to school reform. During the fifth year, the university professors gradually faded from the team, which continued to meet monthly to discuss attempts and plan new directions.

BARKSDALE-LADD, MARY ALICE; RUDDEN, JANE; OAKS, RUTH; NEDEFF, ANITA; ISENHART, JANET; & JOHNSON, RHONDA. (1994). Learning to collaborate in a literacy discussion group. In Charles K. Kinzer & Donald J. Leu (Eds.), *Multidimensional as-*

pects of literacy research, theory, and practice (pp. 306–316). Chicago, IL: National Reading Conference.

Examines the process and nature of learning to collaborate in a literacy discussion group (LDG). In an effort to build a stronger relationship between university faculty and the public schools, an LDG was formed as part of one university's Professional Development School program. Members from 6 schools were invited to join the LDG initially, and 5 new members joined midway. The LDG met weekly and worked on 3 major projects during the first year. These projects focused on improving teacher education and classroom concerns. Comparison of group interview transcripts, field notes from weekly meetings, and individual journal entries served as the method of triangulation of the data. Idea units were coded in naturally occurring thematic categories. The group was committed to learning how to collaborate with a focus on literacy, but began with no specific agenda. Other characteristics that supported the collaborative process included weekly meetings, the supportive nature of the interaction in the group, and the positive results of the group participation. Primary changes noted by the group occurred in the group members, specifically regarding philosophical orientation and classroom implementation.

BERTRAND, NANCY P. (1994). Welcome to our rainforest: Whole-language orientation and implementation. In Charles K. Kinzer and Donald J. Leu (Eds.), *Multidimensional aspects of literacy research, theory, and practice* (pp. 249–256). Chicago, IL: National Reading Conference.

Investigates the extent to which teachers who received videotape training in whole language theory and practice had actually implemented whole language in their classrooms. The original sample included approximately 1,500 teachers who viewed 25 hours of videotapes about whole language theory and practice as part of a statewide training program. From those, 23 teachers who completed the Theoretical Orientation to Reading Profile and scored as having orientations toward whole language served as subjects in this study. Individual classroom observations were conducted, ranging from 3 hours to whole days and culminating in teacher interviews. The majority of the classrooms were self-contained and at the elementary school level. The majority of teachers first learned about whole language in graduate classes. Some teachers had read many books and articles on the approach, whereas others had read very little. Most teachers were professionally active and spent personal money attending conferences. Teachers were most proud that their children liked coming to school and had positive attitudes toward learning and literacy. Teachers' greatest frustration was in trying to combine the new approach with the old. Surprisingly, there were fewer whole language teachers than expected in the population of teachers who had received the state's training. Nearly all of the teachers who adopted this approach to literacy learning did so independent of the videotape training. The observed whole language practices seemed to be in no way connected to the videotape training. The use of an inservice-driven and impersonal means of conveying new ideas appeared to be a poor way to influence teachers' basic schema of learning and teaching.

MOORE, SANDRA J.; BARYLSKE, JUDITH; POTTS, ANN; & LALIK, ROSARY. (1995). The tensions and possibilities of constructing literate environments for professional growth. In Kathleen A. Hinchman, Donald J. Leu, & Charles K. Kinzer (Eds.), *Perspectives on literacy research and practice* (pp. 417–427). Chicago, IL: National Reading Conference.

Using the genre of Readers' Theatre, the researchers report the interpretations of their research regarding processes of professional development for educators and the ways to assess the development of emergent readers and writers. The script is divided into three parts.

Method of analysis is presented in the Prologue, and tensions and possibilities are addressed in Acts I and II.

ALVERMANN, DONNA E. (1996). Introducing feminist perspectives in a content literacy course: Struggles and self-contradictions. In Donald J. Leu, Charles K. Kinzer, & Kathleen A. Hinchman (Eds.), *Literacies for the 21st century: Research and practice* (pp. 124–133). Chicago, IL: National Reading Conference.

Introduces feminist writings into content literacy coursework and examines student reactions. Participants were 27 graduate education majors enrolled in a content literacy course and the instructor. With few exceptions the students had not been exposed to feminist writings before taking this class. Students turned in weekly 2-page reflections on their interpretations of how the assigned readings and subsequent class discussions led to their own beliefs and the beliefs of others on feminist perspectives on teaching content literacy, assessment practices, and tracking in multicultural classrooms. Primary data sources included the researcher's journal as teacher and participant observer, field notes of an outside observer, and video transcripts. Data entered in an ethnographical data base program provided weekly printouts. Commentaries on the printouts guided research meetings and were contextualized by the written student reflections. Interviews served for triangulation. Discussion centers on the ambivalence felt about including feminist perspectives in the course curriculum and the self-contradictions that arose from attempts to maintain a sense of neutrality during discussions, which were designed purposefully.

BRUNEAU, BEVERLY J.; FORD, MICHAEL P.; SCANLAN, PATRICIA; & STRONG, MARY W. (1996, Spring). Confronting dilemmas in teacher education: Developing professional understanding through collaborative reflection and dialogue. *Journal of Reading Education, 21*, 43–50.

Uses a focused dialogue procedure in an effort to identify and clarify common issues affecting teacher educators. Eighteen teacher educators involved in changing their own literacy education practices reported on successes, concerns, and the inquiry process facilitating change in preservice education. Five interacting dilemmas were noted: (1) breaking the model of transmissive college teaching and moving toward a constructivist classroom, (2) improving collaboration between schools and universities, (3) fostering integration within teacher education programs, (4) using technology to update instructional practice, and (5) developing forms of alternative assessment. A brief discussion of each issue is presented.

PENTON, RUTH. (1995). Working with secondary school teachers to develop skills to assist learners from backgrounds other than English. *Reading Forum* NZ, *3*, 16–17.

Discusses briefly a staff development program, Learning Through Language (LTL), designed for subject matter teachers in Auckland secondary schools who work with students of non-English speaking backgrounds and who are mainstreamed. The school-based program is designed to be carried out over a school year with a support system beyond that time. One tutor is trained for each school so that the LTL course can be offered to other staff members. There are now 48 tutors in 42 schools. Reference is made to previous research and follow-up studies of the program.

JOHNSON, RHONDA S., & RINEHART, STEVEN D. (1995). Field experience components in secondary content reading courses: A national survey. In Wayne M. Linek & Elizabeth G. Sturtevant (Eds.), *Generations of literacy* (pp. 188–198). Harrisonburg, VA: College Reading Association.

Reports the results of a national survey of teacher preparation programs asking respondents to describe their secondary programs in contrast to their elementary programs. The survey was distributed to a random sample of 176 colleges and universities across the country, stratified by level (doctoral, comprehensive, or baccalaureate). The response rate was 35% with 61 schools reporting from 38 states. Out of the programs surveyed, the majority (80%) included a required course in content area reading methods. Approximately one third of these programs included a field component. Recommendations based on comments and descriptions reported on the survey are provided.

DEEGAN, DOROTHY H. (1995). Taking it up/taking it seriously: Critical literacy in preservice teacher education. In Kathleen A. Hinchman, Donald J. Leu, & Charles K. Kinzer (Eds.), *Perspectives on literacy research and practice* (pp. 342–348). Chicago, IL: National Reading Conference.

Shares design of and results from reframing a content area reading course in terms of a critical perspective. The course was taken exclusively by undergraduate preservice teachers majoring in exercise science and health education. Critical literacy was explored through literacy autobiographies, observations of classrooms where they might be working in the future, discussions of readings, inquiry groups, and personal projects. Three priorities emanating from the project suggest that teacher educators (1) disentangle and demystify the language of critical theory, (2) locate and document through a variety of media examples possible projects that explore the issues, and (3) compile, coordinate, and follow up on the outcomes of these projects, creating an archive that can serve as a research database.

II–4 Roles

BAUMANN, JAMES F. (1995). Sabbatical in second-grade: Reflecting on the lived experience. In Kathleen A. Hinchman, Donald J. Leu, & Charles K. Kinzer (Eds.), *Perspectives on literacy research and practice* (pp. 390–399). Chicago, IL: National Reading Conference.

Describes the experience of returning to teach second grade (19 students) full time after 14 years as a university professor. Through a public school teacher exchange program, the researcher taught for an entire academic year, assuming all the responsibilities expected of a full-time, contracted teacher, including fulfilling licensure requirements. While teaching, the researcher engaged in a self-study of everyday experiences from educative and phenomenological research perspectives involving description and reflective thought and experiential descriptions from others. Critical elements of inquiry included personal history, school history, peer observation and commentary, and artifact collection and analysis. Preliminary analysis drew most heavily from journal entries and experiential descriptions from others. Reflections are presented in 3 categories: curricular and instructional issues, interactional issues, and personal issues.

BAUMANN, JAMES F. (1996). The inside and outside of teacher research: Reflections on having one foot in both worlds. In Donald J. Leu, Charles K. Kinzer, & Kathleen A. Hinchman (Eds.), *Literacies for the 21st century: Research and practice* (pp. 500–511). Chicago, IL: National Reading Conference.

Asks what is it like to be a teacher researcher after having been a university researcher. The study draws from a larger investigation that involved a self-study of being a second grade teacher researcher for a school year. Data sources include a personal research/teaching journal, informal classroom assessments, the children's work and other classroom artifacts,

videotaped lessons and interviews with children, parents, administrators, and other teacher researchers. Presents 6 selective reflections gleaned from experience: (1) Teacher research involves reflection and action, (2) Engaging in research enhances a teacher's instructional effectiveness, (3) Research done while teaching children full time is different than research done from a university position and schedule, (4) Teacher researchers must be methodologically flexible and creative, (5) The insider perspective provides a teacher researcher a unique and powerful viewpoint for classroom inquiry, (6) There are healthy tensions between the roles of teacher and researcher.

LASTER, BARBARA P. (1996). From white elephant to cutting edge: The transformation of the reading clinic? In Donald J. Leu, Charles K. Kinzer, & Kathleen A. Hinchman (Eds.), *Literacies for the 21st century: Research and practice* (pp. 408–419). Chicago, IL: National Reading Conference.

Asks what has happened to the university-based reading clinic. Eight sites chosen for the case studies represented public and private universities in varied communities (rural, urban, suburban, and small city) across six states. Open-ended phone interviews were the basis of much of the data collection. Other sources included written materials and site visits when possible. Data were examined for participation configuration, instructional practices, use of time, and literacy assessment. A second analysis looked at fees, materials, parental involvement, and placement of the course in the graduate program. A final analysis examined roles of participants. One unexpected finding was a sensitivity among clinic directors about the label "reading clinic." There appeared to be much concern about the future existence of the clinics due to financial concerns. An essential ingredient was whether the university or college administration viewed the graduate reading program as a vital or integral part of the college and the reading clinic as an important outreach to the community. Directors of clinics often cited practices that were tied to theories of the reading process as key to the success of the clinic. Common among all sites was a focus on the training of competent literacy professionals. The nature and impact of changes in reading clinics appeared to be more dramatic than previously reported.

HALLINGER, PHILIP; BICKMAN, LEONARD; & DAVIS, KEN. (1996, May). School context, principal leadership, and student reading achievement. *The Elementary School Journal, 96*, 527–549.

Explores the nature and extent of the school principal's effects on reading achievement in a sample of 87 U.S. elementary schools. The researchers formulated and tested a multidimensional model of principals' effects on pupil learning. By using principal and teacher questionnaires and pupil test scores, relations among selected variables were inspected. These variables included school context (pupils' SES, parental involvement, principals' gender, and teaching experience), principals' instructional leadership (principals' activities in key dimensions of the school's educational program), instructional climate (school mission, opportunity to learn, teacher expectations), and pupil reading achievement. Results showed no direct effects of principals' instructional leadership on pupil achievement. The results did support the belief that a principal can have an indirect effect on school effectiveness through actions that shape the school's learning climate. The researchers also found that a principal's leadership itself is influenced by both personal and contextual variables (SES, parental involvement, and gender). The study confirmed the appropriateness of viewing the principal's role in school effectiveness through a conceptual framework that places the principal's leadership behavior in the context of the school organization and its environment, and that assesses leadership effects on pupil achievement through mediating variables.

BEARNE, EVE. (1996, April). Raising reading standards: What is the headteacher's role? *Reading, 30,* 2–8.

Conducts an evaluation of the manner in which headteachers in Britain influence reading standards with an emphasis on their role in inservice work. Two interviews were conducted with teachers and headteachers in 10 schools. Headteachers responded to a question asking them what factors they felt contributed to raising reading standards. Responses fell into areas dealing with the school, provision for professional development, the classroom, the individual learner, and working with parents. In particular, the role of the headteacher in managing reading provision in the primary school emerged as important in raising reading standards. In schools where the headteacher had taken a proactive role, developments tended to be more firmly and permanently established, and the staff felt more secure in trying new practices.

TANCOCK, SUSAN M. (1995, September). Classroom teachers and reading specialists examine their Chapter 1 reading programs. *Journal of Reading Behavior, 27,* 315–335.

Describes perceptions of Chapter 1 programs held by classroom teachers and reading specialists in 2 midwestern U.S. elementary schools. Involved were 3 reading specialists and 27 classroom teachers whose pupils were participating in the Chapter 1 programs in the 2 schools. Programs in both schools were identified as traditional pullout formats. Data collected were from structured and unstructured interviews with the 30 participants and were analyzed using the constant comparative method. Analysis indicated patterns in responses resulting in four recurrent themes: local role construction, lack of joint planning, differing philosophies of reading, and varied definitions of program impact. The role of the reading specialist was negotiated between each classroom teacher–reading specialist dyad; specialists constructed their roles differently with each classroom teacher. There appeared to be a lack of joint planning between reading specialists and classroom teachers. Within the 2 groups were varied definitions of Chapter 1 program impact that reflected the differing goals of the two reading programs. The two groups also held different philosophies regarding the reading process.

SCHARER, PATRICIA L. (1996). Are we supposed to be asking questions? Moving from teacher-directed to student-directed book discussions. In Donald J. Leu, Charles K. Kinzer, & Kathleen A. Hinchman (Eds.), *Literacies for the 21st century: Research and practice* (pp. 420–429). Chicago, IL: National Reading Conference.

Explores changes in discussion patterns in fourth and fifth grade classrooms after teachers participated in a 5-month university workshop. Four teachers, participants from a larger study, joined a university workshop of teachers meeting twice a month for 5 months. Workshop participants read and discussed children's literature during each meeting and explored ways to facilitate discussions with their pupils through professional readings. Participants also worked in classroom settings to try various book discussions with children and to share these trial experiences later during the workshop. Small-group book discussions were audiotaped before participation in the workshop and 6 months later. Field notes were taken during the discussions and teachers were interviewed before and after each round. Discussions were coded for the kinds of questions used to sustain the talk, patterns of turn taking and control, and topic changes across genre and time. Interviews were used to identify shifts in teachers' goals, strategies, and self-reflections. Over the course of the study, the classroom discussions seemed to shift from a heavy reliance on vocabulary and sequencing events in the book to focusing on students' questions and personal experiences. None of the teachers experienced this shift quickly or with ease. Concerns included a sense of discomfort as teachers relinquished control and redefined the values they placed on the types of experi-

ences found in book discussions. Pupils' responses mirrored this discomfort as they tried to adjust their roles during discussions.

JONES, M. GAIL, & VESILIND, ELIZABETH M. (1996, Spring). Putting practice into theory: Changes in the organization of preservice teachers' pedagogical knowledge. *American Educational Research Journal, 33*, 91–117.

Investigates how student teachers' concepts of effective teaching change over time, as well as what experiences and factors student teachers report as influencing changes in the organization of their concepts. To describe changes in 23 preservice teachers' cognitive organization, the researchers combined and compared data from the following three tools: (1) multidimensional scaling of concepts from a card sort task, (2) concept mapping, and (3) interviews administered four times during the students' senior year. The findings indicated that student teachers reconstructed their knowledge related to teaching during the middle of student teaching and attributed these changes in knowledge and organization primarily to student teaching experiences. Using a constructivist perspective, the researchers discuss how anomalies experienced by student teachers interacted with prior knowledge. Two concepts, flexibility and planning, emerged as key concepts that changed rapidly. Initially, flexibility was associated with preparation for class; then, toward the end of student teaching, this concept was associated with differentiating instruction for students' needs and taking advantage of the teachable moment. Planning was initially described as a concept associated with lessons and obtaining materials, but by the middle of student teaching, it became associated with the unpredictability of classroom events. In addition, by the end of student teaching, planning had come to be considered a complex concept that connected lesson planning, maintaining class management, and meeting students' needs.

II–5 Evaluation of programs and materials

SPIEGEL, DIXIE LEE. (1995, October). A comparison of traditional remedial programs and Reading Recovery: Guidelines for success for all programs. *The Reading Teacher, 49*, 86–96.

Reviews research of traditional remedial programs (Chapter 1) and the Reading Recovery program in an attempt to explain the marginal impact of traditional programs and the successes of the Reading Recovery program. Observational research in traditional remedial classrooms and published results of studies of Reading Recovery were analyzed. From these two reviews, guidelines for success for any remedial literacy program were suggested. Among the suggestions were the following: Intervention should take place early; reading instruction should focus on comprehension of connected text; children must have the opportunity to learn; children should be taught strategies and how to transfer those strategies to new situations; writing should be an integral part of a beginning reading program; a beginning reading program should have phonemic awareness as part of the curriculum; the intervention program should be congruent with the classroom reading program; direct instruction should be part of the program; instruction in special programs should be individualized; children's attempts to make meaning of text should be reinforced; children most at risk should be taught by the best teachers; and children who have fallen behind need a program that helps them make accelerated progress.

LALIK, ROSARY; DELLINGER, LANETTE; & DRUGGISH, RICHARD. (1996). Appalachian literacies at school. In Donald J. Leu, Charles K. Kinzer, & Kathleen A. Hinchman

(Eds.), *Literacies for the 21st century: Research and practice* (pp. 345–358). Chicago, IL: National Reading Conference.

Reports on teachers' perspectives and responses to one school's attempts to adapt curriculum and educational practices to meet the literacy needs of U.S. Appalachian pupils. Six teachers were involved in the development and implementation of a school-based residency program providing pupils with intensive training in the arts of storytelling, theater, and music. The study reports on the first 2 years of the school-community partnership. Data included field notes, papers, correspondence, journals, projects, photographs, and transcribed interviews. Profiles of four teacher perspectives are given. The teachers judged their efforts to be supportive of increased pupil interest, participation, and learning. Parental and community support was positive and teachers continued pursuing and elaborating the project in their individual classrooms.

HOFFMAN, JAMES V.; MCCARTHEY, SARAH J.; ELLIOTT, BONNIE; PRICE, DEBRA; BAYLES, DEBRA; FERREE, ANGELA; & REHDERS, SYLVIA. (1996). Literature-based reading instruction: Problems, possibilities, and polemics in the struggle to change. In Donald J. Leu, Charles K. Kinzer, & Kathleen A. Hinchman (Eds.), *Literacies for the 21st century: Research and practice* (pp. 359–371). Chicago, IL: National Reading Conference.

Observes and interviews 14 teachers as they responded to the introduction of a literature-based basal reading series in their classrooms. The teachers were drawn from 8 different schools and 4 districts representing rural, urban, and suburban areas. Prior to the introduction of the new basals (year 1) and during the adoption of the materials (year 2), the teachers were interviewed and observed a minimum of 3 times annually. Through inductive analysis of these data, specific teachers were targeted for additional observations and interviews. Key similarities and differences in the way selected teachers identified and dealt with concerns about skills instruction, guided practice, and literature selection in their practice are given. Reading skills instruction varied tremendously. At one end of the continuum teachers had little success implementing suggestions from the basal, whereas other teachers appeared to successfully make literature the cornerstone of skills instruction. Teachers also wrestled with the issue of how best to guide children toward success with texts that were uncontrolled in terms of vocabulary. Some teachers used the shared reading model, whereas others questioned its usefulness. Finally, some teachers responded positively to the multicultural nature of the texts as reflections of society, others were critical of the controversial themes, and others ignored the content of the literature.

MEYERSON, MARIA J. (1996, Spring). Naturalistic assessment: Teachers' concerns and confidence. *Journal of Reading Education, 21*, 51–61.

Attempts to determine the level of confidence 9 classroom teachers and a principal expressed concerning their use of naturalistic assessment. Subjects were enrolled in a graduate studies course on a naturalistic assessment; 3 of the teachers and the principal taught in elementary schools, 3 taught in middle schools, and 3 taught in high schools. Participants were interviewed at the beginning and end of the semester about naturalistic assessment and responded at both times to the Stages of Concern Questionnaire (SoCQ). The researcher-instructor also kept field notes of her impressions about each class meeting. In addition, subjects completed confidence ratings concerning the use of naturalistic assessment and wrote narratives explaining their ratings; these were collected 5 times during the semester. Results of the SoCQ at the beginning of the semester indicated that class members were most concerned about acquiring accurate information on naturalistic assessment and how it would affect them. At the end of the semester, students were more interested in the impact on children. Subjects held

high-confident ratings at the beginning of the semester and showed even higher ratings at the end of the class. Class discussions and written narratives revealed the importance of a supportive environment in order for alternative assessment to succeed.

RICHARDSON, PATRICIA M. (1996, April). Performance assessment in Maryland: What have we learned from our students? *Literacy: Issues and Practices, 13*, 23–30.

Surveys pupils and teachers regarding their perceived strengths and weaknesses of the Maryland School Performance Assessment Program. The program, used with third and fifth grade children, taught pupils how to approach performance assessment tasks and how to use rubrics to evaluate their work. Children were asked to respond to 4 questions and examples of their responses are presented. Feedback of third grade teachers indicated that the collaborative approach of various individuals aided the success of the project and that cooperative learning opportunities were particularly helpful for their pupils. Fifth grade teachers noted that the instruction in the use of rubrics to evaluate responses was effective and stressed the value of engaging pupils in strategies for problem solving, as well as the emphasis on prediction, and data collection and analysis.

KING, JAMES R.; DANFORTH, SCOT; PEREZ, SUSAN; & STAHL, NORMAN S. (1994). Is resistance empowerment? Using critical literacy with teachers. In Bernard L. Hayes & Kay Camperell (Eds.), *Reading: Putting the pieces together* (pp. 65–76). Athens, GA: American Reading Forum.

Presents a case study of implementing a critical literacy perspective in a masters' level course. Participants were 10 teachers enrolled in a graduate course in the supervision of reading. Eight teachers were currently teaching at local elementary and secondary schools. The course used 2 texts that dealt with a critical analysis of literacy education as well as supplementary readings, written response papers, and an inservice module. Two participant observers, doctoral students in education enrolled in a qualitative research class, attended all class meetings and collected field notes, made observations, and interviewed students informally and formally. The instructor's agenda for the course was to engage teachers in questioning their literacy beliefs, teaching approaches, and schools' curricula in literacy. Teachers were comfortable with the content and appeared fluent in their discussions and writings about the premises and merits of a critical approach to reading and writing. However, teachers did not talk about their own teaching and classrooms in the same critical theory terms they used to discuss the readings. A separation between theory and practice was observed throughout the course.

TURNER, NANCY D'ISA. (1996, Spring). Increasing diagnostic abilities: Methods used in a corrective reading course. *Reading Instruction Journal, 39*, 25–28.

Examines the kinds of experiences that stimulate the functional use of reading diagnosis as learned in a corrective reading course for future elementary teachers. The content of the course included (1) review of the reading process and factors that correlate with reading disability, (2) reading and writing assessment, and (3) remediation strategies. Students in the course were given a choice of assignments to reinforce their understanding of the uses, administration, recording, and scoring of various observational instruments and tests. One assignment was to construct a language arts assessment notebook; the alternate assignment was to use the assessment techniques while working with one elementary child. A sample of students who chose each of the two assignments (11 in each group) were administered a pre- and post-course survey about their understanding of the reading process, knowledge of reading tests, ability to administer the tests and plan instruction, and confidence in their ability to manage a corrective reading program. Pretest results indicated that the students acknowledged little understanding of the course concepts; however, on the posttest, nearly all acknowl-

edged familiarity with diagnostic tests, ability to diagnose pupil strengths, plan instruction, and an understanding of the reading process. All 11 of the students who completed notebooks and 9 of those who worked with a child felt confidence in their ability to manage a corrective reading program.

PALMER, BARBARA MARTIN; HOLAHAN, MARIE E.; & JOHNSTONE, JUDY RAMOY. (1996). The challenge of change: The M.Ed. portfolio. In Martha D. Collins & Barbara G. Moss (Eds.), *Literacy assessment for today's schools* (pp. 123–133). Harrisonburg, VA: College Reading Association.

Describes how one small liberal arts college in Maryland applied performance-based teacher education standards through the use of portfolio assessment in its Master of Education program in elementary education. Portfolio contents, evaluation rubrics, and challenges and concerns experienced are presented.

GAUTHIER, LANE ROY. (1996, April). A strategy for expanding reading comprehension: Melding the extremes of Barnes's teacher questioning model. *Literacy: Issues and Practices, 13*, 31–36.

Advances a strategy of teacher questioning that was field tested in 2 fourth grade and 2 fifth grade classrooms. Pupils in each of the classrooms were divided into groups and asked to select a nonfiction topic of interest. Group members then were asked to decide what they wanted to learn about the topic and to formulate questions to help them learn what they needed to find out. Each group then researched the questions and reported back to class members. The 5-step procedure is illustrated with examples from one of the fifth grade classrooms. Teachers in the classrooms felt that the success of the procedure was demonstrated by increased pupil motivation as compared to a more traditional mode of presenting material and asking prepared questions to assess learning. Teachers agreed that there was a higher and more involved degree of questioning behavior from the teacher as well as from pupils.

STEWART, ROGER A.; PARADIS, EDWARD E.; & VAN ARSDALE, MINERVA. (1995). Mrs. Van's story: An exploration of the meaning changes in a teacher's professional life. In Kathleen A. Hinchman, Donald J. Leu, & Charles K. Kinzer (Eds.), *Perspectives on literacy research and practice* (pp. 438–447). Chicago, IL: National Reading Conference.

Outlines the results of a collaborative inquiry involving 2 university professors and a first grade teacher. The cooperative inquiry involved 4 phases. First, the researchers agreed on enhancing parental involvement as an area of inquiry and designed an action plan to be implemented. Mrs. Van videotaped parent-teacher conferences, surveyed parents concerning the parent communication program and format, and recorded outcomes in her journal. The university researchers became immersed in the action plan for change and conducted videotaped interviews with parents and children immediately following the conferences to assess the degree to which they liked the conference format, the increased communication at home, and parental involvement. The final phase evaluated and reflected on activities undertaken in order to make adjustments and set new directions. Data sources included field notes and audiotapes of meetings, seminars, journal entries, videotapes of parent conferences, classroom artifacts, and interviews. Symbolic interaction theory is used to describe and discuss how Mrs. Van's meaning shifts and changes in practice represent a significant professional transformation.

WEAVER, PAMELA J. (1996, April). Parents' and educators' opinions and practices of parental involvement. *Literacy: Issues and Practices, 13*, 2–14.

Surveys teachers and parents to obtain opinions about parental involvement practices. The 10 open-ended question survey was sent to 71 educators (37 returned) and 80 parents (25 returned). All parents had private-school children between the ages of 2 and 5 years. All the parents and two thirds of the educators replied that it was the responsibility of both groups to educate children. All the parents felt that their involvement in their child's education was important, and 23 (92%) said that they benefited from being involved. Most educators also felt positive about parental involvement in their child's education and literacy development. Only 2 (8%) parents felt that teachers were involving them adequately in their child's education, whereas 55% wanted more written and oral communication, and 30% wanted to increase their at-home activities with their child and wanted specific suggestions from teachers.

PITCHER, SHARON. (1996, April). What schools can learn from family literacy programs. *Literacy: Issues and Practices, 13*, 15–22.

Reviews the research and writings on family literacy in an effort to describe and analyze family literacy programs and suggest how effective elements of such programs can be incorporated into school-parent involvement initiatives. The family literacy movement is identified as stressing empowering parents to make literacy a part of the life of their families. The research reviewed demonstrates that parents are an important factor in a child's acquisition of literacy. Six successful literacy programs are identified and examined: Three PACE (Parent and Child Education) projects, the family WRAP (Writing and Reading Appreciation for Parents) program, and several RIF (Reading Is Fundamental) programs. Five major conclusions are drawn from the research findings: (1) A literacy-rich environment at home is a major factor contributing to success in school; (2) family literacy programs give families opportunities to enjoy educational experiences; (3) a crucial component to a successful family literacy program is quality staff development; (4) appreciation and availability of quality reading material is stressed; and (5) barriers to the families are analyzed and provided for as much as possible in family literature programs.

FLEISCHER, CATHY; KOCH, RICHARD; LEWIS, JENNIFER; & ROOP, LAURA. (1996, January). Learning to walk it, not just talk it: Standards and Michigan's demonstrations sites. *Language Arts, 73*, 36–43.

Cites stories from 4 demonstration sites implementing the Michigan English Language Arts Framework project, a state standards project. The 4 districts selected ranged from rural to urban and from small to large. Twelve person teams from each of the districts met for 2 weeks during one summer to discuss and clarify the meaning of the standards. Each district then developed one broad theme across grade levels in an effort to foster collaboration and conversation across levels. Reports from each site are presented. It is noted that the standards projects are not all alike and that implementation of standards will vary markedly and be applied in different manners in different districts.

LEWIS, JILL; MULCAHY-ERNT, PATRICIA; PITMAN, JOHN; & ROSSELL, ELIZABETH. (1995, Fall). The literacy education preparation of novice teachers in New Jersey: Administrator and teacher views. *The Reading Instruction Journal, 39*, 9–11.

Conducts a questionnaire survey to determine the effectiveness of literacy education coursework in New Jersey undergraduate teacher certification programs. A total of 33 elementary and 17 secondary new teachers and 24 administrators responded. The 32-item questionnaire sent to teachers asked how well prepared they felt to teach 5 aspects of literacy education: theory, instructional strategies, special needs, assessment, and environment and resources. Administrators received a 64-item questionnaire, the first part of which asked them to rate how important each of the 32 items was to their school; the second part asked

them to evaluate the quality of performance of beginning teachers on the same items. Actual figures are not presented. The authors report that newly certified elementary teachers see themselves more positively prepared than do newly certified secondary teachers. Administrators are reported to be satisfied generally with the level of skill of new teachers. Both groups indicated that more preparation is needed in the areas of assessment and working with special populations.

NOURIE, BARBARA; CURTIS, DEBORAH; & LENSKI, SUSAN DAVIS. (1995, Fall). Characteristics of middle school reading programs. *Journal of Reading Education, 21*, 46–56.

Examines how middle school educators rated their schools on a survey covering 10 components of effective middle school reading programs. Respondents were 66 participants in a middle school session at an International Reading Association conference. Of the respondents, 55% rated their schools above average in commitment of school personnel to the reading program, whereas 31% rated their schools above average on the commitment of content area teachers to teaching pupils as opposed to teaching content. Only 34% of respondents rated their schools as above average in integrating the language arts, whereas 14% thought that their schools scored above average in involving parents and community members in their schools' reading programs. Only 17% of replies indicated that their schools were above average in involving teachers in activities such as action research and teaming or peer coaching.

HARRIS, SANDRA. (1996, May). Bringing about change in reading instruction. *The Reading Teacher, 49*, 612–618.

Describes the process one school went through in changing the reading curriculum from a traditional basal program to one built around literature. The faculty as a group first agreed upon the need to offer a more balanced reading program than the one in place. They began with an exploration of the professional literature, visited literature-based reading programs in their geographical area, attended workshops on literacy development, and consulted with university personnel. In the second year, teachers began to change their reading programs and to keep journals of their experiences. Parents were informed of the reforms taking place. Excerpts from the teacher journals are presented. A survey evaluating program changes showed that 10 of the 11 teachers involved felt that they were successful in implementing a more literature-based program in their classrooms. A parent questionnaire indicated that parents were favorable to the changes occurring in the school reading program.

STANDERFORD, N. SUZANNE. (1995–96, Winter). Teacher research at the preservice level: Developing a stance toward knowledge, agency, and collaboration. *Journal of Reading Education, 21*, 30–43.

Reports results of a 3-semester self-study of the author's own literacy assessment course, which had 75 preservice teachers enrolled. The researcher intended the examination to lead to a better understanding of teaching and learning to teach and to develop practices that encouraged preservice teachers to become teacher researchers. Preservice teachers worked weekly with 1 to 3 children in an elementary classroom. Each employed a variety of assessments and designed appropriate instruction to meet their pupils' learning needs. Lessons were observed by both the professor-researcher and an elementary teacher. Preservice teachers kept a reflective journal that included their plans, their reports of what occurred, and their reflections on what was learned. Data collected for the study included (1) the researcher's reflective journal, (2) student journals and papers, (3) student self-assessments, and (4) anonymous student evaluations of the course. Data were analyzed using the constant comparative method and by coding and summarizing sources to determine common themes and patterns.

The findings are discussed using 3 teacher stances: creating knowledge, serving as agents of change, and collaborating with others to construct and share theories.

MEEKINS, AMY, & WOLINSKI, JOHN. (1994, Spring). Learning by doing: Let's practice what we teach. *Journal of Reading Education, 19*, 19–21.

Gives results of a cooperative learning experience practiced in undergraduate reading methods classes. Four-member learning teams were formed for several weeks each semester during a unit on phonics in the class. Instruction was given in phonics by the methods instructor with follow-up activities carried out by the teams. At the end of the unit, team members took individual quizzes on phonics content. At the end of the semester, a survey asked students' opinions about various aspects of the course, including the teaching techniques utilized. During a 2-week span in which the cooperative learning experience was provided, 148 surveys were returned, with 128 (86%) students checking the cooperative learning experience as very helpful.

DILLON, DEBORAH R.; DIXEY, BRENDA P.; HALL, VALERIE; NIERSTHEIMER, SUSAN L.; & YOUNTS, TAMMY. (1996). Authentic assessment in a university preservice literacy course. In Martha D. Collins & Barbara G. Moss (Eds.), *Literacy assessment for today's schools* (pp. 95–109). Harrisonburg, VA: College Reading Association.

Implements several alternative assessments constructed to measure preservice teacher education students' learning in a reading methods course. A team of 5 university instructors designed and implemented new assessments for 4 sections of an introductory literacy course for undergraduate preservice teachers (n = 306). An overview of the new assignments and assessments is provided. Students' responses to two assessment activities, the personal literacy history portfolio and the second examination, are detailed. Students believed they were more successful in their development as teachers based on their own self-evaluations. Strong ownership for ideas presented and application of techniques to new courses were observed. The benefits of authentic assessments for students and instructors are listed.

MATANZO, JANE BRADY. (1996). Pre and post course literacy self-assessment: Its positive impact on preservice teachers. In Martha D. Collins & Barbara G. Moss (Eds.), *Literacy assessment for today's schools* (pp. 145–160). Harrisonburg, VA: College Reading Association.

Reports on the use of an alternate assessment device that required self-assessment and reflection connected to course objectives. Participants were 112 undergraduates enrolled in 4 different sections of a children's literature course and 138 junior and senior elementary and special education undergraduates enrolled in 5 different sections of diagnostic teaching of reading. Courses were taught by the same instructor during a 2-year period. Pre- and post assessments were developed that featured cognitive, application, and affective objectives for each course. The pretest was administered for each course prior to distribution of course materials. These were returned to students with the post-course assessment forms, and students were given 2 weeks to complete reflections. Points were awarded for completion of each assessment but contents were not graded. Pre- and post-responses were read, analyzed, and categorized into one of 4 categories by trained coders: elaborated, adequate, partial, or no response, depending on the thoroughness of the response. Responses were categorized and tallied by frequency of response patterns. Composite percentages for both courses on the pretest showed an average of 11% adequate, 28% as partial, and 61% as no response. No responses merited the elaborated category. On the posttest, 66% of responses received superior ratings, with 34% considered adequate. No responses were placed in the partial or no-response category. Data reported for specific items for each course are provided in tables. All students appeared aware that they had progressed.

CRAIG, MADGE T., & LEAVELL, ALEXANDRA G. (1995). Preservice teachers' perceptions of portfolio assessment in reading/language arts coursework. In Wayne M. Linek & Elizabeth G. Sturtevant (Eds.), *Generations of literacy* (pp. 83–95). Harrisonburg, VA: College Reading Association.

Evaluates the impact of portfolio use in undergraduate language arts and reading courses. Subjects were 54 students in undergraduate reading and language arts courses at a large southwestern U.S. university. In response to participation in a portfolio assignment, students completed a 7-item questionnaire at the end of the semester. A 7-point Likert scale was used asking students to indicate pre-course and post-course perceptions of the value of the portfolio for their own learning, for a future teaching tool, and for preferences on specific aspects of their portfolios. Descriptive statistics were calculated and constant comparative method employed. Students' perceptions of the portfolio process changed dramatically during the semester from negative to positive. The portfolio process was seen as contributing to their learning and as providing students with background to implement in their future classrooms. Reports varied in preference for student- (34%), teacher- (3%), or student-teacher- (57%) designated items for inclusion. Students referred to peer conferencing, choice, reflection and self-evaluation as preferred elements. Suggestions for change included additional opportunities for teacher conferencing, models of sample portfolios, and clearer guidelines for construction.

PRYOR, ELIZABETH. (1996). Assessment criteria in first grade: What do teachers want to know about students' reading and writing? In Martha D. Collins & Barbara G. Moss (Eds.), *Literacy assessment for today's schools* (pp. 3–15). Harrisonburg, VA: College Reading Association.

Focused on criteria selected by 3 first grade teachers in their literacy assessment and the impact of those criteria on the assessment process. The teachers selected had a minimum of 4 years' experience at the first grade level and were recommended as exemplary teachers with a holistic orientation toward literacy instruction. All teachers taught in a K–6 elementary school in a small midwestern town. Data collected during the first 8 weeks of school were interviews, observations, questionnaires, classroom artifacts such as lesson plans and assessment devices, field notes, and transcripts of think alouds obtained during collaborative lesson planning. Constant-comparative method was employed to describe each teacher case and to analyze cross-case patterns to build a theoretical model of the assessment process. Results show that assessment criteria varied according to teachers' beliefs about how students learn and about the reading-writing process. Each teacher has at least one criterion unique to her. Although all teachers identified a common criterion, each teacher defined it differently. Many assessment criteria appeared unrelated to literacy and were externally imposed. Teachers stated they did not alter their literacy criteria during the year, even though the expectations of and standards for student performance changed. The criteria largely determined how teachers gathered and documented assessment data.

III. Sociology of reading

III–1 Role and use of mass media

BAINES, LAWRENCE. (1996, May). From page to screen: When a novel is interpreted for film, what gets lost in the translation? *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy, 39,* 612–622.

Analyzes aspects of language used in 3 novels (*Of Mice and Men, To Kill a Mockingbird,* and *Wuthering Heights*) and their film adaptations. From each book and script, 25 passages of 100 words were evaluated. Used to evaluate these passages were counts of monosyllabic words, the Yoakum Readability Index, t-units, an alphabetical list of 2,500 randomly chosen words, and ways films transposed the novel's plot. The results of the comparison showed that films use fewer polysyllabic words, less complex sentence structures, and have less lexical diversity than novels. The complexity of dialogue, plot, character, and themes were reduced in films. Suggestions are given for ways screenplays can be used in classrooms.

NELSON, MICHELLE R., & HITCHON, JACQUELINE C. (1995, Summer). Theory of synesthesia applied to persuasion in print advertising headlines. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly, 72,* 346–360.

Examines synesthetic metaphors (one sense producing an involuntary perception in another sense, as in "loud colors") in advertising headlines. The 73 college subjects saw 6 slides, consisting of literal and metaphorical (auditory and visual senses) advertisements for 4 products, on either television or camcorder. After viewing the slides, they completed a short questionnaire consisting of general copy and layout questions. They saw each test slide again and completed measures of attitude toward the ads, brands, and manipulation checks for each product. Findings consistently showed subjects exposed to synesthetic metaphors rated both the brands and products more unfavorably than the subjects exposed to nonsynesthetic ads. ANOVA was used to test data.

EMIG, ARTHUR G. (1995, Summer). Community ties and dependence on media for public affairs. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly, 72,* 402–411.

Asks if community ties are related to certain types of media use. Telephone surveys with 365 adults, 18 years or older, were conducted. To establish community ties, respondents answered questions about their voting habits, their residence, and their attention to public affairs. To determine media use, they told how much a particular medium (newspapers, television) was used to follow the news. Based on their replies regarding their use of media, subjects were placed into 1 of 4 groups: both newspaper and television, television, newspapers, and neither. Chi-square was used to test the data. In almost every instance, the strength of community ties progressively increased from "neither" through "television," "newspapers," to "both." This suggested that stronger community ties were related to more or more in-depth media use.

O'SULLIVAN, PATRICK B., & GEIGER, SETH. (1995, Winter). Does the watchdog bite? Newspaper ad watch articles and political attack ads. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly, 72,* 771–785.

Tests the influence of newspaper ad watch articles that monitor the accuracy of televised political attack ads. The 112 university undergraduate subjects read ad watch articles that either confirmed or disconfirmed ads, they watched the ads, and they evaluated candidates. The materials were eight 30-second television political ads and 16 newspaper watch articles. For each ad, 2 articles were written, one confirming and one disconfirming. Subjects were directed to read 2 ad watch articles that commented on 2 television ads from a political race; then they

watched the 2 ads from that race. They made assessments of 11 attributes of the 2 candidates. The data came from a series of MANOVAs of evaluations of the candidates' character, the candidates' ability, and the degree to which the subjects liked or disliked the candidates. The results showed that attack ads that confirmed boosted the evaluations of the attacking candidate whereas ads that disconfirmed lowered the evaluations of the attacking candidate.

WICKS, ROBERT H. (1995, Autumn). Remembering the news: Effects of medium and message discrepancy on news recall over time. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly, 72*, 666–681.

Tests whether message discrepancy and message consistency lead to accelerated recall of information over time when subjects mentally rehearse stimuli and whether television or newspaper stories interact with discrepancy or consistency to produce accelerated recall of news information over time. The subjects were 50 junior and senior undergraduates. The basic plan was to study 2 news items and measure the effect of message consistency, time, and medium on recall. In the experimental design, time (time 1–time 2) was the within-subject factor. Between-group factors were medium (television–print) and message consistency (consistent–inconsistent). Free recall and retest measures were taken immediately after exposure and after a 48-hour thinking interval. ANOVA was used. Consistent messages produced the greatest recall both immediately and later, but this finding was not statistically significant.

III–2 Content analysis of printed materials

SWAFFORD, JEANNE; CHAPMAN, VALERIE; RHODES, ROBYN; & KALLUS, MARY. (1996). A literature analysis of trends in literacy education. In Donald J. Leu, Charles K. Kinzer, & Kathleen A. Hinchman (Eds.), *Literacies for the 21st century: Research and practice* (pp. 437–446). Chicago, IL: National Reading Conference.

Examines *The Reading Teacher* and *Language Arts* over the last three years to identify trends and issues in literacy education. Articles ($n = 53$) were read, coded, and categorized according to theme. Main ideas in each article were also identified. Five categories were revealed: relationships, role of class members, teacher knowledge, resources, and politics. One basic theme emerged across categories: the classroom as a community of learners. Nine dominant trends and issues in literacy education are reflected and discussed relative to their respective categories.

VANDEN BERGH, BRUCE G.; RIFON, NORA J.; & ZISKE, MOLLY CATHERINE. (1995, Winter). What's bad in an ad: Thirty years of opinion from Ad Age's "Ads-we-can-do-without" letters. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly, 72*, 948–959.

Investigates how criticism of advertising changed between 1962 and 1992, based on a content analysis of 404 complaint letters that appeared in *Advertising Age*. The purpose was to determine what factors letter writers found most offensive and troublesome in advertising. Ads were placed into 5 categories (sex, disrespect, violence, selling ethics, and executional errors); specific types of content for each ad were listed. The sample ads were coded into 457 content categories. Univariate chi-squares were calculated to test for variation by year in each complaint category and for the nature of the complaints within each year. All of the complaint categories except disrespect varied significantly by year; complaints varied significantly by type in all years except 1992. The 1960s produced significantly more complaints about executional errors; the 1970s and 1980s produced more complaints about the impact of sex, violence, and vulgarity. The latter type of complaints decreased significantly in the 1990s.

LESLIE, MICHAEL. (1995, Summer). Slow fade to?: Advertising in *Ebony* magazine, 1957–1989. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly, 72*, 426–435.

Investigates the changing image of blacks in *Ebony* magazine's advertisements from late 1950 to late 1980. All full- and quarter-page ads, a total of 721, in 12 issues for the years 1957–1959, 1977–1979, and 1988–1989 were content analyzed. Changes in the appearance characteristics of models used to promote the sales and types of products advertised were noted. The analysis revealed significant differences in the mix of products advertised and the aesthetic qualities of models used in the ads. The number of ads increased considerably. There were significant aesthetic differences in the hair styles and facial types of models featured during 1957–1959 and 1987–1989. There was no difference in the preponderance of Euro-American clothing styles in either period.

MCKINNON, LORI MELTON; KAID, LYNDA LEE; MURPHY, JANET; & ACREE, CYNTHIA K. (1996, Spring). Policing political ads: An analysis of five leading newspapers' responses to 1992 political advertisements. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly, 73*, 66–76.

Analyzes content of 126 political advertisements in 5 leading U.S. newspapers between Labor Day and Election Day in 1992. All features on advertisements for federal races (congress, senate, and president) were analyzed and coded into different types of categories. The results showed that the focus was more on negative than positive ads, with more emphasis placed on issues than images; challengers received more scrutiny than incumbents. Most ad watch features failed to analyze ethically suspect techniques. The majority of the ads appeared in the first part of the newspapers.

FRADGLEY, KIMBERLEY E., & NIEBAUER, WALTER E., JR. (1995, Winter). London's "Quality" newspapers: Newspaper ownership and reporting patterns. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly, 72*, 902–912.

Examines the type of newspaper ownership (independent or conglomerate) and news reporting patterns of London's 4 major quality newspapers. Front page articles from composite weeks for 3 years (1987, 1989, and 1991) were analyzed for conflict stories, channels of information, and staff-written articles for each type of ownership. The 509 articles were coded according to primary source of information and to article origin (staff written, wire service, or other). A higher percentage of the content of the independently owned papers was staff written and relied on nonroutine sources. More than 93% of the articles in the independent papers were staff written compared with 86% in the conglomerate papers. More than 52% of the articles in independently owned papers involved conflict; 37% in the conglomerate papers.

HUGHES, WILLIAM J. (1995, Winter). The "Not-So-Genial" conspiracy: *The New York Times* and six presidential "honeymoons," 1953–1993. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly, 72*, 841–850.

Compares through content analysis of front page headlines in *The New York Times* the portrayals of 6 U.S. presidents (Eisenhower, Kennedy, Nixon, Carter, Reagan, and Clinton) during their first 100 days in office. Values were assigned to verbs and used to calculate a presidential assertiveness score for each president, thereby developing a statistical indicator of the degree to which *The Times* portrayed the presidents as either more or less assertive, passive, or neutral. The press portrayals of Carter and Clinton in the headlines were in less assertive, authoritative language than those of the other presidents. Eisenhower and Reagan received the highest scores. It was suggested that they came into office with comparatively narrow agendas backed by strong, preexisting popular sentiment.

FELDMAN, OFER. (1995, Autumn). Political reality and editorial cartoons in Japan: How the national dailies illustrate the Japanese prime minister. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly, 72*, 571–580.

Analyzes in 2 Japanese national dailies editorial cartoons depicting 6 recent Japanese prime ministers during their first 3 months in office. Coding sheets were used to obtain information about the people, especially the prime minister, in the cartoon. The latter appeared in 451 (44%) of the 1,024 cartoons in both papers. These cartoons appeared about equally in the 2 papers and on almost the same day. The attitude was about the same in both papers. One paper devoted the most coverage to domestic issues; the other, international affairs. The prime minister appeared as a passive man lacking leadership qualities and reflecting, to a certain extent, the prime minister's weak position in Japan.

FICO, FREDERICK, & SOFFIN, STAN. (1995, Autumn). Fairness and balance of selected newspaper coverage of controversial national, state, and local issues. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly, 72*, 621–633.

Develops a content-based technique to assess fairness and balance in U.S. newspaper coverage. This was applied to 4-week period samples of 9 prestige newspapers and the 9 larger dailies in Michigan. Some 259 stories on 18 selected public policy issues were analyzed. The focus of each story was on the reporting of assertions by contenders of these issues. The study found that one side dominated at least 3 of the 6 story qualities examined. Only 7% were found to be evenly balanced, whereas more than 50% had at least 4 of the 6 qualities dominated on one side. The most imbalanced national issue was the Gulf War. Three issues about abortion and 2 about local schools were also imbalanced. Differences among the different newspaper circulation groups were slight. The prestige newspapers performed better than others.

BREWER, MARCUS, & MCCOMBS, MAXWELL. (1996, Spring). Setting the community agenda. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly, 73*, 7–16.

Examines the content of a Texas newspaper editorial after it proposed 8 public issues affecting children for consideration by the public. During the following year, the paper published 2,669 items about children. Two categories, education and violent crime, accounted for more than one third of the total coverage. Two thirds of all items were local ones. The vast majority (63.4%) were hard news stories, not features. About half of the local items reported no action taken. Major increases in funding for children's programs were seen when budgets in the year before and after the editorial campaign were compared.

GRIFFIN, MICHAEL, & LEE, JONGSOO. (1995, Winter). Picturing the Gulf War: Constructing an image of war in *Time*, *Newsweek*, and *U.S. News & World Report*. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly, 72*, 813–825.

Reports the results of a visual content analysis of 1,104 Gulf War pictures appearing in *Time*, *Newsweek*, and *U.S. News and World Report*, published between January 21, 1991, and March 18, 1991. Pictures were analyzed for content, visual style, pictorial genre, and event. They were coded into 40 categories designed to discriminate wartime events and combat-related military activity. More than half of the pictures were classified into one of 3 categories: military hardware, noncombat scenes of troops, and political leaders. There was little coverage of combat activity. American military and technological superiority appeared to be the theme. Omitted were pictures involving the human cost of the conflict and cultural conflicts surrounding the war.

ADER, CHRISTINE R. (1995, Summer). A longitudinal study of agenda setting for the issue of environmental pollution. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly, 72*, 300–311.

Studies the relations among media agenda, public agenda, and real-world conditions concerning environmental pollution from 1970 to 1990. The media agenda was determined by a content analysis of environmental stories in *The New York Times* and a secondary analysis of 2 Gallup Polls. The stories were measured in column inches and coded under 3 topic categories and for prominence. Analyses of secondary sources provided the real-world and public agendas. Content analyzed were 1,954 stories, a 10% sample of the total stories found. The amount of media attention devoted to pollution influenced the degree of public salience of the issues. Despite the overall reduction in pollution, the media coverage increased. Media and real-world conditions were statistically related. Pearson *r* was used to test the data.

ZHANG, GUO-QIANG, & KRAUS, SIDNEY. (1995, Summer). Constructing public opinion and manipulating symbols: China's press coverage of the student movement in 1989. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly, 72*, 412–425.

Examines the symbolic representation of the 1989 student movement in China in Chinese newspapers before and after the Tiananmen Square protest. The sample was randomly drawn from 2 central and 17 regional newspapers, which formed a total of 3 constructed weeks representing April, May, and June 1989. Symbols were words or phrases used to describe the movement or the people involved and were identified as positive, negative, or neutral. Forty symbols were identified. Top leaders manipulated symbols given to the media and highlighted the ideology of the Chinese Communist Party. The change in symbols that occurred represented the attitudes of top leaders. Student demonstrations were reported negatively from the beginning.

SALWEN, MICHAEL B. (1995, Winter). News of Hurricane Andrew: The agenda of sources and the sources' agendas. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly, 72*, 826–840.

Examines sources of direct quotations concerning Hurricane Andrew in 2 U.S. national newspapers (*The New York Times* and *The Washington Post*) and 2 local newspapers where Andrew hit (*The Miami Herald* and *The Times-Picayune* of New Orleans). The analysis yielded 5,726 direct quotations from 1,105 stories during a 15-day period. The 2 national papers each carried fewer than 100 stories. The 7 most quoted sources were unaffiliated individuals (32%), state and local government officials (11.5%), business sources (6.2%), military sources (3.9%), health scientists (3.9%), scientists (3.6%), and volunteers (3.5%). The 7 most prominent topics, accounting for 75% of the topics included, were disaster and suffering; assistance and coordination; general comments; unrelated comments; injuries, stress, and death; economic matters; and guidance. Most of the major news sources were quoted regarding topics related to their expertise. Praise and blame statements were infrequent but, when they occurred, most sources praised themselves and blamed others.

WEIMANN, GABRIEL, & FISHMAN, GIDEON. (1995, Autumn). Reconstructing suicide: Reporting suicide in the Israeli press. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly, 72*, 551–558.

Studies the relation between the suicide news stories in 2 Israeli newspapers and the actual events. Data were derived from 480 issues of the newspapers between 1955 and 1990. For each newspaper 2 major components were recorded: form of coverage (such as space allocation and placement in the paper) and content of coverage (such as motives, religion, and age). Analysis of the data was based on the comparison of the media coverage with the reali-

ty found in official statistics. Although suicide remained relatively static in frequency, press coverage changed in terms of increased reporting, space, and prominence. The press over-reported male suicide, focused on the more violent modes of suicide, misrepresented motives for suicide, and presented neutral coverage.

III–3 Readability, legibility, and typology

SMITH, JANET S., & SCHMIDT, DAVID L. (1996, Winter). Variability in written Japanese: Towards a sociolinguistics of script choice. *Visible Language, 30*, 46–71.

Tests widely held associations among 4 Japanese script types (kanji, hiragana, katakana, and romaji); genres (mystery, comic, business, science fiction, and romance); writers (gender); target audiences (age and gender). Materials were also analyzed to determine if vocabulary alone accounted for script variability. Forty-four popular books were selected for script proportion analysis, a procedure devised by the researchers. Samples were selected from the first page and from the middle pages of the books. MANOVA was used to test whether the script proportions were the same for genre, sex of the authors, or genre–sex combinations. ANOVAS were used to analyze each script separately. Cluster analysis looked for parallel script proportions among the genre to assess their correlation with such factors as authors' sex and age. The results showed that Japanese writers fashioned their script choices to specific contents for sociolinguistic and stylistic ends.

III–4 Reading interests, preferences, and habits

RANE-SZOSTAK, DONNA, & HERTH, KAYE ANN. (1995, October). Pleasure reading, other activities, and loneliness in later life. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy, 39*, 100–108.

Finds that older adults who read for pleasure were less lonely than those who did not. Interviews were conducted with 195 adults between ages 65 and 92 who lived in their own homes. They were asked if they read for pleasure. Instruments used were Katz Activities of Daily Living, Daily Living Scale, Mini-Mental State Test, and UCLA Loneliness Scale. Results were analyzed by ANOVA and multivariate analysis. No significant differences in loneliness were found between those who primarily read magazines and newspapers and those who read books or journals. Choice of reading material was influenced by years of education.

COMBA, HELEN S. (1995, Fall). A glimpse beyond the classroom rich and dynamic contexts: Autobiographical memories of literacy acquisition. *The Reading Instruction Journal, 39*, 21–25.

Presents through a case study a literacy biography of a 76-year-old woman. This is a part of a study in which 6 senior citizens described their memories of their own literacy acquisition and practices. They reviewed what they remembered about learning to read and how they continued literacy throughout their lives. Three interviews were conducted with each subject. The case study described showed early childhood memories of reading, the importance of self-selection of materials, the kinds of materials enjoyed at different stages in life, learning to read experiences, the influence of the home environment, and favorite books at different times in life, especially those as a senior citizen.

NAGY, ATTILA. (1996). My window at the corner of Democracy Square and Library Street (Changes in reading culture in Hungary). In Bobbie Neate (Ed.), *Literacy saves lives* (pp. 131–139). Herts, UK: United Kingdom Reading Association.

Focuses on various aspects of literacy in Hungary, particularly changes since the early 1980s. Changes have occurred as a result of social and political movements. Following political changes, the number of titles published and the average size of print runs at first showed a decrease but showed an increase recently. Surveys of readers over 5 decades show a strong increase in contemporary, recreational, and adventurous types of reading with a concurrent decrease in readers of classical Hungarian literature. Reading of popular fiction among secondary students has increased 5 times in the past decade. Among adults, the popularity of American authors has increased, while the reading of works by Hungarian and European authors has decreased. The most recent figures indicate that only 14% of adults in Hungary are library users, and that only 40% of the students complete secondary school.

III–5 Readership

SMITH, M. CECIL. (1996, April/June). Differences in adults' reading practices and literacy proficiencies. *Reading Research Quarterly, 31*, 196–219.

Examines the relation between reading practices and literacy proficiencies. A sample of 24,842 adults, 19 years of age and older, was assessed by the National Adult Literacy Survey, which measures prose, document, and quantitative literacy proficiencies. Cross-age comparisons of 5 groups were made in reading practices concerning newspapers, magazines, books, and 6 types of personal and work documents. The subjects were categorized as high- or low-activity readers based on their frequency of use of these contents. Reading practices involving books and work documents were strongly related to literacy attainment. More than half the adults read at least 2 print sources on a regular basis, usually a combination of books, newspapers, and magazines. Reading a variety of print sources is strongly associated with superior literacy abilities. Differences in practices are due to education, lifestyles, and occupations. Regardless of age, adults who read multiple-print contents had significantly higher scores on the literacy survey than those who did not read or who read only 1 or 2 sources. Data were analyzed by regression analyses and ANOVA.

NORD, DAVID PAUL. (1995, Summer). Reading the newspaper: Strategies and politics of reader response, Chicago, 1912–1917. *Journal of Communication, 45*, 66–93.

Analyzes letters to James Keeley, editor of the *Chicago Tribune* and *Chicago Herald* in the early 20th century. The main argument was that readers constructed their own meanings as they read news stories, but the meanings they derived were often guided by organized cultural and political power. The study was based on manuscript letters sent to the editor. Three themes of newspaper readership were noted: (1) The letters showed the extreme range of reader responses to the text, showed how the text cued readers to respond in certain ways, and showed how readers made sense by linking one event to another; (2) some readers did not understand or did not agree with the new method of objectivity being developed in the early 20th century; and (3) readers responded to the newspaper in harmony with ideas of larger groups, often political. The letters showed a great diversity of purpose and style. Although some of the letters were intended for the public, most were intended for the editor himself. A wide variety of topics were addressed by the readers.

III–6 Library usage and services

MACADAM, BARBARA. (1995, Fall). Sustaining the culture of the book: The role of enrichment reading and critical thinking in the undergraduate curriculum. *Library Trends, 44*, 237–263.

Reviews research in several areas of postsecondary education, with a particular stress on the development of critical thinking ability and the undergraduate curriculum. The author views the research and writings under the following subheads: Language and Reasoning, The Power of Stories, Critical Thinking and Bibliographic Instruction, Books and Undergraduates, Enrichment Reading and Academic Libraries, Reasoning in an Image and Electronic Culture, and The Role of the Academic Library. It is stressed that, even in its traditional form, the book is not dead. However, it is argued that the academic library must explore new collection development and curricular roles around hypertext. Librarians, it is contended, need to extend their research knowledge base related to learning theory and critical thinking in an effort to develop models appropriate for an electronic environment. Libraries need to establish even stronger partnerships with publishers, media developers, and teaching faculty and administrators than has existed heretofore.

III–7 Social and cultural influences on reading

BARTOLI, JILL SUNDAY. (1995). *Unequal opportunity: Learning to read in the U.S.A.* New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Looks at the classroom, the school, the family, and the community in an ecological study of inequity in learning. The book tells the story of children in the process of learning to read and of the adults who are attempting to help them. The research is told in the voices of the students, parents, teachers, specialists, and administrators who were interviewed and studied. A case study of an African American male followed from the ages of 10- to 20-years old is presented in one chapter. Another chapter describes observations from the first year of a project involving an inner-city elementary school and focuses on the learning environment in the community as well as in the school. In other chapters, a framework to change the system is offered, and stories of ongoing change in some schools are detailed. Two models for transforming schools are presented.

PURCELL-GATES, VICTORIA. (1995). *Other people's words: The cycle of low literacy.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Recounts the story of an urban Appalachian mother and son, living in a midwestern U.S. city, who were tutored over a 2-year period. At the time the study began, the mother, who had dropped out of school in seventh grade, was essentially illiterate; her son was in second grade and could neither read nor write anything other than his first name. He was unsure about one third of the alphabet and had a severe aversion to reading. The father, too, could not read or write. Their homelife was primarily a nonprint environment. The book details the sociocultural factors influencing the 2 case-study subjects and offers examples of the work of the mother, in particular, as she began to develop reading and writing skills.

JOHNSTON, FRANCIS E., & LOW, SETHA M. (1995). *Children of the urban poor: The sociocultural environment of growth, development, and malnutrition in Guatemala City.* Boulder, CO: Westview Press.

Presents findings of a longitudinal study of the social ecology of growth and development of over 500 children living in a disadvantaged community on the periphery of Guatemala

City. The study used an ecological/observational approach, with repeated measurements of the same children made throughout a 5-year period. Included were 5 domains of study: socioeconomic status, home stimulation, physical growth, mental development, and academic achievement. An overlapping cohort design was employed with 3 birth cohorts (ages 3, 5, and 7) selected for analysis at first examination. In the first year, an additional cohort of 1-year-olds was studied in order to provide baseline data on physical growth. The first year of the study include 551 children, with 81.1% seen for all 5 years of the study. The qualitative phase of the study included an urban ethnography of the local community, an interview survey on the incidence and etiology of nervios (a common Latin American folk illness signaling psychosocial distress that is thought to be an indicator of sociocultural stress), a housing consolidation study, and a series of in-depth family ecology interviews with a subsample of 32 households. Data on cognitive development included scores on the WISC (Spanish version) and a modified version of the WPPSI for preschool ages. The domain of academic achievement included a measure of school attendance; the final grades assigned in mathematics and language by teachers; and standardized tests of vocabulary and comprehension in grade 1 and of reading level, reading speed, and vocabulary in grades 2–5. A significant effect of SES on physical growth was found. Analysis of academic achievement revealed that achievement was best predicted by IQ. SES, home stimulation, and physical growth status also contributed to cognitive development. Detailed findings on each domain are reported throughout.

ALTWERGER, BESS; ORTIZ, LEROY I.; & MANN, SANDRA. (1995, Spring). Non-school literacy use and literacy accessibility in the state of New Mexico. *New Mexico Journal of Reading, 15*, 33–39.

Employs telephone surveys and library research to obtain a picture of literacy use and literacy accessibility in New Mexico. The study focused on determining the extent to which reading and writing are necessary for obtaining the services of New Mexico social service agencies and the extent to which literacy opportunities in such forms as bookstores and libraries are available to citizens. In addition, the investigators attempted to determine if literacy accessibility is related to social factors of unemployment, poverty, ethnicity, and region, as well as to high school graduation rates. A literacy accessibility index was computed for each county based on the total number of literacy centers per population. This index was compared with data obtained from the 1980 census, including information related to graduation rates, ethnicity, poverty, and urban/rural population. Findings that emerged from the data suggest that it is not necessary to be literate or to use literacy in any way to obtain vital social services. A wide discrepancy exists among New Mexico counties regarding accessibility to literacy and use of literacy. Literacy accessibility and use seem to be related to a variety of social conditions that exist in each county; for example, counties with above-average accessibility to literacy sources generally have lower poverty and unemployment rates. There appeared to be a positive relation between literacy accessibility and use and academic success as measured by high school graduation rates.

MWIRIA, KILEMI. (1993, May). Kenyan women adult literacy learners: Why their motivation is difficult to sustain. *International Review of Education, 39*, 183–192.

Discusses various obstacles that erode Kenyan adult women's incentive to become literate. Since 1979, when the Kenyan Literacy Program was launched, female enrollment in literary classes has generally exceeded male enrollment. However, myriad responsibilities and roles imposed on Kenyan women leave them little time for independent study, greatly affecting their frequency and duration of literacy class attendance, and substantially diminish their requisite motivation for success.

III–8 Literacy and illiteracy

CEPRANO, MARIA A. (1995, September). Strategies and practices of individuals who tutor adult illiterates voluntarily. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy, 39*, 56–64.

Seeks to derive an understanding of strategies and practices used by reading volunteers for adult literacy programs. Interviews were conducted with 16 volunteers who had received 18 to 20 hours of training in reading instruction provided by the agency. They were asked about the use of appropriate instructional materials, treating miscues made in oral reading, and strategies for comprehension improvement. They were asked 6 questions, each centered on written passages presented with miscue notations and accompanying audiotapes. The results showed that many of the tutors do not implement strategies and practices currently recognized as most effective but tend to use procedures that they themselves had been exposed to as learners.

MORROW, LESLEY MANDEL; TRACEY, DIANE H.; & MAXWELL, CATERINA MERCONE (EDS.). (1995). *A survey of family literacy in the United States*. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Provides a brief historical overview and gives an overview of the current state of family literacy in the United States. In addition, the publication offers information regarding types of family literacy initiatives underway. Family literacy is held to be a complex concept associated with a number of different beliefs about the relationships between families and the development of literacy. Federal, state, and local initiatives related to the current status of family literacy are briefly cited and a short discussion of the evaluation of programs is offered. Following the introduction, the book is divided into 5 sections: Parent Involvement Programs, Intergenerational Programs, Research on Naturally Occurring Literacy in Families, Agencies and Associations That Deal with Family Literacy, and Further References About Family Literacy. Section Four, dealing with research on naturally occurring literacy in families, gives citation information followed by a brief description of the purpose, procedures, results, and implications for teaching of the study.

MOULTON, MARGARET R. (1996). The interaction of family systems and literacy acquisition in adults learning to read. In Donald J. Leu, Charles K. Kinzer, & Kathleen A. Hinchman (Eds.), *Literacies for the 21st century: Research and practice* (pp. 284–295). Chicago, IL: National Reading Conference.

Looks at the interactions of families in which an adult was learning to read in order to explore how families helped or hindered adult literacy learning and how adult literacy learning affect families. The study was conducted in a one-to-one literacy program sponsored by the library district of a large southwestern U.S. city. The researcher assumed a participant-observer role and served as the tutor for the 2 adults described in the study, a 45-year-old man who had never learned to read and a 28-year-old woman who could read at about fifth grade level but could not always write coherently or spell more than short one-syllable words. The program ran for 6 months from January to June with tutoring sessions twice a week. Transcripts of interviews and audiotaped tutoring sessions, field notes, and student written work were triangulated. Data sources dealing with family members included transcripts of interviews, notes from observations during home visits, and family journals. The constant comparative method of data analysis was used to search for trends and patterns during the study. Open-coding resulted in 4 categories: (1) concepts of literacy, (2) perceptions of adult learners, (3) supportive family interactions, and (4) nonsupportive family interactions. Axial coding across cases identified 2 additional categories: literacy-related interactions and non–literacy-related interactions. Familial conflict was found as a major factor in the adult literacy learning in this study, with the level

and frequency appearing to vary. Employment and domestic problems affected both subjects' interactions with their families and their learning. Outside interference, not the lack of learning, eventually caused both to drop out of the program.

PHILLIBER, WILLIAM W.; SPILLMAN, ROBERT E.; & KING, REBECCA E. (1996, April). Consequences of family literacy for adults and children: Some preliminary findings. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy, 39*, 558–565.

Compares results from the second year of a family literacy program with the published reports from a number of similar program. The family literacy program studied was the Toyota Families for Learning Project, which operated at 32 locations in 10 cities. In total, 542 families who where considered among the most in need of assistance participated. Of these, 81% of the families received public assistance, 91% of parents were unemployed, and 84% had no high school diploma. Parents attended programs together with their 3- or 4-year-old children. Although some differences were observed across sites, and the Toyota programs included parent literacy training, a preschool program for children, early childhood education, parent groups, and parent-child interaction. Pre- and posttreatment measures of the parents' literacy and the children's levels of development were collected. Adults were assessed using the Comprehensive Adult Student Assessment System (CASAS) and the Test for Adult Basic Education (TABE). Children were assessed using the PPVT and the Child Observation Record (COR). The results for all participants in the Toyota program were positive; both the adults and children made significant gains of each measure. Their gains were compared to the reported performance of similar samples enrolled in programs focusing only on either adults or children. These studies were chosen because they used the same outcome measures as those used in the Toyota program. In every comparison made, participants in the family literacy program gained more than did participants in the programs focusing on either adults or children alone. Participants in the family literacy programs were more likely to continue in their program. In addition, the adults gained more reading skills, as demonstrated on both the TABE and the CASAS; children did better on every dimension of the COR and improved relative to other children as measured by PPVT scores. All differences were significant and substantial.

LINDER, PATRICIA E., & ELISH-PIPER, LAURIE. (1995). Listening to learners: Dialogue journals in a family literacy program. In Wayne M. Linek & Elizabeth G. Sturtevant (Eds.), *Generations of literacy* (pp. 313–325). Harrisonburg, VA: College Reading Association.

Explores how parents in a family literacy program used dialogue journals to describe their literacy experiences and their daily lives. Subjects were 16 mothers of children ages 4 to 12, enrolled in an adult literacy program. Mothers were reading at or below a fifth grade level upon entry. The program lasted 6 weeks and was designed to engage parents and their children in literacy activities and explore local cultural offerings. Parents and children together attended the sessions that featured storytelling, puppetry, and shared reading. During each session, parents wrote dialogue journal entries that were responded to by the program facilitator. Constant comparative method was employed with journal entries, pre- and postinterviews, and observations. Five categories of responses are described: (1) family roles, (2) goal setting, (3) personal issues and challenges, (4) literary uses, and (5) feedback on the program. The journal entries were consistent with information provided by the interviews and observations. Families were found to use literacy for a variety of purposes as they worked toward goals and to overcome obstacles in their lives.

MERLIN, SHIRLEY B. (1995). Workplace literacy participants: What impact has GED completion had on their lives? In Wayne M. Linek & Elizabeth G. Sturtevant (Eds.), *Generations of literacy*, (pp. 134–144). Harrisonburg, VA: College Reading Association.

Explores the impact of successful completion of the General Equivalency Diploma (GED) test on the personal, academic, and professional lives of participants in a workplace literacy project. Subjects were 30 employees (16 females and 14 males) of a poultry company who were enrolled in a job-specific literacy training program that integrated GED instruction. The program used an individualized open-entry, open-exit approach in which participants could remain until they completed their goals. Classes were held for 2 hours, twice a week, totaling an average of 100 hours of study. Participants who passed the GED test between 1989 and 1994 were interviewed individually by phone or on company sites in cases where telephone access was available. Overall, the results showed that the GED had the greatest impact on students' personal lives but also brought positive changes in their academic and employment prospects. The majority of subjects felt that the GED helped them in their personal lives by improving their self-concept, and a number of participants indicated that they continued, or planned to continue, with their education in a postsecondary or vocational program. Two thirds of the participants indicated that the program helped them with their job skills. Several participants were promoted or expected promotion, and several intended to change jobs in the future.

HOWARD, JOSEPH, & OBETZ, WAYNE S. (1996, March). Using the NALS to characterize the literacy of community college graduates. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy, 39*, 462–467.

Describes the National Adult Literacy Survey and its development, which was intended to provide a criterion-referenced assessment of the literacy skills of community college graduates and to indicate types of literacy tasks the graduates engage in out of the classroom. The test included 165 items largely derived from newspapers and work situations. Three scales of literacy were developed (prose, document, quantitative); the first two were described here. A questionnaire and the evaluations were given to more than 20,000 people, 1,033 reporting they had completed 2 years of college. Most of the community college graduates placed in level 3 (of 5 levels). An important result of the test was the data collected regarding literacy practices and uses. Television was the source of information cited most frequently by these graduates. They also told which parts of the newspaper they read, the types of books they read, the literacy demands of their jobs, and their use of writing.

HART-LANDSBERG, SYLVIA, & REDER, STEPHEN. (1995, October/December). Teamwork and literacy: Teaching and learning at Hardy Industries. *Reading Research Quarterly, 30*, 1016–1052.

Analyzes literacy and teamwork in a factory producing automotive parts. Literacy here was defined as the use of written materials in cultural practices. The company restructured jobs by creating product-centered teams and implemented pay-for-knowledge, compensation based on skill levels. Job competency was defined on the application of literacy in meetings, production, classes, and in other activities that were part of the restructured jobs. Interviews were conducted with workers and managers. Observation settings included classes for new

employees, classes for team problem-solving, meetings for understanding production problems, focus groups, and production and assembly lines. For workers the emphasis on literacy, teamwork, and learning meant opportunities to increase their skills and wages but also meant taking courses and increased responsibility for one's own and others' work.

DEEGAN, DOROTHY H. (1995). Exploring individual differences among novices reading in a specific domain: The case of law. *Reading Research Quarterly, 30*, 154–170.

Investigates individual reading differences among 32 first-year law students as they read a law review article. They were divided into 2 groups based on academic performance subsequent to their first year in law school. A think-aloud procedure was used to infer strategies used. Those in the top quartile used different strategies than students in the bottom quartile. Those in the high-performance group asked questions about the meaning and structure of the text to a significantly higher degree than the low-performance subjects. This difference also contributed significantly to the difference in recitation scores. Procedures used to analyze the protocols (taped recitations) are explained. Mann-Whitney U test was used to determine differences in the 2 groups.

BAUMANN, JAMES F. (1996, April). "Coping with reading disability" —12 years later. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy, 39*, 532–535.

Presents a follow-up of an adult disabled reader who achieved academically in his career and personal life in spite of limited reading ability. The 26-year-old adult male has had reading problems since elementary school but had above-average intelligence. He received help from his teachers and reading clinics but never became an efficient reader. Yet he was able to receive a Master of Arts degree in art, have a successful career, and enjoy his family and home life. As an adult he did not pursue reading or become a reader. This case study shows that limited reading does not need to be a personal and economic handicap.

MUDD, NORMA. (1996, April). An adult "Dyslexic" learns to read and write. *Reading, 30*, 25–32.

Reports a case study of an adult female who had failed to learn to read in school and, at age 32, was essentially a nonreader. The subject came to an adult basic education center for help when confronted with her oldest child's written work, which she was unable to read. She was able to recognize a few words by sight and could read and write the names of her family members and her address. Reading had been difficult for her in the school she had attended in London; in year 5, her teacher had informed the subject's mother that she was dyslexic and would probably never learn to read. Her recollections of secondary school were that she was the object of ridicule and bullying. Described are some of the procedures used in helping the subject to learn to read and write, as well as some examples of her writing. Marked progress was made by the subject in both areas.

III–9 History of literacy

THOMAS, ROSALIND. (1992). *Literacy and orality in ancient Greece*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Examines the roles of literacy and orality separately and as they interacted in ancient Greece. The author distinguishes three components of orality (oral communication, oral composition, and oral transmission) and stresses that each has a different relation to writing. It is noted, too, that there are different levels of literacy, although there is a tendency to treat it as if it were a monolithic skill. The author argues for thinking in terms of phonetic literacy and comprehension literacy, with the former being especially relevant to the ancient context, where reading was not done silently but in order to memorize a text. Many more individuals in ancient Greece could read to some degree than could write. In classical Greece, the signature was unknown, and seals and witnesses were used for proof and authentication. Alphabetic writing appears to have arrived in the Greek world some time during the first half of the eighth century B.C. The script itself and the principles of the alphabet were adopted from the Phoenicians, with signs adapted to denote vowels that were not marked in Semitic languages. Although it is not possible to determine with accuracy the purpose for which the Greek alphabet was developed, the uses of writing as it spread can be traced. Among the earliest uses of writing were the marking of property and the recording of poetry. Published written literature had become relatively common about the beginning of the fifth century B.C., but books were rare until the end of that century. Solitary and silent reading were almost unknown. By the fourth century B.C., the written word appeared to be accorded greater respect. The Greek city-states varied widely in their use of writing. Sparta, for example, had no written laws and few public documents, whereas Athens had a central archive from the end of the fifth century B.C. There was an association of written law with democracy. However, little use was made of the written word for any kind of bureaucratic records by the city-states. Chapters in the text focus on various aspects of the uses of orality and literacy in ancient Greece with an epilogue chapter discussing the roles in the Roman world..

ROBB, KEVIN. (1994). *Literacy and paideia in ancient Greece*. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.

Traces the development of literacy and paideia (enculturation) in ancient Greece. Prior to 750 B.C., Greek society was not literate, although the Greek alphabet had been invented perhaps several decades prior to that date. By 350 B.C., Athenian society had become literate in that major institutions of society had become dependent on alphabetic literacy. At the beginning of the seventh century B.C., the Greeks were using the Phoenician letters to inscribe proprietary marks on personal possessions. The earliest signs of Greek writing are inscriptional records found on perhaps a half dozen pieces of pottery and other works. It is argued that this evidence indicates that the first literate Greeks were not aristocrats, but a small nucleus of craftsmen who made the objects bearing the first inscriptions. With the addition of full vowel notation, the Greek alphabet became the first complete or true alphabet and permitted the emergence of the first fully literate society. It is contended that the idea of vowel notation and the complete graphic system for it were the creation of one man and that it happened only once. The motive for the development of the complete Greek alphabet is felt to be the need to record the hexameters of dedications found in epical poetry. The oldest, long inscriptions reflect the absorption of Homeric or epical verse. Epical verse served as the means of Hellenic oral enculturation in preliterate centuries. Full alphabetic dependency in such institutions as law and education was not achieved until the fourth century B.C.

III–10 Newspaper publication

SHEN, JINGUO. (1995, Autumn). The rise and fall of the *World Economic Herald*, 1980–1989. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly, 72*, 642–653.

Explores the establishment of the *World Economic Herald*, an independent newspaper in China. This study traces the history of the paper, focusing on the contributions of the *Herald* staff, especially the editor-in-chief, Qin Benli. Three issues were discussed: the establishment of the *Herald* as an independent newspaper in a socialist country, the role of the *Herald* in fighting press control and promoting Chinese press reform, and the relation between Chinese journalism and power politics in the 1980s. The study was primarily based on personal interviews with 5 well-informed people from Shanghai. Because the communist government controlled the press, the *Herald* had many problems. By the late 1980s, it had become a major forum for Chinese dissidents. It supported diverse opinions and ideologies and became more critical of malpractices of the party. It became the target of party criticism, with Qin being dismissed. In May 1989, the final editions were published.

RHODES, LEARA, & HENRY, PAGET. (1995, Autumn). State and media in the English-speaking Caribbean: The case of Antigua. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly, 72*, 654–665.

Examines the rise of the political resource model and the fall of the commodity model of the press in the Caribbean. Two hypotheses were confirmed: The rise of the political resource model was accompanied by the fall of the commodity model, and the rise of the political resource model increased state disincentives for the commodity market. Evidence was drawn from the Antiguan case in which a pattern of political ownership was accompanied by the fall of private commercial ownership. It was concluded that the political resource model has been a threat to the business of the press. The abuses of the political model have lowered the standard of journalism and threatened the freedom of the press in the Caribbean.

MERSKIN, DEBRA L., & HUBERLIE, MARA. (1996, Spring). Companionship in the classifieds: The adoption of personal advertisements by daily newspapers. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly, 73*, 219–229.

Investigates advertising for romantic partners in daily newspapers. The findings from a telephone survey of 67 metropolitan newspapers showed how they have responded to readers' needs by adding personal advertisements. Nearly 80% of papers (55) carried personal ads with an additional 7 planning to do so. They varied on the types of ads they accepted. Three primary reasons were given for publishing these ads: revenue, readership, and service.

III–11 History of newspapers and magazines

CRONIN, MARY M., & MCPHERSON, JAMES B. (1995, Winter). Pronouncements and denunciations: An analysis of state press association ethics codes from the 1920s. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly, 72*, 890–901.

Examines journalism's original ethics codes, created in the 1920s, to determine the practices and virtues the codes' creators established as standards of the profession. Codes were developed to improve standards and to answer critics. The codes were developed at a time when the industry needed a credibility boost. They consistently emphasized the watchdog ideal, public service, truthfulness, and honesty in advertising. The effects of propaganda, the rise of press agents, the resurgence of sensationalism, and increasing editorial independence contributed to a noticeable decline in the public's trust in the press. Though press agents

have no ability to enforce the written standards, most newspapers and news organizations continue to consider codes of ethics valuable.

BRADLEY, PATRICIA. (1995, Autumn). The *Boston Gazette* and slavery as revolutionary propaganda. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly, 72,* 581–596.

Shows how the *Boston Gazette* reacted to slavery in America in 1772. Although there was considerable anti-slavery agitation in the colonies at the time, the debate was not apparent in the *Gazette*, which was most influenced by the British Whig press. The *Gazette* misguided readers regarding a 1772 decision in which an American slave was freed by a British court. The editors of the *Gazette* chose not to write about the debate on slavery though the other colonial papers wrote about it. The *Gazette* promoted Southern patriarchy and used the word slavery as a metaphor representing colonial America vis-à-vis Great Britain. It is argued that such use of the word slavery was a deliberate propaganda technique.

LUMSDEN, LINDA. (1995, Autumn). *Suffragist*: The making of a militant. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly, 72,* 525–538.

Describes the history and functions of the *Suffragist*, published between 1913 and 1921, by the National Woman's party that picketed the White House in 1917 to protest for women's right to vote. The paper gave women a voice, kept the suffrage issue alive during World War I, and advanced the demand for a federal suffrage amendment. It grew from a small pamphlet to an 8-page tabloid weekly newspaper in 1915. This early example of a feminist press used vivid and impassioned reporting, dramatic photographs, righteous editorials, cartoons, clever illustrations, and emotional first-person accounts by suffrage pickets to make its case. The paper suspended publication in June 1917, after the U.S. Senate approved the suffrage amendment, but reappeared temporarily as a monthly publication. The paper mirrored both the strengths and weaknesses of the National Woman's party. It was intelligent, courageous, and idealistic but also elitist, racist, and narrowly focused.

RUTENBECK, JEFFREY B. (1995, Summer). Newspaper trends in the 1870s: Proliferation, popularization, and political independence. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly, 72,* 361–375.

Explores changes in American journalism during the 1870s and how they related to the changing role of the press in the 19th century. During the 1870s, newspapers nearly doubled in number, increased in number of pages, and decreased in price. By the end of the 1870s partisan papers were smaller, fewer, and more expensive than their independent and nonaffiliated counterparts. Data for selected states are included.

STREITMATTER, RODGER. (1995, Summer). Creating a venue for the "Love that dare not speak its name": Origins of the gay and lesbian press. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly, 72,* 436–447.

Describes the first 3 widely distributed gay and lesbian U.S. publications founded on the West Coast in the 1950s. All three (*One*, *The Ladder*, and *Mattachine Review*) were distributed nationally but had at the end of the decade a combined circulation of less than 7,000. Readership was considered to be much larger than circulation numbers. The content included personal essays, short stories, and poems written by gay writers; a small amount of news; and reader-service articles. The 3 publications showed similar characteristics and fulfilled similar functions of other social movement presses.

III–12 Book and magazine publication

LOFQUIST, WILLIAM S. (1995–96, Winter). U.S. publishing industry. *Publishing Research Quarterly, 11*, 91–95.

Reports the status of book publication in the United States for the first half of 1995. The publishing industry had gains in real growth by approximately 5.4%, but bookstores reported a 2.5% increase over the last period. Prices of books during the period June 1994, to June 1995, increased an average of 4.5%. The price of school textbooks increased from 15% to 17%. Decreases in prices were found in technical, scientific, and professional books and in book club offerings. Overall gains in U.S. book exports were small.

MILLIOT, JIM. (1996, February 19). Children's paperbacks shine in murky year: Adult HC sales down. *Publishers Weekly*, 118.

Reports sales for children's paperback books in 1995, an increase of 41.1% over 1994. The reasons given for the boom included the popularity of Scholastic's Goosebumps series, increased licensing revenues, greater acceptance of paperback books by libraries, and higher sales of movie tie-ins. Sales for adult hardcover books were down 4.2%, mass market paperback sales were down 3.6%, but elementary and high school textbook sales rose 14.7%. Sales in the Bible category were up almost 10%.

MILLIOT, JIM. (1995, October 16). Book purchases increased 1.6% in 1994, study finds. *Publishers Weekly*, 10.

Presents data about 1994 book purchases in the United States. Americans bought 1.54 billion books, an increase of 1.6% over 1993. The increase came entirely in adult books, accounting for 66% of all books purchased in 1994. Chain bookstores accounted for a higher percentage of adult book purchases than independents. A steady growth was noted in the popularity of hardcover books and trade paperbacks at the expense of the mass market paperback format. Popular fiction represented 50% of the adult book market. The *1994 Consumer Research Study on Book Purchasing*, from which these data were derived, was based on 12,000 subjects who kept diaries of their book buying habits during the year.

MILLIOT, JIM. (1996, January 1). Study finds 69% of Canadians bought a book in 6-mo. period. *Publishers Weekly*, 24.

Reports information about Canadian book buyers according to a survey conducted by Canadian publishing companies. In the last half of 1995, 69% of the residents over age 18 purchased a book. Frequent book buyers accounted for 76% of book purchases. They bought their books in bookstores (40%), through book clubs (20%), in secondhand shops (9%), and at other places such as flea markets and rummage sales. They tended to be women (55%) and readers between ages 25–39 (39%). Their reasons for purchasing certain books included subject matter (38%) and author's reputation or previous work (37%). The total number of subjects was not included.

III–13 Juvenile books and textbooks

MILLIOT, JIM. (1995, October 30). Leaders of the pack: Recent data shows discount stores as the largest outlet for children's books. *Publishers Weekly*, 31.

Reports sources of children's book purchases according to the *1994 Consumer Research Study on Book Purchasing*. Discount stores held a 30% share; book clubs, 17%; chain bookstores, 10%. Fiction and picture books were the most popular book categories.

Paperbacks accounted for 63% of children's book sales. The majority of the books were purchased by households with less than $50,000 in annual income.

III–14 Censorship and freedom of the press

GRECO, ALBERT N. (1995–96, Winter). The First Amendment, freedom of the press, and the issue of "harm": A conundrum for publishers. *Publishing Research Quarterly, 11*, 39–57.

Explores the relation among court cases on censorship, congressional committees, various movements, and secular and religious organizations in attempts to curtail the publication and distribution of certain types of books. In an early piece of legislation in 1868 in England, obscenity was defined not so much by its nature as by who would be exposed to it. This was considered one of the most lasting decisions in the history of censorship. Although the early paperbacks were reprints of hardcover books, they received criticism and were threatened with censorship. In this report are descriptions of attempts by different groups to censor a number of books. Over time, shifts of public opinion resulted in changes in censorship laws. The list of book titles that communities consider offensive changes and lengthens.

DAVIS, KENNETH C. (1995–96, Winter). The lady goes to court: Paperbacks and censorship. *Publishing Research Quarterly, 11*, 9–32

Relates the concerns of constitutional scholars and historians about legal attempts to censor books in the United States. Explored here is the relation between court cases on censorship, congressional committees, various movements, and secular and religious organizations in attempts to ban publication and distribution of certain types of books. Included in this report are titles of books censored at various times, descriptions of different legal cases concerning censorship, and the criticism of paperbacks at different times. Until 1950 paperback bannings were isolated. The list of books that communities consider offensive changes and lengthens.

MUNRO, HEATHER. (1995–96, Winter). Censorship, the Constitution, and the U.S. publishing industry: A selected bibliography. *Publishing Research Quarterly, 11, 73–80.*

Offers a selected bibliography of works published in the 1980s and 1990s related to critical First Amendment and freedom of the press issues of concern to the publishing industry in the United States.

NAYLOR, ALICE P.; DWYER, EDWARD J.; & BLISS, LEONARD B. (1995, Summer). Attitudes of students in education classes toward censorship. *Journal of Research and Development in Education, 28*, 189–195.

Examines the attitudes toward censorship among 1,347 undergraduate students in 14 four-year colleges throughout the U.S., all planning to be classroom teachers. They responded to a 34-item Likert-style scale. Responses were tabulated for positive and negative attitudes toward the free flow of information. Chi-square was used to test the results. Responses on 65% of the items favored free flow of information whereas the responses on the remainder of the items favored restricting the flow of some information, such as words considered offensive to Christians, writings of racist political groups, and descriptions of ways to commit criminal acts. It was concluded that these respondents demonstrated strong support for free flow of information in some areas whereas they wished to restrict flow of information in others. Chi-square results yielded differences by independent variables of race, gender, age, and grade level of interest in teaching.

III–15 Effects of reading

STRAUGHAN, DULCIE; BLESKE, GLEN L.; & ZHAO, XINSHU. (1996, Spring). Modeling format and source effects of an advocacy message. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly, 73*, 135–146.

Investigates the impact of format and source on attitudes of readers. Subjects were 196 mass communication students in a large urban southern U.S. university. They were randomly assigned to 1 of 4 conditions: an advocacy ad or newspaper article attributed to 2 different sources. Information in the news stories and ads was the same. After reading the story or the ad, the students completed a questionnaire that measured 10 dependent variables, such as trustworthiness or interest. Structural modeling procedures, similar to path analysis, were used to analyze the results. Factor analysis and chi-square were also used. The results showed that news was a more effective format than ads and using the corporate official as a source instead of an outside authority was more persuasive. A model was presented and tested.

MASON, LAURIE. (1995, Autumn). Newspaper as repeater: An experiment on defamation and third-person effect. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly, 72*, 610–620.

Explores the difference between publication (original delivery through any medium) and republication (delivery of original message as a quotation through any medium). Self-reported persuasive effect of the message and the perception of the message's effect on others were primary concerns of this investigation. The subjects were 79 prospective jurors surveyed after they were released from jury duty in a county court. They completed questionnaires containing 4 scenarios. Each scenario offered a 2-tailed alternative, with 1 positive and 1 negative explanation. The findings showed that the tendency to see self as different from others was not consistently employed by these jurors. Republication did not consistently influence the jurors to adopt a negative implication, but it appeared to exaggerate their perception that others will. The effect on perceived other was found to be exaggerated when a message was reported through a newspaper rather than delivered directly by the message source.

ISOM, PAUL; JOHNSON, EDWARD; MCCOLLUM, JAMES; & ZILLMANN, DOLF. (1995, Winter). Perception of interviewees with less-than-perfect English: Implications for newspaper citations. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly, 72*, 874–882.

Explores how students perceived the intelligence of an individual in relation to the style of English used by that individual. The 195 college students read one of 12 versions of an experimental story that cited a private or public, male or female source on a political issue. Citations were in correct English, in regional dialect, or in incorrect, flawed English. The students rated the cited sources on a set of 65 adjective scales. ANOVA was used in the data analysis. The results showed that incorrect and dialectical wording diminished the perceived intelligence of a cited source. The effects were uniform for gender of the source and the gender of the student.

JOHNSON, THOMAS J.; WANTA, WAYNE; BOUDREAU, TIMOTHY; BLANK-LIBRA, JANET; SCHAFFER, KILLIAN; & TURNER, SALLY. (1996, Spring). Influence dealers: A path analysis model of agenda building during Richard Nixon's war on drugs. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly, 73*, 181–194.

Uses a path analysis model to test the relations among the public, presidential, and press agendas and measures the extent to which public, media, and presidential concerns about drugs were influenced by the number of drug-related arrests made in the United States. Presidential emphasis on drugs was gauged by the number of lines concerning the topic

found in the *Weekly Compilation of Presidential Documents* for 28 days. The number of drug stories appearing on the front page of 4 major U.S. newspapers in 28 days accounted for the media agenda. The real-world agenda comprised the number of drug-related arrests. Six variables were included: real-world cues, pre- and post-poll presidential emphasis, public concern, and pre- and post-poll media coverage. The study found a linear relation with issues moving first from real world to the media and the public, and then from the media to the public, and finally from the public to the president.

III–16 Research techniques

FINK, EDWARD J., & GANTZ, WALTER. (1996, Spring). A content analysis of three mass communication research traditions: Social science, interpretive studies, and critical analysis. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly, 73*, 114–134.

Assesses the extent to which communication scholars conform to the assumptions associated with social scientific, interpretive, and critical traditions of inquiry. For each tradition 10 variables were examined: ontology, epistemology, nature of the research question, theory, hypothesis, sampling, data collection, verification, data analysis, and generalization. The 253 articles coded were from the most recent issues of 9 professional journals. Three analyses were used: frequency distributions, a conformity index, and patterns of deviation. The content analysis of these articles showed that researchers conform highly to expectations associated with ontology, epistemology, data collection, and data analysis but less so with the other variables. The data show that scholars are strongly guided by the expectations of each tradition, although some deviations suggest some convergence of attributes.

LUCY, STEPHEN; ROBINSON, KAY; & RIFFE, DANIEL. (1995, Summer). Sample size in content analysis of weekly newspapers. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly, 72*, 336-345.

Explores various sampling techniques used in research on weekly newspapers. Five content measures were used: number of stories, number of photographs, number of local government stories, square inches of local government coverage, and percentage of stories about local government. Three sampling techniques were tested: a simple random sample and 2 constructed-year samples (1 stratified by month and 1 by quarter). Exact steps were explained. Two suburban Detroit newspapers were analyzed. These weekly newspapers appeared to be subject to systemic variations similar to those that affect sampling of daily newspapers. Optimal sample size varied for the 2 newspapers based on which of the 3 content measures were used.

IV. Physiology and psychology of reading

IV–1 Physiology of reading

SPAFFORD, CAROL S.; GROSSER, GEORGE S.; DONATELLE, JOSEPH R.; SQUILLACE, STEVEN R.; & DANA, JON P. (1995, April). Contrast sensitivity differences between proficient and disabled readers using colored lenses. *Journal of Learning Disabilities, 28*, 240–252.

Examines the effectiveness of chromatic lenses in the improvement of dyslexia. Subjects were 4 middle SES adults and 4 middle SES children with reading disabilities. All disabled subjects were matched with nondisabled readers of the same age group and SES. Of interest were (1) the relation between lens color and visual grating performance (the ability to discriminate light and dark parts of a figure), (2) the impact of reading disability on visual grating performance with each lens color, (3) the threshold of individual retinal brightness sensitivity, and (4) the group performances on a visual detection task with chromatic lenses and with clear lenses. Statistical analyses revealed spatial frequency of visual grating did differentiate between reading disabled and nondisabled adults, but lens color did not. Reading disabled subjects generally exhibited lower contrast sensitivity than nondisabled subjects.

GUNTER, THOMAS C.; JACKSON, JANET L.; & MULDER, GIJSBERTUS. (1995, May). Language, memory, and aging: An electrophysiological exploration of the N400 during reading of memory-demanding sentences. *Psychophysiology, 32*, 215–229.

Examines age differences in processing written sentences that vary in their demands on working memory. Paid subjects were 48 native Dutch speakers (24 students ranging in age from 19 to 23, and 24 older academics ranging in age from 50 to 66). Subjects were presented with sentences that made either a high or low demand on working memory and that ended either congruously or incongruously to the expected ending. Along with these, a wide variety of behavioral as well as physiological measures, event-related potential (ERP), of working memory were administered. Repeated measures MANOVA applied to the various sets of data showed that, although large individual differences in working memory exist, older subjects generally tend to produce lower working memory scores. The ERP difference between congruent and incongruent endings was smaller in a high-loaded condition for younger subjects and totally nonexistent for older subjects. However, ERPs for all subjects displayed a working memory related positivity in sentence middles and a working memory related negativity at sentence endings.

SEGALOWITZ, SIDNEY J.; WAGNER, W. JAMES; & MENNA, ROSANNE. (1992, September). Lateral versus frontal ERP predictors of reading skills. *Brain and Cognition, 20*, 85–103.

Examines the relation between various event-related potential (ERP) measures and individual differences in reading skills. Subjects were 27 ninth graders in the normal range of intellectual ability. Sixteen of the subjects were selected because they were considered to be average-to-good readers, whereas the other 11 were chosen because they were considered to have reading difficulties. ERP measures of hemispheric asymmetry were collected for language, signal processing efficiency, hemisphericity, and frontally based control of attention. Although good and poor reader groups differed, results suggested that neither lateralization (the pattern of hemispheric specialization for language) nor hemisphericity (the hemispheric cognitive style) alone accounted for much variance in reading skill. Individual reading scores were not predicted by the two constructs. The findings do indicate that, below some crucial threshold, reading disability is predicted by frontal attentional skill, whereas above the threshold, hemisphericity is a better predictor of good reading.

IV–2 Sex differences

EVANS, KAREN S. (1996, March). Creating spaces for equity? The role of positioning in peer-led literature discussions. *Language Arts, 73*, 194–202.

Illustrates how positioning occurred in a fifth grade, peer-led literature discussion group and challenges the assumption that peer-led discussions are necessarily a democratic forum where children's voices can be heard and valued. Participants were members of one literature discussion group in a fifth grade class in a multicultural school who were reading a historical fiction book. The discussions, which took place for 6 days over a 2-week period, were videotaped for transcription and analysis. Qualitative analysis procedures, including constant comparison and content analyses, were completed. The analyses focused on what purposes guided the conversations, who initiated topics for discussion, who made comments to try to refocus the group, what the response was to such commands, when pupils overtly tried to position themselves and others, and what the response was to such positioning. Results revealed that when the group discussed the book, they focused predominantly on the action in the book. Their discussion often took the form of retelling the parts of the book they enjoyed. They critiqued the language used by the characters and tried to determine the meaning of the book's title. They also discussed the author's style of focusing on the main character, and they frequently criticized the author for not providing enough information about the other characters. The conversational purpose given the most attention by this group was social, and a large amount of time was spent discussing unrelated topics. Two members appeared to share the leader role, as indicated by both the number and type of episodes they initiated. One member assumed the role of business manager, as she initiated the most episodes that dealt with maintenance issues. Two other members shared the role of social director, as they initiated the most episodes of social talk. Other that this, a clear gender influence was observed. The 3 boys who assumed the right to tease another group member (a girl), consistently followed the pattern of boys marginalizing girls.

WILHELM, JEFFREY, D. (1995, December). Reading is seeing: Using visual response to improve the literacy reading of reluctant readers. *Journal of Reading Behavior, 27*, 467–503.

Compares the responses of two reluctant LD readers before and after they were helped to visualize story situations and events through visual arts. Subjects were seventh grade boys labeled LD and identified by former teachers as the most reluctant readers in their seventh grade class. The visual art procedures introduced to the boys included the reading of illustrated books; the use of visual protocols; and the creation of symbolic story representations, illustrated books, collages, and picture maps regarding their reading. Data were subjected to ethnographic analysis, including preliminary and systematic domain searches, to reveal codes and themes. Data revealed that the use of visual art helped these two readers to begin enjoying reading and to begin evoking and manipulating story worlds in their minds. The treatments encouraged the boys to see not only what they were reading but also to make other response moves involving emotional affect, connecting their own life to the literary experience, and considering the significance of the text. The two were also able to participate in the classroom community through their artwork.

IV–3 Modes of learning

HOROWITZ, ROSALIND. (1994). Adolescent beliefs about oral and written language. In Ruth Garner & Patricia Alexander (Eds.), *Beliefs about text and instruction with text* (pp. 1–24). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Describes adolescent beliefs about and interpretations of a range of oral and written discourse. Participants ranged from 15 to 17 years old and included 5 males and 5 females of whom 9 were Hispanic and 1 was African American. They were selected for the project based on scores on the McGraw-Hill Test of Basic Education and were divided into 3 ability groups:

Low, middle, and high. Each student individually read or listened to 9 passages selected for the study. The passages consisted of several paragraphs of discourse reflecting real-world content drawn from the verbal arts and were presented in counterbalanced order, alternating the presentation of the first passage as either for listening or reading. Students' passage reading was done silently. For the listening task, taped passages were presented on a cassette recorder read in an announcement style. Each passage was followed by 8 questions and Likert scales. Subjects' responses were recorded and transcribed for analysis. Results were detailed and summarized for the 9 passages. Modality of presentation determined whether a passage was considered to be oral or written language. Passages were felt to be more believable when read. Passages perceived as being speech were rated higher on an interest ranking. The study showed that the boundaries separating different discourse types were difficult to define and were subject to change. The boundaries separating discourse types and their functions appeared to be determined to some extent by the mode of presentation, but also by the reader-listener and the speech community that an audience comes from, as well as by the community of the author-speaker and by message contents.

MAUER, DARIA M., & KAMHI, ALAN G. (1996, May). Factors that influence phoneme-grapheme correspondence learning. *Journal of Learning Disabilities, 29*, 3, 259–270.

Examines (1) the relative impact visual and phonetic factors have on learning phoneme-grapheme correspondences, and (2) the relation between measures of visual and phonological processing and children's ability to learn novel phoneme-grapheme correspondence pairs. Subjects were 20 children with reading disabilities (RD), 10 normally achieving children matched for mental age (MA) and 10 children matched for reading age (RA). The children ranged in age from 5.2 to 9.3 and were in kindergarten, first, and second grades. Assignment to groups was based on results of testing with the Test of Nonverbal Intelligence, the WRMT-R, and the WISC-R. All subjects completed a phoneme-grapheme learning task consisting of 4 novel correspondence pairs, a visual processing task, and 5 measures of phonological processing. Data were analyzed using MANCOVA procedures, correlational statistics, and regression analyses. Results revealed that the MA and RA groups learned the 4 correspondence pairs in significantly fewer trials than the RD group. The RD group had the least difficulty learning the correspondence pair with different phonemes and graphemes and the most difficulty learning the correspondence pair with similar phonemes and graphemes. Performance on the learning task was significantly correlated to performance on the visual processing task and the 5 measures of phonological processing. Performance on the phonological processing task of short-term memory was the best predictor of overall performance on the learning task. Although the RD children were able to learn the 4 novel correspondence pairs, their processing deficiencies affected how readily they learned each of the correspondence pairs.

MCQUILLAN, JEFF, & RODRIGO, VICTORIA. (1995, Fall). A reading "Din in the Head": Evidence of involuntary mental rehearsal in second language readers. *Foreign Language Annals, 28*, 330–336.

Examines involuntary mental rehearsal (the-din-in-the-head) of recently read information by L2 learners. It was hypothesized that beginning and intermediate language learners who read in their L2 would most likely experience the-din-in-the-head, an indicator of language acquisition occurrence. Thirty-five college students (4 groups) read extensively in Spanish as part of an experimental reading course and answered a survey. The 2 reading only groups (n = 20) read self-selected and required materials and met the instructor twice a week to discuss excerpts of texts and reading difficulties. The 2 conversation/reading groups (n = 15) also read self-selected passages and attended a conversation course twice a week for 2

semesters, thereby receiving both printed and oral input. About 4 weeks into the semester, subjects filled out the survey incuding questions about whether they experienced the din when reading by circling responses on a 5-point scale. The 5-point scale answers were collapsed into 2 groups, one which did not hear the din (20%) and the other which did (80%). Comparisons showed that usually the reading/conversation group experienced this mental rehearsal more frequently than the reading only group. However, none of the comparisons yielded significant results except when the conversation/reading groups had conversations outside class. Extensive reading, it was concluded, is a source of language input and acquisition for intermediate L2 learners, even in the absence of reading skill instruction.

SHIMIZU, YUTAKA. (1995, June). Temporal factors for vibrotactile letter reading. *Perceptual and Motor Skills, 80,* 1069–1070.

Studies the temporal effect of the apparent-motion mode for tactile letter reading. This mode was introduced to reduce time for the tracing mode. Participants were 2 men and 3 women ranging in age from 22 to 32. Stimuli presented were the katakana phonetic letters of the Japanese language. The criteria for assessing temporal parameters were 95% recognition accuracy, 67% time reduction of the longest latency, and a 90% preferable level of subjective readability. Results revealed that 4 subjects recognized words composed of 3 to 7 letters in about 5 seconds and a sentence composed of 3 to 5 words in about 20 seconds.

IV–4 Experiments in learning

WALVOORD, BARBARA E.; ANDERSON, VIRGINIA JOHNSON; BREIHAN, JOHN R.; MCCARTHY, LUCILLE PARKINSON; ROBISON, SUSAN MILLER; & SHERMAN, A. KIMBROUGH. (1995, December). Functions of outlining among college students in four disciplines. *Research in the Teaching of English, 29,* 390–421.

Asks what functions outlining serves for college students in 4 different disciplines. Subjects were 122 undergraduates enrolled in one of four classes: a 44-student upper level business course, a 27-student core history course, a 30-student elective psychology course, or an 11-student upper level biology course. A variety of data were collected from each student as the courses progressed including notes, drafts, and final papers of written assignments; audiotapes of peer interactions about written assignments; student and instructor interviews; and observations of class sessions. Additionally and specifically noted for purposes of this study were the number of students who made an outline at any point during the writing process and the way the outlines were intermingled with various composing strategies naturally utilized by the students. Qualitative and quantitative techniques employed in analyzing the data revealed that about 65% of the subjects outlined at some juncture of the writing process, although outlining strategies differed widely depending on teacher guidance and assignments. Also noted was that students diversely intermingled outlining with other strategies such as drafting and free writing. Students were found to use outlining for 5 purposes: (1) to guide work on paper; (2) to bridge content and structure; (3) to impose order on their own ideas; (4) to generate, preview, and evaluate modes of arrangement for writing; and (5) to summarize progress and motivate their writing projects. Some uses that were either identified as too narrow or too broad were also identified.

NIST, SHERRI L.; SHARMAN, SANDRA J.; & HOLSCHUH, JODI L. (1996, April/June). The effects of rereading, self-selected strategy use, and rehearsal on the immediate and delayed understanding of text. *Reading Psychology, 17,* 137–157.

Examines the influences of rereading and strategy use on college students' abilities to understand and remember text information. Subjects were 176 college freshmen who were randomly assigned to 1 of 4 conditions: Groups 1 and 2 were rereading only, Group 3 was reading and constructing a strategy of choice, and Group 4 was reading, constructing a strategy, and rehearsing the strategy. Groups 1 and 2 differed only in terms of when data were collected; data from Group 1 were collected in the first week and prior to receiving any strategy instruction. Data from the other groups were collected after participants had received instruction. All groups were given 30 minutes to carry out their tasks on one assigned reading, a sociology passage of 2,000 words. Constructed from this passage were a 12-item recall test of factual information and a 20-item multiple-choice recognition test. Data were collected in 2 phases to provide immediate and delayed measures of performance and were analyzed using four separate ANCOVAS with SAT verbal scores as the covariate. Results indicated no differences between the groups on the recognition task; however, there were differences on the recall task. When given equal amounts of time, rereading was just as effective as more active strategy use and rehearsal when students engaged in recognition tasks. For recall tasks, however, strategies alone appeared to be better than strategies coupled with rehearsal. Those who had higher SAT verbal scores performed better regardless of group assignment.

CHENG, XIAOGUANG, & STEFFENSEN, MARGARET S. (1996, May). Metadiscourse: A technique for improving student writing. *Research in the Teaching of English, 30,* 149–181.

Explores changes in student essays when university level student writers are taught metadiscourse markers in addition to a process method of writing. Subjects were 2 intact classes of freshman English, each with 23 native born students. During the 16-week semester, each class wrote 6 papers, spending about 3 weeks on a paper. Subjects in the experimental class read theoretical articles on text analysis and metadiscourse in lieu of reading some of the essays in the course text. They were asked to consider the reader's perspective and needs when writing all materials. Both experimental and control groups completed specified exercises, with control group students working on problematic structures in essays, paragraphs, and sentences, and experimental group students completing discrete and holistic exercises where they identified and corrected misused metadiscourse features. The control group focused on essay content and traditional textual structures while the experimental group focused on the rhetorical functions of writing. Pre- and posttreatment student papers were analyzed to determine whether metadiscourse usage was different and how interpersonal, textual, and ideational components were affected. Students in the experimental group produced essays receiving significantly higher grades than did the controls. They used more metadiscourse markers, making the texts more accommodating to readers, thereby strengthening the ideational, interpersonal, and textual meanings of the writing. The researchers suggest the value of instruction in metadiscourse for improving writing skills.

MAKI, RUTH H. (1995, Fall). Accuracy of metacomprehension judgments for questions of varying importance levels. *American Journal of Psychology, 108,* 327–344.

Compares student performance on two types of metacomprehension tasks testing the accuracy of their predictions of test performance and assessing past performance on questions tapping important text sentences, questions tapping unimportant sentences, and higher order questions not explicitly tapping specific sentences. It was hypothesized that if accuracy of performance predictions is based on the important concepts presented in a text, then the test questions that are directly related to important propositions should predict best, whereas unimportant test questions should predict less well. In Experiment 1, 54 volunteer psychology students made performance predictions following the self-paced reading of short texts. Predictions were then correlated with performance on the test questions. Student predictions

were accurate only for higher order questions, but posttest confidence judgments were most accurate for the questions directly tapping text sentences. In Experiment 2, texts were presented once and at a fairly high rate. A control condition allowed for predicting performance, answering test questions, and making confidence judgments without reading the texts. When student control of reading was removed, predictions were accurate for both unimportant questions and higher order questions, although predictions for unimportant questions may have been based on prior knowledge. Subjects who read the texts performed better than the no-text group on all questions and made more accurate confidence judgments.

ALBRECHT, JASON E., & MYERS, JEROME L. (1995, November). Role of context in accessing distant information during reading. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition, 21*, 1459–1468.

Conducts 3 experiments to investigate factors that influence accessibility of backgrounded goal information. The subjects for each experiment were undergraduate university students (n = 52, 40, 40). Participants read texts consisting of 2 episodes. In the first episode, the goal was satisfied or unsatisfied. Following a statement of goal satisfaction or goal postponement, there was a second unrelated episode. After completion of the second episode, target sentences were presented that were consistent with the second episode but were inconsistent with completion of the earlier unsatisfied goal. The dependent variable was reading times for target sentences. Results indicated that in Experiment 1 participants detected the inconsistency between the unsatisfied goal and the target sentences only when this information was separated by a few sentences. Experiments 2 and 3 demonstrated that readers assessed backgrounded goal information only when there was an explicit cue that reinstated the context of the goal.

LINDSAY, D. STEPHEN, & JACOBY, LARRY L. (1994, Spring). Stroop process dissociations: The relationship between facilitation and interference. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Human Perception and Performance, 20*, 219–234.

Introduces a procedure for quantitatively estimating the contributions of color-naming and word-reading processes to performance on the Stroop task and reports 4 experiments designed to explore the relation between Stroop interference and facilitation. The experiments were conducted with university students. The process dissociation procedure was used to quantitatively estimate the contributions of color-naming and word-reading processes to responding on the Stroop task. The results showed that color-naming and word-reading could operate independently to determine responses. Degrading stimulus colors eliminated the typical asymmetry between Stroop facilitation and interference (Experiments 1 and 2). Degrading stimulus colors reduced the estimated contribution of color naming to responding but had no effect on the estimated contribution of word reading (Experiment 2). In contrast, increasing the proportion of incongruent items reduced the estimated contribution of word reading but had no effect on the estimated contribution of color naming (Experiments 3 and 4). The results indicated that the facilitating and interfering effects of automatic processes could not be measured in terms of differences from baseline.

MACHIELS-BONGAERTS, MAUREEN; SCHMIDT, HENK G.; & BOSHUIZEN, HENNY P.A. (1995, December). The effect of prior knowledge activation on text recall: An investigation of two conflicting hypotheses. *British Journal of Educational Psychology, 65*, 409–423.

Tests the effect of prior knowledge activation on text recall to investigate two conflicting hypotheses: the cognitive set-point and selective attention. The subjects, medical or health sciences students attending a university in the Netherlands, were assigned randomly to 1 of 3 groups (2 treatment, 1 control) consisting of 10 students each. Prior to receiving a

common text about fishery policies to read once, the groups were presented with different schema activation tasks. For the 2 experimental groups, the activation was related to differing aspects of the passage; for the control group an unrelated topic was introduced. Reading instructions were related to the schema activation for the 2 experimental groups who were asked to mark information related to their assigned focus. The control group was asked to mark important text elements as they read. After a 20-minute delay during which students' attention was diverted to medical questions, an oral, free recall of the passage read was taped. The study text was divided into propositions resulting in a text base. For every student, the number of propositions marked per information category was calculated. The recall protocols were transcribed, and the number of propositions correctly recalled was established. Results revealed that the 3 groups differed in both the number of propositions marked and the numbers of propositions marked per information category. The results confirmed the postulation that differences in the nature of the prior knowledge activated resulted in different information processes and recall patterns.

ABU-RABIA, SALIM. (1995, October/December). Learning to read in Arabic: Reading, syntactic, orthographic, and memory skills in normally achieving and poor Arabic readers. *Reading Psychology, 16*, 351–394.

Investigates the relations among phonological, semantic, syntactic, and information processing in short-term memory and reading ability in Arabic; uncovers reading developmental patterns; and compares normal and poor readers' skills. In Arab villages in central Israel, 143 Arab children (8–11 years old) individually performed 9 tasks in the following order: working memory, orthography, oral cloze, phonological conditional, phonological awareness, visual condition, word attack, spelling, and isolated word reading. Results revealed that reading ability is related to phonological, semantic, and syntactic features in Arabic, in both deep and shallow orthography. All correlation coefficients were statistically significant at $p < .001$, except those between orthographic and spelling tasks to visual tasks. Children were divided into normally achieving readers and reading disabled (RD) readers based on scores on the Arabic isolated word reading test. The results of an ANOVA comparing these children showed significant results at $p < .001$ level except for the visual task. When children were divided into 2 ages groups (<10 and >10), ANOVA results again revealed significant differences on all tasks except for the visual. The findings suggested that linguistic, phonological, and short-term memory processing are also highly correlated to reading development and reading skills in Arabic.

IV–5 Visual perception

MASSARO, DOMINIC W., & COHEN, MICHAEL M. (1994, December). Visual, orthographic, phonological, and lexical influences in reading. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Human Perception and Performance, 20*, 1107–1128.

Presents an experimental and theoretical analysis of the relation between letter information and orthographic context in reading. In so doing, a perceptual model that assumes the interaction of multiple influences in reading is tested and extended. Seven subjects participated in the study and were presented with 4 types of displays: words, nonwords, letters, and letters flanked by dollar signs. On each trial, one of the test displays was presented followed by a masking display after 1 of 7 stimulus onset asynchronies, or no mask was presented. Findings indicated that lateral masking and reaction time both affected the prediction of letter and word recognition. However, contrary to previous explanations, backward masking stimuli as well as letter and word masks had no influence on the word superiority effect.

Multiple sources of information such as orthographic structures, spelling-to-speech correspondences, and word frequency contribute jointly to perceptual recognition, naming, and lexical decisions involved in the reading process.

VITU, FRANÇOISE; O'REGAN, J. KEVIN; INHOFF, ALBRECHT W.; & TOPOLSKI, RICHARD. (1995, April). Mindless reading: Eye-movement characteristics are similar in scanning letter strings and reading texts. *Perception & Psychophysics, 57*, 352–364.

Compares the eye movement behavior of readers scanning meaningful and meaningless texts. Skipping rates, initial landing sites in words, and refixation probabilities were analyzed using within-subjects ANOVAS. The 24 undergraduate participants read 16 text passages taken from national news magazines, 4 of which appeared in each of the following conditions: normal text, normal text search, z-text, and z-text search. Normal text constituted the control condition. Normal text search required participants to scan normal text for occurrences of the letter "c." Z-text consisted of normal passages made meaningless by replacing each letter with the letter "z." In the z-text search condition, all letters except the letter "c" were replaced with a "z" and participants were told to scan the text for the letter "c." Four conditions were created based on which of the 16 passages were meaningless. In the first condition, passages 1–4 and 9–12 were normal and the others were meaningless. The distributions of saccade sizes and of fixation durations revealed similar eye movement patterns across all reading conditions with significant differences in some, but not the most frequent, ranges of saccade sizes as well as between the normal text-reading condition and all others on fixation duration. An examination of local eye movement characteristics revealed the same types of similarities across conditions, thereby supporting the hypothesis that predetermined oculomotor scanning strategies are active during reading. Results suggest that these predetermined strategies may be an element in determining oculomotor behavior during normal text reading and may influence how many fixations to make on a word, where to land on a word, and which word to go to next. It was observed, however, that fixation durations were briefer in the normal text condition than in the experimental conditions.

BROWN, TRACY L.; ROOS-GILBERT, LINDA; & CARR, THOMAS H. (1995, November). Automaticity and word perception: Evidence from Stroop and Stroop dilution effects. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition, 21*, 1395–1411.

Reports 4 experiments to determine the mechanism that produces Stroop dilution and explores implications for the automaticity of word perception. The experiments compared attention capture to 3 alternatives involving parallel rather than serial processing: (1) in the lexicon, activation divided among multiple words; (2) postlexically, multiple words race for access to response processes; and (3) prelexically, feature processing degraded by multiple patterns whether or not they were words. Each study was conducted with university psychology students (n = 23 to 44). Considered collectively, the results showed that multiple patterns were processed in parallel. In experiments using color words, Stroop effects were observed but were reduced, because the color word's input to lexical memory is lower in quality than if a color word were the only pattern. It is concluded that lexical encoding is involuntary but that it can operate on several input representations in parallel; effectiveness is determined by input quality.

EVIATAR, ZOHAR. (1995, November). Reading direction and attention: Effects on lateralized ignoring. *Brain and Cognition, 29*, 137–150.

Reports 2 experiments designed to explore the effects of one aspect of reading scanning habits on performance asymmetry in a specific lateralized task. The hypothesis tested

was that English readers would have a harder time ignoring irrelevant stimuli in the left visual field than in the right visual field, with the opposite pattern predicted for readers of Hebrew. Participants in both experiments were 8 native English readers with minimal Hebrew reading skills and 8 native Hebrew readers; all were university students. Three factors were used in the experiments: (1) language was a between-subject variable, (2) decision criterion (shape vs. name) and visual field were within subjects variables, and (3) median response time in each decision by visual field condition was a dependent variable. Findings indicated that, when an irrelevant letter was present, English readers responded more slowly in the right than in the left visual field, whereas Hebrew readers showed the opposite pattern (Experiment 1). This interaction was not apparent when the irrelevant letter was deleted (Experiment 2).

IV–6 Reading and language abilities

SULZBY, ELIZABETH, & KADERAVEK, JOAN N. (1996). Parent-child language during storybook reading and toy play contexts: Case studies of normally developing and specific language impaired (SLI) children. In Donald J. Leu, Charles K. Kinzer, & Kathleen A. Hinchman (Eds.), *Literacies for the 21st century: Research and practice* (pp. 257–269). Chicago, IL: National Reading Conference.

Compares the spoken language of normally developing and specifically language impaired (SLI) children in storybook reading and toy play interactions. Data represent analyses of 2 parent-child pairs, 1 child diagnosed as SLI (Kyle) and 1 with normal language development (Adam) taken from a longitudinal study of the interactions between mothers and their 3- to 4-year-old children. Repeated storybook and toy play interactions between mothers and their children in their own homes were videotaped (n = 12) over a 3-week period. Both the children's and parents' language samples were transcribed, segmented into utterances, and scored using the Child Language Data Exchange System. Each mother-child dyad had a very different situational definition for the book reading interaction. During storybook reading, Adam asked a great many questions (41%), whereas Kyle asked few (9%). Adam's mother asked fewer questions during toy play, whereas Kyle's mother asked almost as many questions during book reading as she did during toy play. Adam appeared to interpret the situation as one in which he was free to ask many questions and his mother would respond by rephrasing his questions, asking his opinion, and asking for a direct answer. Adam's linguistic performance remained basically the same although he was questioning more during book reading. Kyle's mother appeared to take on more of a teacher role during her book reading as indicated by her attention to direct questioning (83%). Her increased focus on the teaching aspect of book reading played a part in her richer vocabulary and her more careful sentence-length match to her son's limited language ability. Kyle's language learning was accelerated during book reading as he accepted his mother's definition of new words and was more willing to try to say these words as compared to his willingness to imitate during toy play. However, Kyle's resistance toward storybook reading may have inhibited the benefits from the interactions with his mother during book reading.

HUBA, M.E., & RAMISETTY-MIKLER, S. (1995, September). The language skills and concepts of early and nonearly readers. *Journal of Genetic Psychology, 156*, 313–331.

Compares early and nonearly readers in terms of their preschool language concepts and skills and in the degree to which these variables predict future reading achievement through second grade. Early readers' school-age reading skill patterns were also analyzed. Participants included 28 children who were reading in kindergarten and 28 matched children who could not

read. Individual matches were made on the basis of sex, age, and preschool and kindergarten attended. Language measures included the Test of Early Language Development, the SIT (verbal), and an invented spelling task (phonemic segmentation). Kindergarten skill measures included the ability to correctly complete each of 3 rhyming couplets, name 20 lower case letters, supply the letter of the beginning sound in 10 words, provide the sound associated with 15 consonants and 5 vowels, substitute initial consonants, recognize 20 words, and make use of context cues to complete a sentence. Phonemic segmentation ability at the kindergarten level was also measured on an informal task. First and second grade reading comprehension was measured on the passage comprehension section of the WRMT. Knowledge of phonics was measured with the Bryant Test of Phonics Skills. Findings revealed that the early readers were superior to nonearly readers on preschool measures of general language development, verbal intelligence, and phonemic segmentation measured using an invented spelling task. These measures were significant predictors of reading achievement through second grade for both early and nonearly readers. Early readers maintained their advantage in reading achievement through second grade. The early readers did not perform in a homogeneous fashion on certain tasks, nor did they differ from the nonearly readers in their performance in kindergarten on the phonemic segmentation task.

MATTHEWS, BARBARA. (1995). Current issues in the theory and practice of language teaching. *Reading Forum NZ, 3*, 3–9.

Examines bottom-up, top-down, and interactive models of discourse processing in reading acquisition and discusses how first- and second-language learners may process written text. Reference is made to one study in particular with a specific pedagogical focus. The study is cited as an exemplar in order to clarify some of the issues examined in language teaching.

ARREAGA-MAYER, CARMEN, & PERDOMO-RIVERA, CLAUDIA. (1996, January). Ecobehavioral analysis of instruction for at-risk language-minority students. *Elementary School Journal, 96*, 245–258.

Describes an application of ecobehavioral analysis to the evaluation of instructional settings for language-minority pupils. The Ecobehavioral Systems for the Contextual Recording of Interactional Bilingual Environments is a direct-observation, time-sampling system for recording the learning environments of language-minority learners in regular and special settings. Prompted by an original program, a laptop computer signals an observer at 15-second intervals to record contextual, teacher, and pupil variables. Two instructional environments (regular and ESL classrooms) were inspected to determine the opportunities afforded 24 at-risk language-minority children (grades 3 to 5) to acquire and negotiate a second language and learn academic content. Each child was observed for 6 full days. Results demonstrated that instructional environments and teacher variables within a setting have a profound effect on pupils' academic behaviors and language use. The most frequently coded language-related behavior in both settings was "no talk" (96% and 92%). In general, the researchers found a pattern of minimal teacher attention to language development, low pupil academic engagement in instructional activities, and a teacher emphasis on lecture and whole class format. The researchers draw implications of ecobehavioral analysis for the study of inclusion and accountability in the education of language-minority students.

HORIBA, YUKIE; VAN DEN BROEK, PAUL W.; & FLETCHER, CHARLES R. (1993, September). Second language readers' memory for narrative texts: Evidence for structure-preserving top-down processing. *Language Learning, 43*, 345–372.

Assesses the degree to which L2 readers of English use structural properties of text to construct mental representations as they read. Forty-seven twelfth graders enrolled in a Japanese high school and 72 American college students participated in the study. Students in the experimental group were native speakers of Japanese and were in their sixth year of study-

ing English as a foreign language. Materials consisted of 2 test texts and 2 filler texts each of which had been parsed into idea units. For each text, a causal network representation was derived. Subjects in each group read each story silently and then wrote as much about the story as they could remember. After Japanese protocols were translated into English, all protocols were matched against the idea units in the original stories. Recall was assessed on 2 levels: meaning-preserving recall and structure-preserving recall. After calculating the proportion of idea units recalled by each participant, the probability of each idea unit recalled by each group was calculated. This probability was then used to investigate the effect of group, recall type, and each of 4 structural variables: idea unit's causal chain status, causal connections, story-grammar category, and hierarchical level. ANOVAs and regression analyses were used in analyzing results. The L2 group's recall was significantly lower than the L1 group's recall. A statement's causal-chain status significantly influenced its probability of both meaning-preserving and structure-preserving recall for L2 students but not for L1 students. The number of causal connections related to an idea unit was significantly correlated with structure-preserving recall for L2 students only but was significantly correlated with both types of recall for L1 students. Results are also presented for story-grammar categories and hierarchical levels.

SALAGER-MEYER, FRANÇOISE. (1994, September). Reading medical English abstracts: A genre study of the interaction between structural variables and the reader's linguistico-conceptual competence (L2). *Journal of Research in Reading, 17*, 120–146.

Examines the influence of structural variables on readers' comprehension of expository passages as a function of background knowledge, text familiarity, and L2 competence. Subjects were 36 Spanish-speaking medical graduates of different L2 competence: 18 high intermediate (HI) and 18 advanced (AD) subjects. Two subgroups of 9 subjects each were formed by randomly dividing the subjects in the HI and in the AD groups. Three semantically different medical English abstracts ranging in familiarity (most, moderately, and least familiar) were manipulated rhetorically to create a well-structured and a poorly structured version of each. Subjects in each subgroup read either the well-structured or the poorly structured version of each abstract and then completed a reading comprehension test pertaining to it. A questionnaire was administered to probe background information on each subject. Subjects were also asked to volunteer comments on each abstract they had been asked to read. Between-group one- and two-way ANOVAS were performed on the number of correct responses to the reading tests. Questionnaires and self-generated comments were qualitatively and quantitatively analyzed. Results revealed significant differences in subjects' background knowledge as well as their proficiency in English reading. The AD subjects surpassed the HI subject in reading comprehension performance for all 3 abstracts and for the 2 relatively unfamiliar abstracts. L2 competence alone affected reading performance on the well-structured but relatively unfamiliar abstract. Both text structure and L2 competence affected reading performance on the poorly structured abstract.

IV–7 Vocabulary and word identification

PALINCSAR, ANNEMARIE SULLIVAN, & PERRY, NANCY ELLEN (1995). Developmental, cognitive, and sociocultural perspectives on assessing and instructing reading. *School Psychology Review, 24*(3), 331–344.

Reviews research literature on 3 perspectives influencing contemporary views of literacy development: developmental, cognitive, and sociocultural perspectives. Studies illustrate how these perspectives inform assessment and instruction in word recognition, vocabu-

lary knowledge, and text comprehension and how these perspectives influence learning to read and reading to learn. Implications of these studies for school psychologists are included.

MOUSTAFA, MARGARET. (1995, July/September). Children's productive phonological recoding. *Reading Research Quarterly, 30*, 464–476.

Compares, in 2 experiments, the relative feasibility of 2 explanations of how children learn to recode unfamiliar graphophonological print phonologically: the phoneme blending explanation and the onset-rime analogy explanation. Subjects for Experiment 1 were 75 children in the last 6 weeks of first grade; subjects for Experiment 2 were 35 children drawn from the same pool utilized for Experiment 1. Within conditions of both experiments, children were individually tested with and without orthographic context on their ability to (1) recode conventional print words, (2) recode pseudo print words whose letter sequences represented onsets and rimes of the conventional print words, (3) identify phonemes represented by letters and digraphs that made up some of the same pseudo print words, and (4) describe what they saw in 3 part-whole drawings. Two-tailed *t* tests for dependent samples were conducted on data for each experiment. A major finding of the study was that children's correct recoding of pseudowords was best justified by the onset-rime explanation. A positive correlation was found between the number of conventional words and analogous pseudowords the children accurately decoded. Children who were more successful at conserving parts and wholes recoded more pseudowords than children who were not as successful.

RICHGELS, DONALD J.; POREMBA, KARLA J.; & MCGEE, LEA M. (1996, May). Kindergarteners talk about print: Phonemic awareness in meaningful contexts. *The Reading Teacher, 49*, 632–642.

Presents examples from one kindergarten classroom as children participate in "What Can You Show Us?" a functional, contextualized, social literacy activity that provides opportunities for the teacher to facilitate children's emerging phonemic awareness, as she observes their print engagements.

LEONG, CHE KAN, & TAMAOKA, KATSUO. (1995, December). Use of phonological information in processing kanji and katakana by skilled and less skilled Japanese readers. *Reading and Writing: An Interdisciplinary Journal, 7*, 377–393.

Reports two experiments attempting to delineate the locus of phonetic recoding and visual access in accurate and rapid visual recognition of kanji and katakana words. Subjects in both experiments were 36 Japanese children in grades 4, 5, and 6, dichotomized into skilled and less skilled readers on the basis of scores on the TK Reading Ability Test. Experiment 1 involved a lexical decision task in which pupils were to decide the lexicality of visually presented difficult kanji characters and pseudo kanji characters on the basis of the overall configurations or the phonetic radicals or components of each. Stimuli were 20 kanji characters with on-reading phonetic radicals, 20 kanji characters with overall configurations not decomposable into phonetic elements, and 2 sets of 20 corresponding phonetic and 20 semantic pseudo kanji characters. Subjects, who were in with an articulation or a no-articulation condition, viewed the characters on a computer screen and were to decide whether each was a real or pseudo character. In the articulation condition, subjects were to count aloud repeatedly in Japanese from 1 to 10 while making the lexicality decision. Less skilled readers were slower than skilled readers in their lexical decision in both the phonetic and semantic conditions. For Experiment 2, children viewed 30 high-frequency and 30 low-frequency katakana words and 60 corresponding pseudo katakana strings. The procedures were similar to those of Experiment 1 for both concurrent and no-articulation conditions. Less skilled readers were slower than their peers at processing items in both conditions. Taken together, the findings of the two experiments suggested that visual-phonetic recoding may be possible in accessing difficult kanji characters with

phonetic elements, but that phonological processing may vary according to frequency with katakana words. Younger and less skilled readers were less efficient in their maintenance of the phonological code in processing lexical items in both orthographies.

LAXON, VERONICA; MASTERSON, JACQUELINE; & COLTHEART, VERONIKA. (1991, November). Some bodies are easier to read: The effect of consistency and regularity on children's reading. *Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology, 43A*, 793–824.

Explores, in two separate experiments, the nature of information used by children in word reading and the stage at which they learn to use regularities in English orthography. Specifically examined was the use of consistency and regularity in the identification of words. Participants in both experiments were 87 children, ages 7 to 9, from 3 classes in a London primary school. The group was subdivided on the basis of reading ability and asked to read aloud word and nonword stimuli, each set of stimuli bearing consistent and regular body types. Findings of ANCOVA and planned comparisons employed on the data showed all readers' performances to be affected by the body of words and nonwords. Findings showed the better readers were most affected.

COLTHEART, VERONIKA; PATTERSON, KARALYN; & LEAHY, JUDI. (1994, November). When a ROWS is a ROSE: Phonological effects in written word comprehension. *Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology, 47A*, 917–955.

Examines the role of phonological representations in single-word reading comprehension. Different samples of first year students at an Australian university participated in 5 separate experiments. Methodologies involved variations of a task in which the name of a semantic category was briefly presented and the subject had to decide whether the word that followed was a member of the category or its incorrect homophonic mate. Findings provide evidence that phonological activation plays a major role in written word comprehension. ANOVA and *t* tests applied to data collected from the experiments showed subjects incorrectly accepting both the word and nonword incorrect homophonic match to the semantic category significantly more often than an incorrect nonhomophonic item matched in orthographic similarity to the real exemplars (Experiments 1 & 2). Equivalent error rates occurred for homophone targets differing from the appropriate exemplar by various types of single-letter change. However, reduced error rates occurred when subjects were told to accept only correctly spelled instances (Experiment 3). The amplitude of the homophone effect was predictable as a function of orthographic similarity between homophonic mates (Experiments 4 & 5). Spelling-sound regularity of the given homophone had no influence on the magnitude of the effect.

CARLISLE, JOANNE F., & NOMANBHOY, DIANA M. (1993, June). Phonological and morphological awareness in first graders. *Applied Psycholinguistics, 14*, 177–195.

Looks at the relation among phonological awareness, morphological awareness, and word reading in first graders. Subjects were 101 children in an urban school system. Five tests were administered to the subjects individually: judgment of word relations task, production of word forms tests, picture identification test, word reading test, and Test of Auditory Analysis Skills (TAAS). Subjects' scores on the Picture Vocabulary subtest of the Test of Language Development (TOLD), administered in kindergarten, served as a measure of receptive vocabulary. To ascertain the degree to which performances on the Picture Vocabulary test and the phonological awareness tasks would account for the variance on the judgment task, a regression analysis was conducted. The results indicated that the Picture Vocabulary score contributed 10% to the variance on the judgment task as compared with a 3% contribution of the TAAS. A similar analysis was conducted to determine the extent to which performance on the TAAS and the TOLD Picture Vocabulary test would account for the variance in the production of morphologically complex words. Results indicate that both contributed significantly to

the variance. Results of a univariate repeated-measures analysis indicate that subjects who could segment phonemes on the phonological awareness test had achieved a significantly higher level of morphological awareness than subjects who were unable to segment phonemes. Finally, two additional regression analyses indicate that performance on the TAAS and the production task contributed significantly to the variance in world reading performance, whereas performance on the judgment task did not.

GRAINGER, JONATHAN, & FERRAND, LUDOVIC. (1994, April). Phonology and orthography in visual word recognition: Effects of masked homophone primes. *Journal of Memory and Language, 33*, 218–233.

Examines the early generation of phonological information in visual word recognition. Different samples of psychology students from universities in France and England served as subjects in four experiments. The experiments utilized a lexical decision task or a perceptual identification task, each combined with the masked priming paradigm. Reaction time data for each of the experiments were submitted to ANOVA procedures. Contrasting effects of more frequent orthographically related primes were secured in the masked priming paradigm when homophonic or nonhomophonic relations existed between prime and target. Primes that were not homophones of the target resulted in consistent inhibitory effects, whereas primes that were homophones resulted in facilitative effects unless pseudohomophone distractors were present in the lexical decision task.

STUART, MORAG, & MASTERSON, JACKIE. (1992, October). Patterns of reading and spelling in 10-year-old children related to prereading phonological abilities. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology, 54*, 168–187.

Reports a follow-up study of reading and spelling in a group of 10-year-old children who were first assessed as 4-year-old prereaders. Subjects were 10 boys and 10 girls remaining in a cohort of 36 children who had been identified for a longitudinal study of reading development at the age of 4. Six phonological tests of rhyme and phoneme awareness were given to the children at age 4. Seven different tests of reading and spelling and a vocabulary test were given to the same children at the age of 10. The standardized tests included the British Ability Scales single-word reading test, the Schonell spelling test, and the British Picture Vocabulary Scale. Experimental tests included reading Coltheart regular and irregular words, spelling Coltheart regular and irregular words, Coltheart tests of silent phonology, reading Snowling nonwords, and a read, repeat, and spell test of regular nonwords. To assess the separate contribution of phonological scores to each outcome measure, a series of partial correlation coefficients was performed. Results revealed that the subjects' scores phonological awareness tasks as 4-year-olds significantly predicted their reading and spelling ages as 10-year-olds. Qualitative analyses of their reading and spelling processes, conducted within the framework of dual-route models of reading and spelling, indicated that children with good early phonological awareness had well-developed lexical and sublexical reading and spelling procedures. However, they showed larger regularity effects in word reading and spelling, were better at nonword reading and spelling, and made more phonologically based errors in both reading and spelling than children with poor early phonological awareness. Finally, early phonological awareness scores were significantly related to reading regular but not irregular words.

BRIIHL, DEBORAH, & INHOFF, ALBRECHT WERNER. (1995, January). Integrating information across fixations during reading: The use of orthographic bodies and of exterior letters. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition, 21*, 55–67.

Studies the usefulness of the parafoveally visible orthographic body of a bisyllabic target word in the recognition of the word during the next target fixation. In Experiment 1, subjects were 32 undergraduates with normal vision and reading proficiency. Stimuli consisted of 64 bisyllabic 7-letter words, all beginning and ending with consonants and embedded in simple declarative sentences. The body of the word consisted of either the 3 or 4 letters found in the middle of the word. Participants were exposed to 4 conditions before target fixation: full word display or one of three parafoveal preview conditions (orthographic body display, initial letters display, or exterior letters display). Eye movements were recorded while timing of sentence displays were controlled by subjects. Data were analyzed using within-subjects ANOVAs and paired comparisons. Skipping rates, first fixation durations, gaze durations, fixation locations, and interword saccades were analyzed. Results indicate first fixation durations and gaze durations on a target word were longer when target preview revealed the intact orthographic body than when it revealed a matched number of exterior letters or word initial letters. In Experiment 2, 24 undergraduates received the same stimuli as subjects in Experiment 1 plus 64 additional bisyllabic, 7-letter words embedded in neutral sentences. Participants were exposed to the same 4 preview conditions as in Experiment 1 plus 3 additional conditions: initial bigram display, exterior letter pair display, and initial letter display. Results of repeated measures ANOVAs and paired comparisons confirmed the findings of Experiment 1.

SCHREUDER, ROBERT, & BAAYEN, R. HARALD. (1994, June). Prefix stripping re-revisited. *Journal of Memory and Language, 33*, 357–375.

Investigates the lexical statistics of prefixation and pseudoprefixation in English and Dutch. The most frequently occurring prefixes of English and Dutch were selected for analysis. A lexical database was analyzed for the occurrence of words with prefixes and pseudoprefixes in combination with their frequencies. The computational efficiency of the prefix stripping hypothesis was conducted by comparing the number of search steps required in serial search models with and without prefix stripping. Prefix stripping called for from 3 to 8 times more search steps than a model in which words with the same prefixes are stored together. Results revealed that there was a nonnegligible number of tokens with pseudoprefixes in Dutch and a substantial number of such word tokens in English. It was concluded that the large error rate and the greater processing costs of prefix stripping indicate that the prefix stripping model is misguided for English and Dutch.

SEIDENBERG, MARK S.; PLAUT, DAVID C.; PETERSEN, ALAN S.; MCCLELLAND, JAMES L.; & MCRAE, KEN. (1994, December). Nonword pronunciation and models of word recognition. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Human Perception and Performance, 20*, 1177–1196.

Generates a rich body of preferred pronunciations of nonwords that is then used to assess the feasibility of 2 models of word recognition: the parallel distributed processing model that uses orthographic and phonological representations, and the dual route model that uses grapheme-phoneme correspondence rules. Twenty-four university undergraduates were presented with a large number of monosyllabic nonwords and asked to pronounce them as words. Responses were used to produce a list of orderly nonword naming data. The subjects' performance was then related to each of the 2 models. The authors mathematically describe how each model produces feasible nonword pronunciations and how each accounts for subjects' preferred responses.

PELLEGRINI, A.D.; GALDA, LEE; JONES, ITHEL; & PERLMUTTER, JANE. (1995, May/June). Joint reading between mothers and their Head Start children: Vocabulary development in two text formats. *Discourse Processes, 19*, 441–463.

Examines the ways in which mothers taught their Head Start children words depicted in familiar and unfamiliar expository texts. Hypothesis 1 predicted that mothers would talk more than their children; Hypothesis 2 predicted that mothers and children would both talk more about familiar texts than around unfamiliar texts; and Hypothesis 3 predicted that child and maternal strategies generated around familiar text would reliably predict children's vocabulary development. Nineteen parent-child dyads were observed in their own homes. In each home the Home Observation for Measurement of the Environment Inventory was completed. Observations took place on 4 separate occasions. Each time a different series of prepared text was read, 2 in advertisement format and 2 in trade book format. Sessions were videotaped and conversations transcribed. Utterances from children and mothers were labeled according to the function they served in relation to vocabulary teaching. Additional measures were children's ability to identify words in the texts after each reading and their comprehension of a standardized receptive vocabulary list (PPVT). Mothers talked more than their children. Different types of talk were observed for different text formats, with more total utterances generated around unfamiliar text than around familiar text. Measures of children's language generated around unfamiliar text related more to PPVT and recall scores than did measures of language around familiar text. Children's word recall was best facilitated by encouragement to expand the text and to provide labels. Children's use of word-text utterances was positively related to word identification and vocabulary status, but text-word utterances were negative predictors of word identification and vocabulary. Children also modeled mothers' utterances.

IV–8 Factors in interpretation

GOATLEY, VIRGINIA J.; BROCK, CYNTHIA H.; & RAPHAEL, TAFFY E. (1995, July/September). Diverse learners participating in regular education "Book Clubs." *Reading Research Quarterly, 30*, 352–380.

Explores how a group of 5 fifth graders engaged in literary discussions over a book in their classroom book club. Transcriptions of their discussions illustrate how the pupils participated in the discussion, how they used strategies to draw on their own knowledge and the knowledge of their peers, and how they socially constructed story meaning. Three of the 5 had previously received reading instruction in pull-out programs but were now receiving instruction in the regular education setting. Modes of participation, degree of interaction, and analysis of how group interactions influenced text interpretation provide theoretical and pedagogical insights into the literacy learning of these diverse pupils and support the value of including diverse learners in literature discussion groups in regular classes.

ZWAAN, ROLF A. (1994, July). Effect of genre expectations on text comprehension. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition, 20*, 920–933.

Examines, in two experiments, the effects of genre expectation on text processing and memory. Paid participants for both experiments were undergraduate students (36 for Experiment 1, and 40 for Experiment 2) from a Dutch university. In each of the experiments, 2 groups of subjects read the same set of stories but with different perspectives. One group read stories with the view that they were a literary genre and the other with a view that they were a newspaper genre. Both groups were later asked to verify statements pertaining to the text they had read. Mixed ANOVA conducted on the data for both experiments indicated that subjects who read with a literary perspective had longer reading times and better memory for

surface information than subjects who read with a news perspective. However, subjects who read with a literary perspective had poorer memory for situational information than those who read with a news perspective.

FORRESTER, MICHAEL A. (1995, January). Tropic implicature and context in the comprehension of idiomatic phrases. *Journal of Psycholinguistic Research, 24*, 1–22.

Observes the degree to which comprehending idiomatic phrases in context depends on the words that make up such phrases. Twenty nonpsychology undergraduate students who were native speakers of English served in compiling the list of idiomatic expressions to be used in the experiment. For this purpose, 104 idiomatic expressions appearing in paragraph contexts were replaced with phrases that were semantically equivalent (fly in the ointment for smudge on the sheepskin). As the undergraduates read each idiom they were asked to mark on a 7-point scale their familiarity with it. From the results, 12 idioms were chosen, the 6 most familiar and 6 least familiar. Fourteen undergraduate psychology majors then read the idioms with reading times being the dependent variable. Independent variables of interest were: (1) language form (idiomatic vs. semantic equivalent phrases), (2) convention (familiar vs. unfamiliar phrases), and (3) context (whether the surrounding text supports a literal or figurative reading). A between- and within-subjects repeated-measures design was utilized in analyzing the data. Findings indicated that familiarity is essential in the comprehension of idiomatic expressions. However, questions regarding the degree to which idiomatic phrases are syntactically frozen are raised.

SMITH, MICHAEL W. (1992, July/August). Effects of direct instruction on ninth graders' understanding of unreliable narrators. *The Journal of Educational Research, 85*, 339–347.

Examines the effect of direct instruction in understanding unreliable narrators on the think-aloud protocols of 5 successful and 5 less successful ninth grade readers. Subjects were selected by their teachers from 2 ninth grade classes in 2 schools, 1 large urban and 1 small rural; in addition, successful and less successful students were identified as controls. Instruction focused on 2 strategies, 1 for understanding unreliable narratives and 1 for understanding the effect that an unreliable narrative has on the meaning of text. Students first generated criteria for evaluating the reliability of narrators and considered how they reconstructed meaning when narrators were identified as unreliable. Students then evaluated the reliability of narrators in short stories using a series of questions as guides. Guides were then withdrawn as students developed and debated interpretations. Finally, students were asked to create their own examples of unreliable narrators. Think-aloud protocols collected before and after each story were segmented into moves and analyzed to determine the effectiveness of the instructional intervention. Each protocol was also rated on 2 analytical scales: quality of understanding and submission to the text. Patterns were similar across the texts with substantial correlations between the proportion of moves in each category before and after instruction. No clear pattern of improvement was noted for quality of understanding but both successful and less successful readers appeared to be less submissive after instruction. Implications for further research and for instruction are included.

IV–9 Oral reading

ESPIN, CHRISTINE A., & DENO, STANLEY L. (1993, Fall). Content-specific and general reading disabilities of secondary-level students: Identification and educational relevance. *Journal of Special Education, 27*, 321–337.

Evaluates the viability of using oral reading from content area texts to determine if students have general disabilities or reading problems stemming from deficiencies in background knowledge relative to the content area topic. Also explored is whether text-based measures can be used to identify students who fall into 2 subgroups of reading disabilities, general disabilities or content-specific disabilities. Subjects were 121 tenth grade students from a rural high school. The students completed a series of tasks in both English and in science. These included taking a background knowledge vocabulary test, engaging in prestudy read alouds of the experimental texts, answering multiple-choice questions on the materials they had read, and engaging in poststudy read alouds from the same texts. Two subgroups were formed based on the students' performances in the prestudy read alouds—students with general reading deficits and students with content-specific deficits. Students with general deficits had done poorly in both English and science, whereas students with content-specific deficits had done poorly only in science. Poststudy reading performance with regard to the science material was then compared for the 2 groups. Results indicated that the content-specific group outperformed the general deficit group, suggesting the benefits of study for the content-specific group.

SHELLEY, ANNE CROUT, & THOMAS, PAUL. (1995, Winter). Righting the reading and writing miscues of adolescents through integrated instruction: Research in the classroom. *Reading Instruction Journal, 38*, 36–43.

Investigates the relation between the reading and writing miscues of 6 tenth graders enrolled in a below-grade level English class in a small rural high school. Subjects, 3 males and 3 females, had academic difficulty, with 4 of the 6 having previously failed a grade. All took the Reading Miscue Inventory (RMI), wrote several journal entries, produced at least one formal essay, and completed the Basic Skills Assessment Program exit exam for graduation. Student writing was scored holistically. Specific examples of nonstandard English were gathered from the writings and compared with the reading miscues. Comparisons between RMIS and writing samples show close relations between strengths and weaknesses in reading and writing skills. Suggestions for instruction to better meet these students' needs are included.

DELOCHÉ, GERARD; OTT, MICHELA; & TAVELLA, MAURO. (1995, December). Anagram solving and reading abilities in children. *Reading and Writing: An Interdisciplinary Journal, 7*, 395–406.

Investigates, in a 2-part study, the possibility of a relation between anagram solving performance and oral reading proficiency. Participants for the first part were 43 sixth graders, ages 11 to 13, who were all native Italian speakers. Oral reading proficiency was assessed by having children read individual words presented on a computer screen. The same 20 words were displayed at 5 different duration rates. Based on the oral reading test norms, children were classified as expert, average, and poor readers. Children then solved anagrams in the form of letter strings varying in length from 4 to 8 letters. Using ANOVA procedures, it was found that oral reading proficiency was positively related to anagram solving skills. The second part of this study involved 50 sixth grade French children, ranging in age from 7.9 to 14.0. Three tasks were conducted: making lexical decisions, reading aloud, and solving anagram problems. The lexical decision task required children to cross out nonwords from a sheet of paper with uppercase letter strings, 60 of which were real words and 60 of which were pronounceable nonwords. The anagram solving task and the reading aloud task paralleled those done with the Italian children. For the oral reading task, words were presented in blocks of 40, half orthographically irregular and half orthographically regular. A correlation coefficient of .60 was found between oral reading proficiency and lexical decision accuracy. Additional analyses revealed that the coefficient was between reading proficiency and the frequency of misses in the lexical decision

task ($r = -.66$). However, the link between anagram solving and oral reading proficiency was not as direct with the French children as with the Italian children.

YOUNG, ARLENE, & BOWERS, PATRICIA GREIG. (1995, December). Individual difference and text difficulty determinants of reading fluency and expressiveness. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology, 60*, 428–454.

Investigates the roles of word identification skills, text phrasing, and 2 individual difference variables (auditory analysis and digit naming speed) on the oral reading fluency and expressiveness of average and poor readers. Subjects were 199 grade 5 pupils (100 females and 99 males) from 11 classrooms in 6 different schools. Based on the results of reading comprehension test scores (GMRT) and teacher ratings of reading achievement, a final sample of 40 average and 45 poor readers was identified. Three prose reading passages of approximately 175 words were selected from the DeSanti Cloze Reading Inventory at grade levels 3, 5, and 8. An additional, easier passage was constructed to provide the poor reader group easy reading material. The subjects' oral reading of the texts was rated by 2 trained raters along the fluency scale. This resulted in scores ranging from 1 (word-by-word reading) to 6 (read in phrases, with fluency). A word test was constructed to contain all of the words in the easiest text; the test was presented by computer in random order. To assess each subject's knowledge of phrasal boundaries, the children were asked to parse each of the passages they read. The parsing of texts was scored using a consensus method. Subjects' ability to differentiate and manipulate the phonemic segments of language was assessed using the Auditory Analysis Test, and digit naming speed was assessed with the rapid automatized naming task for digits. All subjects were also administered the PPVT and the Word Identification subtest of the WRMT-R. Findings revealed that poor readers were less fluent and expressive than average readers across all levels of text difficulty. Clear group differences on ratings of fluency and expressiveness remained, even when the performance of poor readers on the easiest text was compared with that of average readers on the most difficult text. Parsing contributed to fluency in average but not poor readers. Naming speed for digits was the greatest unique contributor to ratings in fluency among the individual difference factors examined.

IV–10 Rate of reading

SINGH, TARA, & DWIVEDI, C.B. (1994, April). The relation of text structure to context processing during reading. *Journal of General Psychology, 121*, 157–168.

Investigates the role of reading units in the processing and retention of differently structured text materials. Subjects were 120 male undergraduates at a Hindu university; they were randomly assigned to experimental conditions. Two identical sets of materials consisting of 12 error-filled Hindi prose pieces in Devanagari script were prepared, each consisting of 390–410 words. The passages varied in their textual organization and spacing. Three types of texts (children's story, normal secondary school textbook material, and scrambled passages that violated grammatical rules) and two types of spacing (spaced and unspaced) were used. Those assigned to the familiarized condition were provided with a practice session using an error-free passage. A $2 \times 2 \times 3$ (familiarity $\times$ spacing $\times$ type of passage) between-groups factorial design was applied. Dependent variables were proofreading time, error detection scores, and short-term retention scores (assessed using a fill-in-the-blanks test of proofread passages). Data were analyzed using ANOVA procedures. Results revealed that better processing and short-term retention were evident when passages retained interword spaces than when interword spaces were omitted. Text processing required more time under the familiarization

condition and informed error detection in spaced passages. The processing speed decreased from stories, to scrambled, to normal passages.

IV–11 Other factors related to reading

ALMASI, JANICE F. (1995, July/September). The nature of fourth graders' sociocognitive conflicts in peer-led and teacher-led discussions of literature. *Reading Research Quarterly, 30,* 314–351.

Explores and describes the nature of episodes of sociocognitive conflict among 97 fourth grade readers in 6 peer-led and 6 teacher-led discussions of narrative text in an effort to examine students' ability to recognize and resolve episodes of sociocognitive conflict, the nature of the episodes, and the nature of the discourse during the episodes. Investigations took place over an 11-week period. Data were gathered from 3 sources: a cognitive conflict scenario task, transcripts of videotaped discussion, and semistructured interviews with selected pupils. Each episode was examined for proportion of utterances spoken by pupils and teachers, complexity of children's responses, number of alternate interpretations, number of questions asked by pupils and teachers, and manner in which discourse was initiated and sustained. Major findings revealed that different types of sociocognitive conflict existed during literacy discussion; that distinct discourse patterns were associated with different participation structures; and that internalizations of the underlying cognitive processes involved in sociocognitive conflict are affected by the context in which group discussions occur. Sociocognitive conflicts were conflicts within self, conflicts with others, and conflicts with the text. Episodes in peer-led discussions consisted primarily of textually implicit conflicts within self that originated from comments and questions during discussion of the story. Episodes in teacher-led conditions were primarily of conflicts with text. Overall, pupil discourse differed in peer-led and teacher-led groups, with children expressing themselves more fully and exploring more topics of interest to them in peer-led groups. Pupils also recognized and resolved conflict more successfully in peer-led than teacher-led groups.

MEYER, LINDA A.; WARDROP, JAMES L.; STAHL, STEVEN A.; & LINN, ROBERT L. (1994, November/December). Effects of reading storybooks aloud to children. *Journal of Educational Research, 88,* 69–85.

Reports a longitudinal study in which 2 cohorts of pupils in 3 school districts were followed from kindergarten through grade 6. Cohort 1 consisted of pupils who began kindergarten in 1983 and completed grade 6 in 1990; Cohort 2 pupils began and ended a year later. There were about 325 pupils in each cohort. Data were collected on SES and other home background information; performance on batteries of standardized and local tests of reading comprehension administered each fall and spring; and classroom factors such as instructional time, teacher-initiated instructional interactions, oral feedback to pupils, and praise and criticism given to individual pupils and groups. For Cohort 1, data were collected during 9 full days of observation in each classroom in grades K–2 and 6 full days in grades 3–4. For Cohort 2, 9 full days of observation were done in grades K–1, 7 days in grade 2, and 6 days in grades 3–4. Both cohorts were observed for 4 full days each in grades 5–6, with science lessons only observed in grade 6 classrooms. In addition to numerous other measures, the WRAT and the Reading Comprehension Passages subtest of the Woodcock Reading Mastery Test were given each fall and spring in the first 3 years of the study. A negative relation was found between the amount of time adults spent reading to children in kindergarten and their reading achievement. In first grade, the coefficients of correlation between amount of adult story reading and reading achievement ranged from .02 to .07 with the 2 reading tests. Reading scores

were positively related to scores on a listening test. The authors explain their results in terms of a displacement theory that reading aloud displaces other important teaching activities that may be more highly correlated with reading achievement than listening to stories.

SMITH, PAT, & GRIFFIN, PATRICK. (1995, November). You don't have to put your hands up! An application of profiles in an examination of change. *Literacy Learning: Secondary Thoughts, 3*, 31–41.

Examines the changing role of teacher-pupil dialogue during literature group sessions conducted over a 1-year period. The study documents changes in one group of fifth and sixth graders' abilities to interact and converse with self-chosen texts and focuses on one girl and her development. Data compiled with reference to the group consisted of the teacher's observations, transcripts of literature conversations, and interviews with the children about their reading attitudes and strategies. Scaffolding techniques utilized to help the students take control of their own learning are described. Given the growth observed in this group's ability to interact and transact with text, the authors propose that the notion of standards and contemporary profile systems is fundamentally flawed. It is maintained that such frameworks merely allow children's development to be referenced according to a norm defined by a social group or a criterion scale and not to the full potential that children can reach through the use of improved curriculum designs and instructional methodologies.

ALVERMANN, DONNA E. (1996, December/January). Peer-led discussions: Whose interests are served? *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy, 39*, 282–289.

Raises questions about peer-led discussions through exploration of 3 middle school students' insider perspectives over a 6-month period in their middle school language arts class. Through thumbnail sketches of their weekly discussion groups, the researcher highlights issues related to student voice, interruption, and empowerment. Transcriptions of discussions showcase students' perceptions of each other during discussion time. Implications drawn from the analysis include the need for looking closer at students' reasons for choosing to participate with certain individuals in specific discussion groups, the importance of not overlooking the gendered nature of peer-led discussions, and cautions toward teacher stances that may silence the voices of students.

BARONE, DIANE. (1966, December/January). Children prenatally exposed to crack or cocaine: Looking behind the label. *The Reading Teacher, 49*, 278–289.

Reports informally on 3-year longitudinal data for 3 children identified as prenatally exposed to crack or cocaine. Through extensive home visits and observations in preschools and in public and private schools, the researcher documents the children's literacy development. Descriptions of child behavior during oral readings, retellings, writing opportunities, and classroom social encounters demonstrate that although all were labeled as drug exposed, all had different personal and academic profiles and literacy development. Examples of subjects' writing and drawing are included. The researcher stresses the importance of the teacher creating an environment that supports each child's literacy development.

MARTIN, LINDA E., & REUTZEL, D. RAY. (1996, April/June). Scaffolding books for children: Mother's metacognitive decisions. *Reading Psychology, 17*, 159–180.

Describes why mothers make metacognitive decisions that affect how they scaffold books for children. Twenty-five mothers, grouped according to their children's ages (6-, 12-, 18-, 24-month-olds and 4-year-olds), were interviewed while they watched a video recording of two previously recorded booksharing events with their children. Interviews were transcribed, and an instrument was developed to categorize mothers' remarks. Three decision categories for scaffolding books were interpreted from the transcripted data: (1) to extend

knowledge, (2) to make difficult text easier, and (3) to maintain a child's attention. Descriptive data and ANOVAS of decision types and frequencies indicated that mothers, regardless of their children's ages, made specific strategic metacognitive decisions about how text was best shared with their children. Mothers' decisions to scaffold were based on impressions of their children's development.

IV–12 Factors related to reading disability

BEN-DROR, ILANA; BENTIN, SHLOMO; & FROST, RAM. (1995, October/December). Semantic, phonologic, and morphologic skills in reading disabled and normal children: Evidence from perception and production of spoken Hebrew. *Reading Research Quarterly, 30,* 876–893.

Conducts a study to examine the competence of disabled readers in 3 domains of spoken Hebrew (phonology, morphology, and semantics) and compares their performance with 2 control groups, an age-matched control group and a younger group matched on vocabulary level. The reading-disabled group (RD) included 20 Israeli fifth grade pupils with normal WISC-R scores, the age-matched control group consisted of 20 fifth graders with adequate reading ability, and the vocabulary matched control group included 20 third grade normal readers matched with the RD group on raw scores of the WISC-R vocabulary subtest. Each subject was tested individually in two 30-minute sessions; all tests were developed by the researchers. In the first session the children were given vocabulary and pseudoword reading tasks followed by 3 processing tests (semantic categorization test, phoneme identification test, and morphologic relationship judgment test). In the second session, 3 production tests (semantic, phonologic, morphologic) were given. The percentages of correct responses and the reaction times (morphologic relationship subtest) were averaged for each subject separately in the semantic, phonologic, and morphologic tests. Data were analyzed using ANOVA procedures, and Tukey-A post-hoc comparisons were used to analyze interactions. Results revealed that the RD subjects were inferior to both control groups in their ability to assign words to semantic categories, to identify the first phoneme in spoken words, and to judge the morphologic relation between word pairs. The number of words produced by the RD pupils according to semantic, phonologic, or morphologic constraints was similar to that produced by the younger group, and both of these groups were inferior to the age-matched controls.

LEWIS, BARBARA A., & FREEBAIRN, LISA. (1992, August). Residual effects of preschool phonology disorders in grade school, adolescence, and adulthood. *Journal of Speech and Hearing Research, 35,* 819–831.

Applies a cross-sectional design to examine the performance of people with a history of preschool phonology disorder on measures of phonology, reading, and spelling at preschool age, grade school age, adolescence, and adulthood. Subjects consisted of 20 preschool children ages 4 to 6 years, 23 grade school pupils ages 7 to 11 years, 17 adolescents ages 12 to 17, and 17 adults ages 18 to 45 years. Each subject had a documented history of a moderate to severe preschool phonology disorder, normal hearing acuity, normal peripheral speech mechanism, and normal nonverbal IQ (Test of Nonverbal Intelligence). The subjects were matched to controls with normal skills according to age, sex, and socioeconomic status. Each subject was tested with measures of phonology (Goldman-Fristoe Test of Articulation, Multisyllabic Word List, Speech Error Phrases, Tongue Twister, Nonsense Word Repetition, Difficulty Articulatory Sequences), reading (WRMT-R), spelling (Test of Written Spelling), phoneme (Segmentation Task), awareness (Pig Latin Task, Phoneme Reversal), and language (Test of Early Language Development, Clinical Evaluation of Language Fundamentals–Revised-

Screening). Comparisons across each successive age group revealed a higher performance on measures from preschool to grade school age, and a smaller but steady improvement from grade school age to adolescence to adulthood. Subjects with a history of other language problems, in addition to the phonology disorder, performed more poorly than subjects with a history of a preschool phonology disorder alone on the reading and spelling measures.

STOTHARD, SUSAN E., & HULME, CHARLES. (1995, March). A comparison of phonological skills in children with reading comprehension difficulties and children with decoding difficulties. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, 36*, 399–408.

Investigates the phonological skills in children with two types of reading difficulties. Subjects in the first experiment, ranging in age from 7 to 8, were 14 poor comprehenders, 14 CA controls, and 14 comprehension-age controls. Pupils were selected on the basis of their performance on the NARA-R. Phonological awareness was assessed with three tasks: the Graded Nonword Reading Test, the Vernon Graded Word Spelling Test, and a Spoonerism task requiring children to transpose the initial sounds from the beginning of two spoken words. For each test, an ANOVA was conducted followed by Tukey's post-hoc analysis. Overall results indicate no significant difference between the poor comprehenders and children in each of the control groups. Poor comprehenders demonstrated age-normal phonological skills. Subjects in the second experiment, ranging in age from 7 to 8, were 14 poor decoders and 14 RA controls. The same procedures were followed as for Experiment 1. Results of *t* tests indicate no significant difference between groups on the nonword reading tests, a significant difference between groups on the spelling tests, and a significant difference between groups on the Spoonerism task. The Spoonerism task revealed that poor decoders have phonological difficulties, whereas results of the nonword reading test and the spelling test also showed that poor decoders exhibited difficulties using grapheme-to-phoneme correspondences. The authors conclude that phonological skills are critical to the development of decoding skills.

WRIGHT, S.F.; FIELDS, H.; & NEWMAN, S.P. (1996, February). Dyslexia: Stability of definition over a five year period. *Journal of Research in Reading, 19*, 46–60.

Compares the development of reading and spelling in a group of dyslexics and nondyslexics over a 5-year period to explore the extent to which dyslexia was a stable disability. Subjects, drawn from an existing study of English-speaking children attending state primary schools, were assessed at the ages of 8 ($n = 462$) and 13 ($n = 416$). The Schonell Graded Word Reading and Spelling Tests were used to assess reading and spelling of the age 8 sample, and the WISC-R was used to assess IQ. Follow-up testing included the Schonell, Reading and Spelling subtests of the WRAT, and the WISC-R. In the follow-up, 17 dyslexics were retested at age 13. The control group of nondyslexics included 354. Data were analyzed using ANOVA and MANOVA procedures to examine group differences. The assumption of stability was tested by examining the overlap between groups classified as dyslexic at age 8 and at age 13. This revealed that 14 children were found to be underachieving in reading at ages 8 and 13 and were, therefore, considered to represent a stable dyslexic group. Two other groups emerged: A transient dyslexic group comprising 7 children who appeared to have improved over time, and a late emerging group comprising 11 children who appeared to have deteriorated. One-way ANOVAS followed by Duncan's post-hoc tests were performed to examine whether the children classified at both ages as reading disabled were poorer in absolute terms on reading and spelling. Results revealed that those classified as dyslexic at both times were the most severely disabled in terms of reading and spelling. They differed significantly from the late emerging dyslexic group in Study 1 and the transient group in follow-up. All groups performed similarly on the WRAT Spelling subtest, scoring at or below the 10th percentile. Although the transient dyslexic group made significant improvement in reading ability, they did not demonstrate such progress in spelling.

MANIS, FRANKLIN R.; SEIDENBERG, MARK S.; DOI, LISA M.; MCBRIDE-CHANG, CATHERINE; & PETERSEN, ALAN. (1996, February). On the bases of two subtypes of development dyslexia. *Cognition, 58*, 157–195.

Examines whether there are different subtypes of developmental dyslexia. Subjects were 51 dyslexic children (mean age 12.4), 51 age-matched normal readers (mean age 11.7), and 27 younger, normal readers (mean age 8.5) who scored in the same range as the dyslexics on word recognition. Two subgroups who fit the profiles termed surface and phonological dyslexia were identified. All subjects were tested individually on the Woodcock Word Identification test, a nonword reading task, an exception word reading task, a position analysis task, an orthographic choice task, and four WISC-III subtests (Vocabulary, Similarities, Block Design, and Picture Completion). Data were analyzed to identify differences between groups and differences within groups on the various measures. A regression technique was used to identify dyslexics with larger than expected discrepancies between nonword and exception word reading. Results of the regression analysis revealed two subgroups who fit the profiles of surface and phonological dyslexia. Surface dyslexics were relatively poorer in reading exception words compared to nonwords; phonological dyslexics showed the opposite pattern. Most dyslexics were impaired on reading both exception words and nonwords compared to same-aged normal readers. Whereas the surface dyslexics' performance was very similar to that of younger normal readers, the phonological dyslexics' was not. The two dyslexic groups also differed on two validation tasks: Surface subjects were impaired on a task involving orthographic knowledge but not one involving phonology, and phonological dyslexics showed the opposite pattern.

FINK, ROSALIE P. (1995–1996 December/January). Successful dyslexics: A constructivist study of passionate interest reading. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy, 39*, 268–280.

Interviews highly successful, dyslexic adults to determine how and when in their development they constructed reading skills. Participants were 12 successful professionals (3 women and 9 men) identified as being dyslexic through a history of severe difficulties in learning to read. They ranged in age from 27 to 70, were college graduates with expertise in fields that required high levels and large amounts of reading (immunology, biochemistry, law, education, and physics). The sample, all middle class, U.S. citizens, included a Nobel laureate, a member of the National Academy of Sciences, and other outstanding professionals. A clinical interview methodology entailing open-ended conversations to explore cognitive and affective dimensions was used. The individual interviews, lasting 3 to 8 hours, were audiotaped and transcribed in their entirety. Findings revealed that all subjects developed basic fluency in reading 3 to 4 years later than their peers. Although they had persistent troubles with basic, lower level skills (letter, word recognition, and phonics), they rarely avoided reading. Even those who reported feeling profound alienation from school read a lot. One common theme was that in childhood each had a passionate, personal interest in a discipline that required reading, and all read voraciously about their chosen topic. Even though they continued to struggle with word recognition and phonics, they acquired sophisticated high-level reading skills.

FELTON, REBECCA H., & PEPPER, PAMELA P. (1995). Early identification and intervention of phonological deficits in kindergarten and early elementary children at risk for reading disability. *School Psychology Review, 24*(3), 405–414.

Reviews studies predicting risk for reading disability and concludes that children can be identified as at risk for reading disability during their preschool and kindergarten years. The review suggested that measures of phonological skills be used as one part of early assess-

ment practices. Other factors recommended to be considered included family history of reading problems, environmental factors (SES, preschool experience, and home literacy), and development of beginning word identification skills. A number of criterion-referenced and standardized measures of phonological processes were listed, and suggestions for intervention were introduced.

AARON, P.G. (1995). Differential diagnosis of reading disabilities. *School Psychology Review, 24*(3), 345–360.

Describes a technique for reading diagnosis that entails decision making toward appropriate remedial instruction and cites relevant research. The diagnostic and remedial methods described are based on the belief that skilled reading stems from at least 5 components that are not necessarily independent from one another. At the very least, word recognition and comprehension are essential; but 3 others (orthographic processing, reading speed, and vocabulary) are important and, of themselves, may be disruptive to the reading process if they operate dysfunctionally. The author upholds the notion of tailoring instructional treatments to the problems and the dysfunctional components causing them.

WOOD, FRANK B., & FELTON, REBECCA H. (1994, August). Separate linguistic and attentional factors in the development of reading. *Topics in Language Disorders, 14*, 42–57.

Examines the relation between attentional and linguistic factors in reading development. Subjects were 204 randomly selected first graders, 60 poor reading third graders, and 105 adults evaluated for reading difficulties in childhood. A variety of measures were administered to each subject over a 5-year period for purposes of predicting reading impairment as a function of linguistic and attentional factors. Findings of correlation analyses applied to the data from the three samples indicate that attention-deficit disorder has no bearing on word identification skill development but does affect long-term school achievement. Findings also yielded evidence of phonological decoding and rapid naming as essential factors in reading skill development.

WATSON, CATHERINE, & WILLOWS, DALE M. (1995, April). Information-processing patterns in specific reading disability. *Journal of Learning Disabilities, 28*, 216–231.

Investigates specific processing strengths and weaknesses among 3 groups of readers with no observable deficits in oral language as noted through a variety of prescreening measures administered for sample selection. Selected subjects were 25 first graders meeting with success in reading acquisition (successful readers), 25 age-matched and reading-level-matched students who were experiencing difficulty in reading acquisition (unsuccessful readers), and 25 reading-level-matched older individuals. Subjects were drawn from elementary schools within a large-city suburban center and a university psychoeducational center. A variety of measures were individually and randomly administered to the subjects to determine their performance in 3 processing areas: auditory/linguistic, visual/symbolic, and integration of auditory/linguistic and visual/symbolic. MANOVA on all variables followed by ANOVA with planned comparisons revealed that the unsuccessful readers differed significantly from the successful readers on short-term auditory working memory and decoding/encoding. An additional weakness in rapid automaticized naming was observed in the age-matched unsuccessful readers, and weaknesses in phonological coding and visual sequential memory were noted in the older unsuccessful group. Three potential subtypes of poor readers were identified. All were noted to experience symbolic processing and memory difficulty (Subtype 1). Occurring in conjunction with Subtype 1 were those who experienced visual processing deficiencies (Subtype 2), and those with processing deficits in both visual processing and rapid automaticized naming (Subtype 3).

WILLIAMS, MARY C.; MAY, JAMES G.; SOLMAN, ROBERT; & ZHOU, HONG. (1995, January). The effects of spatial filtering and contrast reduction on visual search times in good and poor readers. *Vision Research, 35*, 285–291.

Investigates whether spatial frequency filtering and contrast reduction facilitate visual search times for good and poor readers. Children classified as good reader controls, specific reading disabled, attention-deficit disordered, or comorbid were asked to perform a visual search task using letter arrays spatially filtered to produce low-pass and high-pass images. With high-contrast unfiltered arrays, search time for good reader controls and attention-deficit disordered subjects were shorter than for those subjects identified as specific reading disabled or comorbid. High-pass and low-pass filter condition improved search speed for the comorbid group, but improvement for the specific reading disabled group was only obtained with low-contrast stimuli. Beneficial results of image blurring apparently derives from the contrast reduction produced by the frosted acetate overlays.

MACINNIS, CAROLE, & HEMMING, HEATHER. (1995, November). Linking the needs of students with learning disabilities to a whole language curriculum. *Journal of Learning Disabilities, 28*, 535–544.

Reviews characteristics associated with students identified as learning disabled and discusses a rationale for how the whole language approach provides the type of environment that is suitable for these students. Review of the documented characteristics of LD learners included discussion of learners' dependency, difficulty in self-monitoring performance, failure to modify cognitive strategies in response to changes in the critical task, difficulty with memory, difficulty in acquiring elementary units, difficulty with generalization, and difficulty in approaching a task positively. The analysis of the nature of a whole language curriculum focused on the child-centered context, opportunities for students to have control over their learning, support for risk taking, opportunities for development of self-monitoring strategies, presentation of a context that is meaningful for the child, and the active role of the teacher.

KIRBY, JOHN R.; BOOTH, CAROL A.; & DAS, J.P. (1996, Winter). Cognitive processes and IQ in reading disability. *Journal of Special Education, 29*, 442–456.

Compares four groups of children on cognitive process measures identified by the Planning, Attention, Simultaneous, and Successive (PASS) cognitive processing model. Subjects were two groups of children with reading disabilities, one of average nonverbal IQ and one of above-average nonverbal IQ, who were compared with a CA control group and an RA control group. All children attended elementary schools in Ontario, Canada, and ranged in age from 9.5 to 11.8. Nonverbal intelligence scores ranged from 90 to 106. Reading ability was measured with the Work Attack, Word Identification, and Passage Comprehension subtests of the WJPEB. Ten tests were selected from the Cognitive Assessment System battery. Planning measures were Planned Connections and Visual Search. Attention tests were Expressive Attention and Receptive Attention. Simultaneous processing measures were the Matrix Analogies Test and Figure Memory. Successive processing measures were Word Series, Sentence Repetition, Naming Time, and Speech Rate. All tests were administered individually in three sessions. Average IQ children with reading disabilities differed from CA controls on each of the reading measures and on planning, receptive attention, and successive processing. Average IQ children with reading disabilities did not differ significantly from reading age controls in successive processing and attention but differed on planning and simultaneous processing. They also performed lower on several reading measures. High IQ children with reading disabilities did not differ consistently from average IQ children with reading disabilities on successive processing and attention. Data suggest the importance of successive processing to reading achievement and the need for instruction and remediation in successive processing areas.

CASTLES, ANNE, & COLTHEART, MAX. (1996). Cognitive correlates of developmental surface dyslexia: A single case study. *Cognitive Neuropsychology, 13*(1), 25–50.

Details a case study of one 10-year-old boy with a high IQ and no known history of neurological impairment in order to document what appeared to be a clear case of developmental surface dyslexia and to examine what basic cognitive deficits might be associated with his specific reading problem. The subject performed adequately at school (C grades), had a full-scale IQ of 141 (WISC-R), and showed poor performance on standardized tests of reading and spelling (38th and 12th percentiles, respectively, on the WRAT reading and spelling subtests). To examine the precise nature of his reading disorder, he was administered a range of instruments including word reading tasks of regular and irregular words, auditory comprehension of matched regular and irregular words, oral reading of nonwords, and spelling of regular and irregular words. To further explore the kind of surface dyslexia involved, homophone selection tasks were administered. Cognitive skills were assessed on measures of phonological skills (auditory rhyme judgment task, phoneme deletion task), visual recognition memory (Warrington Recognition Memory Test), visual recall memory (Benton Visual Retention Test), and visual sequential memory (Visual Sequential Memory subtest of the ITPA). The subject demonstrated poor performance for his age and reading level on irregular word reading tasks, but performed normally on nonword and regular word tasks. His performance on a series of homophone selection tasks suggested an impairment at the orthographic input level. The results of various measures of associated cognitive abilities suggested that his impairment was not associated either with phonological awareness deficits or with visual memory problems. His pattern of impairment was considered consistent with that of a dyslexic who has had difficulty developing lexical or whole-word recognition skills, but who has learned normal sublexical grapheme-phoneme translation skills.

IV–13 Sociocultural factors and reading

BUS, ADRIANA G., & VAN IJZENDOORN, MARINUS H. (1995, October/December). Mothers reading to their 3-year-olds: The role of mother-child attachment security in becoming literate. *Reading Research Quarterly, 30*, 998–1015.

Studies the usefulness of the attachment relationship between children and parents for explaining differences in parent-preschooler reading frequencies in low- and high-SES families. Participants composed 3 groups selected on the basis of a questionnaire completed by 350 mothers of 3-year-olds attending playgroups in low- and high-SES districts in a city in the Netherlands. Using their responses, 3 matched groups were composed and included infrequently reading dyads, low SES (n = 15); frequently reading dyads, low SES (n = 15); and frequently reading dyads, high SES (n = 15). The children's behaviors during a reunion with their mothers after a 30-minute separation were scored on a rating scale for attachment security. Mothers and children were then observed while reading. On the basis of verbatim protocols of the sessions, 6 variables were scored. These included the number of thematically irrelevant turns, the number of thematically irrelevant words spoken by the mother, the number of thematically relevant turns, the number of thematically relevant words spoken by the mother, the number of explicit inferences, and the number of changes in the text made by the mothers. Data were analyzed using discriminant function procedures. Results confirmed that the less secure dyads read less frequently. The groups also differed in the way parents shaped interactive reading. In the frequently reading group, there was less communication about the book, whereas in the infrequently reading group, more irrelevant interactions (disciplining) occurred. The frequently reading groups from low and high SES differed only in number of inferences.

DE TEMPLE, JEANNE M., & TABORS, PATTON O. (1995). Styles of interaction during a book reading task: Implications for literacy intervention with low-income families. In Kathleen A. Hinchman, Donald J. Leu, & Charles K. Kinzer (Eds.), *Perspectives on literacy research and practice* (pp. 265–271). Chicago, IL: National Reading Conference.

Asks what styles of interaction young, welfare-recipient mothers display when reading a storybook with their preschool-aged children and how the styles relate to factors such as the child's age and mother's reading level. Subjects were 290 mothers, ages 16 to 21, participating in a voluntary, comprehensive adult literacy program. The mothers were from 7 urban areas across the United States, were all native speakers of English, had children between 27 and 63 months old, and had reading levels from grades 2 to 12. Videotapes were taken of mothers as they read to their children or looked through a provided children's book at home. Two coding schemes were applied to the transcribed book reading sessions. Four styles of book reading were observed: (1) straight reading, mothers who read the text aloud but seldom paused to discuss the story during the reading; (2) standard interactive readers, mothers who paused during the reading and discussed the story with the child before continuing; (3) nonreaders, mothers who turned the pages with their children and discussed the story, but did not read it; and (4) recitation readers, mothers who read the text, either word by word or phrase by phrase and asked the child to repeat the word or phrase after it was read. The styles observed related to the mothers' assumptions about the purposes of reading or looking at books.

BANKSTON, CARL L., III, & ZHOU, MIN. (1995, January). Effects of minority-language literacy on the academic achievement of Vietnamese youths in New Orleans. *Sociology of Education, 68*, 1–17.

Explores the relations between ethnic identification and academic achievement of 387 Vietnamese high school students in New Orleans, Louisiana. Current grades and future educational plans were the two areas focused on in a survey. Correlation coefficients were conducted between grades and future college plans, indicators of academic achievement, and ethnic identification. Results indicated a strong positive association between knowing how to read and write in Vietnamese, as a sign of ethnic identification, and academic achievement ($r = .437$). Positive cultural values of immigrant groups such as study habits, parents' encouragement to pursue a college degree, and time spent doing homework influenced attitudes and effort regarding grades and college plans. Two other statistically significant relations to literacy reported were time spent on homework and Vietnamese ethnicity. Students who could read and write Vietnamese well spent 2 or more hours doing homework every day and had straight A's, whereas students whose Vietnamese language skills were poor were at risk for school failure.

MACHET, MYRNA. (1995, November). Socio-cultural background as a factor in acquisition of narrative discourse skills. *Australian Journal of Language and Literacy, 18*, 281–292.

Summarizes informally a study investigating the ability of African children from a predominantly oral culture to understand and access western narrative discourse structures that have different schematas. Students had difficulty recalling incidents that were linked causally, seldom indicating temporal or causal connections or motivations. Most could not identify the goal of the story or connections or structures within the text. Summaries lacked lexical cohesion. Subjects tended to remember texts that had a high level of activity rather than description. Characters were one dimensional and stereotypical. Most subjects failed to include a resolution of the story or evaluative comments. They did not make summaries meaningful, but rather, listed events. Summaries focused on action, rather than on evaluation or

interpretation. The researcher concluded that without intensive instruction, western story structure is largely inaccessible to children from an oral environment.

SINGH, TARA, & DWIVEDI, C.B. (1993, March). Deprivation, context, and processing of textual materials. *The Journal of Genetic Psychology, 154*, 73–83.

Applies a familiarization and proofreading paradigm to examine the context-processing relation during reading of Hindi textual materials. Subjects were male students in Classes 11 and 12 ($n = 120$) between 16 and 19 years old. All were Hindi native speakers. They were selected on the basis of their scores on the Experiential Deprivation Scale and assigned to one of two groups, a high-deprivation group and a low-deprivation group. The scale provides an index of experiential deprivation in terms of physical as well as perceived environment. Included among the 54 items on the scale are those dealing with parental status, home environment, academic stimulation, neighborhood, and levels of aspiration. A $2 \times 2 \times 2$ factorial design with two levels of deprivation, two types of passages (easy and difficult), and two levels of familiarity (familiar and unfamiliar) was used. Familiarity was established by presenting error-free versions of the passages to designated subjects for a single reading before their actual proofreading. In each condition, subjects were asked to proofread error-filled passages of easy and difficult text, and their times were recorded. Short-term retention was assessed using fill-in-the-blank sheets based on the error-free versions of the passages. An ANOVA revealed that the main effect of deprivation was significant for proofreading time. The main effect of passage type and familiarity revealed that proofreading time was greater for easy and familiar passages than for difficult and unfamiliar ones. Likewise, short-term retention was greater for easy and familiar passages. Low-deprivation students took almost the same amount of time to proofread the easy passage as they did to proofread the difficult passage; high-deprivation students took more time to proofread the easy passage. Retention was similar for the easy and difficult passages for high-deprivation students, but low-deprivation students retained more of the difficult than the easy passages.

GONZALEZ, VIRGINIA, & YAWKEY, THOMAS D. (1994, Winter). Influence of cognitive, linguistic, and sociocultural factors on literacy and biliteracy in young bilingual children. *Education, 115*, 230–239.

Examines the most frequently accepted reading models in bilingual reading research and explicates the limitations of these approaches to account for bilingual reading processes. The authors advocate the need of a reading theory that takes into consideration sociocultural, cognitive, and linguistic factors unique to the bilingual child. These factors are dual verbal, symbolic and abstract representations of two cultures and two linguistic systems. Researchers in bilingual studies of reading have focused on a microtransfer level, that is, the study of phonological awareness, word recognition, and vocabulary knowledge, but have ignored the macrotransfer level, that is, the study of major linguistic and cultural processes, including sociocultural and sociocognitive knowledge, metalinguistic and metacognitive awareness, and meaning construction. Research in bilingual reading is reviewed. Generally, this research has a theoretical background based on the psycholinguistic model of reading and schema theory. These two reading approaches greatly contributed to the understanding of bilingual reading. However, they still have missed some aspects of reading in two languages. Finally, the authors argue that a constructivist, holistic view of reading should be the basis for future bilingual reading research.

SMOLKIN, LAURA B., & SUINA, JOSEPH H. (1996, March). Lost in language and language lost: Considering native language in classrooms. *Language Arts, 73*, 166–172.

Discusses inherent ties between language and culture. The main focus is on Pueblo Native American children who lose their own community identity and language mainly because teachers do not have enough knowledge about the children's cognitive cultural styles and their

language. Misconceptions and erroneous and ill-founded perceptions nurture low expectations for such "slow" children. Some bilingual programs, enthusiastic teachers, and community support could be the solution for Native American children lost in language (their own language and main school language). They are proficient neither in their native language nor in the mainstream language, and this, in turn, directly affects their cognitive and knowledge development. Greater links between the school and the community can be forged so that teachers can access knowledge about the nature of the native language and its functions.

IV–14 Reading interests

FRESCH, MARY JO. (1995, November). Self-selection of early literacy learners. *The Reading Teacher, 49* 220–227.

Explores the self-selected reading and writing activities of first grade children. The study was conducted in a first grade classroom of 23 children in a midwestern U.S. suburban school. Observations were made 3 to 5 days per week during a 20-minute sustained reading time and a 30-minute free-choice time. Titles, choice of activity, and social interactions during the observation times were recorded. Ten case study children were followed closely after an initial observation period of several weeks. Results of classroom observations revealed that within the first months of school, selections for reading were based on familiarity and included Big Books that had been read by the teacher, stories that had been read by an adult (teacher, librarian, or parent), and children's personal favorites. An assessment of the levels of books chosen for independent reading revealed that children moved back and forth between easy and difficult levels, with difficult levels being well above instructional level. When children read with a buddy, productive social interactions were observed. Children discussed the books and how to figure out difficult words. To study free-choice activities, incidents of selection of reading and writing activities were counted. The resulting data revealed a clear pattern between a child's instructional reading level and a preference for literacy activity. The children with above first grade reading levels in January generally chose to read unfamiliar books during free-choice time. The children whose instructional reading levels had just reached grade level in January had two distinct patterns. They chose either to reread familiar text or to work on stories in their writing folders.

WEISS, KENNETH; STRICKLAND, DOROTHY; WALMSLEY, SEAN; & BRONK, GENEVIEVE. (1995, Spring). Reader response: It's okay to talk in the classroom! *The Language and Literacy Spectrum, 5,* 65–70.

Explores what 12 urban, rural, and suburban children from grades 1, 3, and 5 say about books they have read. Subjects engaged in conversation with adult partners at 6 different times. Each conversation lasted approximately 45 minutes, and the children were allowed to talk freely, with no concern for getting correct answers or sharing right responses. Children shared what they liked or disliked about books, characters, or plots. They added their own interpretations and talked about how they might have changed characters or events. The 12 children were able to make informative and interpretive statements about the books they were reading. Examples from specific book conversations are included. Children of all levels of ability and from wide varieties of curriculum responded to literature thoughtfully.

SMITH, ELIZABETH BRIDGES. (1995, December). Anchored in our literature: Students responding to African American literature. *Language Arts, 72,* 571–574.

Uses transcriptions of conversations with 3 African American fifth graders to demonstrate that children self-select and respond to books and poems with themes, illustrations, and language patterns that mirror their own life experience and culture.

OGUNROMBI, S.A., & ADIO, GBOYEGA. (1995). Factors affecting the reading habits of secondary school students. *Library Review, 44*(4), 50–57.

Reports factors affecting the reading habits of 600 students in 10 secondary schools in the Ogbomoso area of Oyo State in Nigeria. Data were collected from 3-part questionnaires. Part 1 collected data from principals on teacher preparation, library hours, sizes, and sizes of library collections, availability of school librarians, and how libraries were maintained. Part 2 collected demographic data from students, as well as students' reading interests, habits, and opportunities for reading in home and school. Part 3 was completed by teachers of language and literature and sampled opinion on practices that encourage or discourage wide reading. The researchers conclude that home conditions interfere with reading, that few schools have libraries or trained librarians or teacher librarians, that equipment and resources for teaching reading skills are lacking, that few materials other than textbooks are available for students to read, and that public libraries need to be established and stocked for student use.

BLAKE, BRETT ELIZABETH. (1995, Spring). Women's literature and voice: Implications for girls' reading and writing in the classroom. *The Language and Literacy Spectrum, 5*, 57–60.

Uses excerpts and incidents from a two-and-a-half-year ethnographic study to demonstrate the connections between reading and writing and the importance of locating children's and adolescent's literature that helps female students find their voice. With samples taken from conversations with one African American female, the researcher suggests the need for urban African American, Hispanic, and white girls to find materials that address their own culture, their own experiences, and their own backgrounds. Suggestions for classroom practice to develop equity and balance for all students are included.

ROMNEY, J. CLAUDE; ROMNEY, DAVID M.; & MENZIES, HELEN M. (1995, April). Reading for pleasure in French: A study of reading habits and interests of French immersion children. *Canadian Modern Language Review, 51*, 474–511.

Surveys the amount of pleasure reading that children in a French immersion program did outside of school in Alberta, Canada. One hundred twenty-seven fifth graders took part in the study. Pupils, parents, teachers, and librarians filled out questionnaires about issues directly or indirectly related to fifth graders' reading habits. In addition, children were interviewed and were asked to keep a record of their out-of-school activities every half hour over a 1-week period. The records were the main source of data. Results of correlated t tests yielded significant differences between reading and television habits in French and English at $p < .001$ level. Only 31% of pupils read books, 10% read comics and magazines, and 13% watched television in French. This compared to 80%, 49%, and 96% who performed the same activities in English. Although reading and watching TV in French were performed by the same subjects, reading and watching TV in English were incompatible activities. It was also found that children from an ethnic background different from French or English read significantly less. Pupils who read more in English tended to score higher on the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education Test de lecture and the reading section of the Canadian Tests of Basic Skills than those who read less in English. Significant differences were found among schools in the time spent reading or watching TV in French. Students at one school engaged in significantly more reading for pleasure than in the other schools.

IV–15 Attitudes and affect toward reading

SWEET, ANNE P., & GUTHRIE, JOHN T. (1996, May). How children's motivations relate to literacy development and instruction. *The Reading Teacher, 49*, 660–662.

Summarizes data from focus groups, clinical interviews, and self-report questionnaires to demonstrate the depth and stability of children's motivations for reading and writing. Responses fell into 8 distinct motivation categories, with most children indicating several motivations that they bring to the classroom and to instruction. Categories determined included involvement, curiosity, challenge, social interaction, compliance, recognition, competition, and work avoidance. Findings suggest that children's motivations for literacy are mutlidimensional and diverse. Explanations of the roles of intrinsic motivation in long-term literacy learning and integrated instruction and of extrinsic motivation in temporary behavior are included.

VAN DER BOLT, LILIAN, & TELLEGEN, SASKIA. (1992–93). Involvement while reading: An empirical exploration. *Imagination, Cognition and Personality, 12*(3), 273–285.

Surveys children and adults to ascertain readers' emotional involvement during reading. A total of 439 Dutch subjects participated, including 198 pupils ages 9–15, 135 librarians, and 106 teachers. All completed a questionnaire about emotional responses from the reading of a text. They indicated responses of never, sometimes, or often to questions about both emotional responses and physical reactions related to emotional experience. Data relevant to the experiences of anger, laughing, and smiling due to the reading of a text were presented. Responses in each category were tallied and percentages were calculated. Results indicated that there were differences in reading involvement between children and adult readers. There tended to be a greater probability of personal experience of reader responses in the areas of imagination and emotion among adult readers than among young readers.

WORTHY, JO, & MCKOOL, SHARON S. (1996). Students who say they hate to read: The importance of opportunity, choice, and access. In Donald J. Leu, Charles K. Kinzer, & Kathleen A. Hinchman (Eds.), *Literacies for the 21st century: Research and practice* (pp. 245–256). Chicago, IL: National Reading Conference.

Investigates the negative attitudes of children who rarely choose to read in their free time. Subjects in the study were drawn from all sixth graders (n = 132) at an intermediate school in the southwestern United States. Of the 40 children who scored low on an administered attitude survey, 11 competent readers (8 boys and 3 girls) were selected for participation in the study. Sources of data included researcher-generated reflexive journals and field notes from team meetings; interviews with children, classroom teachers, and principal; and classroom and library observations performed twice during 90-minute language arts classes. Data were analyzed using a constant comparative method. Children's reading attitudes were affected by their opportunities to read personally interesting materials. Choice in reading instruction and materials was another primary issue. The most salient factor across the pupil interviews and observations was pupil lack of access to personally interesting reading materials.

GUICE, SHERRY L. (1995, September). Creating communities of readers: A study of children's information networks as multiple contexts for responding to texts. *Journal of Reading Behavior, 27*, 379–397.

Presents a qualitative interpretive case study on one class of sixth grade language arts pupils as they presented their perspectives on reading and responding to books in school. Data sources were field notes, journals, audiotapes, interviews, and written responses. One child served as a key informant and member checker on the data. Present in the class were factors

that both inhibited and increased responses to books. Although talk was often forbidden, pupils found ways to build a feeling of togetherness and literary community. Data from four children illustrate variations in patterns within the class. Four specific contexts were determined: silent reading, book selection, writing, and aesthetic activity. Findings suggest that classroom instruction shaped the conditions under which children responded to books, children responded to books in ways that were specific to the contexts, and contexts served as the children's information network in their community of readers.

MITCHELL, TERRY L., & LEY, TERRY C. (1996, January/March). The reading attitudes and behaviors of high school students. *Reading Psychology, 17*, 65–92.

Utilizes the Teale–Lewis Reading Attitude Scales and the Reading Behavior Profile (RBP) to measure the self-reported attitudes toward reading and the current reading behaviors of 1,027 ninth, tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grade students from one high school in a southern U.S. industrial community of 23,000 people. Subjects, 540 females and 486 males, were African Americans (44%), Caucasian (52%), Asian (3%) and other (1%). Multiple-discriminant analysis demonstrated significant relations existed between self-reported attitudes and behaviors and the variables of gender, grade, and achievement level. Multiple regression and correlation analysis indicated a statistically significant but weak relation between the voluntary reading activity reported on the RBP and the 3 Teale–Lewis subscales, with scores on the Enjoyment subscale serving as the strongest predictors of students' voluntary reading behavior and scores on the Utilitarian subscale serving as the weakest predictors. Overall, these students reported that they valued reading most for its utilitarian purpose of contribution to their success in school. Individual development was the second most valued factor, with enjoyment as the least valued factor. Although they had generally positive attitudes toward reading, they report low frequencies of voluntary reading behavior.

QIAN, GAOYIN, & BURRIS, BEVERLEY MARCH. (1996). The role of epistemological beliefs and motivational goals in ethnically diverse high school students' learning from science text. In Donald J. Leu, Charles K. Kinzer, & Kathleen A. Hinchman (Eds.), *Literacies for the 21st century: Research and practice* (pp. 159–169). Chicago, IL: National Reading Conference.

Examines the role of epistemological beliefs and motivational goals in ethnically diverse high school students' learning from science text. A sample included 95 eleventh and twelfth grade students from science classes at an inner-city public high school in New York City. Three tests were administered 2 weeks prior to the start of the experiment: a 32-item epistemological belief questionnaire, a motivational goal questionnaire, and a prior knowledge test. Two weeks later, students were asked to read and study a refutational text on Newton's theory of motion as though they were studying for a test. Students were given 15 minutes to read and study the 600 word passage, followed by a 3-minute word scramble and a 30-minute achievement test (same subtests as in prior knowledge test with order altered). Data from the prior knowledge tests were used to classify students into 3 groups: (1) accretion answers were incomplete but correct; (2) tuning answers showed some alternative conceptions; or (3) restructuring answers based on misconceived knowledge of the concept. To test the effects of the refutational text, 4 separate repeated measures ANOVAS were conducted using Prior Knowledge types (accretion, tuning, and restructuring) as the between-subjects factor and Conceptual Change (pre- and posttest scores) as the within-subject factor. A multiple regression analysis was used to examine the relation between epistemological beliefs and motivational goals. A canonical correlation coefficient analysis was conducted to examine whether students, who had immature beliefs about learning, knowledge, and ability and who endorsed performance goals, would fail to overcome naive theories about Newton's law of motion. Results

suggest positive effects of refutational text on students' conceptual change learning and a significant relation between students' epistemological beliefs and their motivational goals. The belief that the ability to learn is innate was found to contribute most to conceptual change learning in this study.

VALERI-GOLD, MARIA. (1996). Assessing developmental learners' perceptions of reading and writing and the literacy demands in college. In Martha D. Collins & Barbara G. Moss (Eds.), *Literacy assessment for today's schools* (pp. 200–216). Harrisonburg, VA: College Reading Association.

Assesses college developmental learners' perceptions of themselves as readers and as writers and examines their expectations of the reading and writing demands placed on them in college. Subjects were 46 students enrolled in a 10-week reading and writing course in a 4-year urban university in the southeastern United States. Placement in the course was based on SAT verbal scores, high school GPA, and scores on the Collegiate Placement Exam. During weeks 1 and 10, students reflected on 2 open-ended questions on expectations and perceptions. Responses were grouped into 7 categories: purposes for reading and writing, affective awareness, metacognitive awareness, integrated learning, teacher influence, conative (perseverance and endurance), and academic (discrepancies between reading and writing demands in high school and in college). Samples of student responses in each category are included. Many had a false perception of their reading abilities at the beginning of the course. Most students felt, however, they had made marked improvement in their ability to read and write by the end of the course and had more positive attitudes toward literacy. Initial and final responses suggested that students had the persistence and perseverance for the reading and writing demands placed on them in college.

BLAIR-LARSON, SUSAN M. (1995, Fall). Literacy perceptions of runaway adolescents. *The Reading Instruction Journal, 39*, 29–31.

Describes a study conducted over a 6-month period in 1 temporary housing shelter for runaway adolescents. The study investigates what literacy currently means to the subjects, as well as describing their past learning experiences. In one-to-one interviews the adolescents responded to open-ended questions about literacy histories, their present uses of reading and writing, and future literacy needs related to any vocational plans. Interview data suggest that reading and writing are a part of these students' lives, that reading and writing are both school-related and personal for these students, and that many have had or are currently experiencing successful school experiences. Most had clear vocational plans and were aware of the specific reading and writing skills required for job success.

NEWTON, EVANGELINE V. (1995). College students' perception of effective and ineffective literature instruction. In Wayne M. Linek & Elizabeth G. Sturtevant (Eds.), *Generations of literacy* (pp. 161–172). Harrisonburg, VA: College Reading Association.

Asks 26 college freshmen to recall the "best" and "worst" literature classes. Participants were from an intact English composition course. Interviews were conducted individually in an open-end form lasting 20 to 30 minutes each. All interviews were transcribed and analyzed to construct the meta-matrix (by case) and summary tables (across cases). All students chose to describe classes either in high school or the first semester of their college freshmen composition sequence. Few students mentioned any content that was covered in either best or worst classes. Two students recalled reading many good books in their favorite classes but did not discuss any specific genres, writers, or literary periods. Specific references to literary texts were few and cited primarily to illustrate a teacher's behavior. All participants indicated that their attitudes about literature were largely influenced by various

teacher behaviors related to subject matter or student behaviors and interactions. In "best" literature classrooms, students reported that teachers provided challenges, displayed enthusiasm, demonstrated knowledge of material, encouraged expression of personal opinions, and fostered peer interactions. Teachers in worst classrooms emphasized repetitive and meaningless assignments, stressed one interpretation of text, did not vary their lecture style, provided little feedback, and were not approachable.

IV–16 Personality, self-concept, and reading

SHELL, DUANE F.; COLVIN, CAROLYN; & BRUNING, ROGER H. (1995, September). Self-efficacy, attribution, and outcome expectancy mechanisms in reading and writing achievement: Grade-level and achievement-level differences. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 87,* 386–398.

Examines students' beliefs of self-efficacy, causal attribution, and outcome expectancy for reading and writing achievement at different grade levels and achievement levels. Also examined is the relation between students' beliefs and their actual achievement. Subjects were 105 fourth graders, 111 seventh graders, and 148 tenth graders. Belief measures pertaining to students' feelings about their own reading and writing achievement were designed for the study. These, along with the CAT, were administered to each subject. MANOVA and correlation analyses performed on the data indicated grade- and achievement-level differences in self-efficacy, attribution, and outcome expectancy beliefs. However, no interaction between grade and achievement level was observed. The results suggest that self-efficacy, causal attribution, and outcome expectancy beliefs affect potentially important motivational influences on children's reading and writing. With each increase in grade level, a greater relation was observed between beliefs for reading and comprehension (as opposed to component) skills. For writing, however, a greater relation was observed between beliefs for writing and component (as opposed to communication) skills.

NOWICKI, STEPHEN, JR., & DUKE, MARSHALL P. (1992, December). The association of children's nonverbal decoding abilities with their popularity, locus of control, and academic achievement. *The Journal of Genetic Psychology, 153,* 385–393.

Examines the relation between children's abilities to decode the emotional meanings in facial expressions and tones of voice and their popularity, locus of control or reinforcement orientation, and academic achievement. Subjects included 456 first through fifth graders attending parochial schools. Children were given tests that assessed their abilities to decode emotions in facial expressions and tones of voice (the Diagnostic Analysis of Nonverbal Accuracy and the Children's Affect Test). Other measures included the Nowicki-Strickland Internal-External Locus of Control Scale, the CTBS, and the Henmon-Nelson Test. Data were analyzed using tests of correlation. Results revealed that children who were better at decoding nonverbal emotional information in faces and tones of voice were more popular, more likely to be internally controlled, and more likely to have higher academic achievement scores.

EWING, J.M., & KENNEDY, E.M. (1996, April). Putting co-operative learning to good effect. *Reading, 30,* 19–25.

Describes a study of the effects of cooperative learning on children's attitudes and linguistic skills. Eight children from a British Primary 7 class in an inner-city school comprised the experimental group. Children were introduced to cooperative learning skills and then were to apply the skills to a language based activity involving an interaction with other children in their class. In the activity, a whole-class story was to be composed with the class divided into 4 subgroups, each led by 2 of the children from the experimental group. The au-

thors report collecting information from the Culture-Free Self-Esteem Inventory, an open-ended assessment of each experimental child by peers, and a 21-item questionnaire focusing on each child's self-view. Whereas scores on the self-esteem inventory showed an increase, there was little noticeable change on the other instruments. Language quality in terms of expressiveness and lucidity was felt to have improved.

NEWMAN, LORI B., & DODD, DAVID K. (1995, August). Self-esteem and magazine reading among college students. *Perceptual and Motor Skills, 81*, 161–162.

Examines the relation between self-esteem and magazine reading among college students. Participants included 29 male and 48 female undergraduate students. Participants responded to a questionnaire that contained a 10-item self-esteem scale and 15 distractor items. In addition, for each of 12 categories of magazines, participants indicated on a 4-point scale how frequently they had read at least 1 magazine in the category within the past year. Five categories of magazines contributed to a reading score for glamour magazines, sports, teen, and television-movie guides. The remaining seven categories yielded a score for control magazines including business-finance, hobbies, nature, psychology, religion, science-computers, and weekly news. Data were analyzed using correlational statistics. Results revealed that self-esteem correlated negatively with the reading of sports magazines and television-movie guides and was unrelated to the reading of the other 10 categories of magazines.

IV-17 Readability and legibility

DITTMAR, MARY LYNNE. (1994, October). Proficiency and workload in simultaneous and successive proofreading tasks. *Journal of General Psychology, 121*, 319–332.

Examines the effect of side-to-side head movements on proofreading performance from hard copy to electronic formats. Subjects were 64 adults between the ages of 20 and 45 solicited from a variety of clerical work forces. Of these, 10 were randomly selected for extended testing from a group of 42 who met screening criteria. Subjects were asked to proofread by comparing lines of alphanumeric code in 2 conditions: (1) successive (side-to-side) proofreading in which the original hard copy was placed immediately adjacent to the screen, or (2) simultaneous (head-on) proofreading in which the source material and keyed-in data to be proofed were both presented on a single visual display terminal (VDT). Assessed were speed and accuracy performance as well as variations in ratings of the mental workload made by subjects in the 2 conditions. ANOVA and multivariate tests performed on the data indicated that subjects' speed and accuracy were diminished in the hard copy side-to-side condition but not so in the VDT head-on condition. Subjects' ratings of mental workload were higher in the side-to-side condition than in the head-on condition.

IV–18 Literacy acquisition

ANDERSON, JIM. (1995). How parents perceive literacy acquisition: A cross-cultural study. In Wayne M. Linek & Elizabeth G. Sturtevant (Eds.), *Generations of literacy* (pp. 262–277). Harrisionburg, VA: College Reading Association.

Describes the perceptions of early literacy held by parents of young children from different cultural groups. Participants were 30 parents selected equally from 3 cultural groups: Chinese Canadian, Euro-Canadian, and Indo-Canadian. Parents had children who attended kindergarten, grade 1, or grade 2 classrooms in 3 schools located in diverse areas of Vancouver, British Columbia. Recorded interviews were conducted with each parent using the Parents' Perceptions of Literacy Learning Interview Schedule. Responses were transcribed and coded.

Analysis revealed that although Euro-Canadian parents, and to a lesser extent the Indo-Canadian parents, tended to support an emergent literacy perspective, the Chinese Canadian parents held much more traditional views. Only 1 item was agreed upon by all parents: the importance of helping the child discuss what is being read. The majority (>80%) of parents supported some aspects of emergent literacy such as tracking print during shared reading, supporting reading-like behaviors, connecting scribbling to later writing development, acknowledging the developmental nature of literacy acquisition, and accepting the significance of social interactions. In each group more than half the parents did not believe that children learn to read holistically and would not accept a child's invented spelling. Similarly, parents tended to believe that children need to know the letters of the alphabet and their sounds before they can write. Parents in all groups supported the concept of reading readiness.

SHAFFER, GARY L., & MCNINCH, GEORGE H. (1995). Parents' perceptions of young children's awareness of environmental print. In Wayne M. Linek & Elizabeth G. Sturtevant (Eds.), *Generations of literacy* (pp. 278–286). Harrisonburg, VA: College Reading Association.

Looks at young children's ability to identify commercial logos presented in a flashed format and the parents' perceptions of their children's ability with the task. Subjects were 40 mothers and 20 academically at-risk preschoolers and 20 academically advantaged preschoolers. Children were randonly drawn (stratified by sex) from a pool of subjects in a jointly funded federal and state preschool intervention program for the at-risk group and in a private church-sponsored day care program attracting upper middle class families for the academically advantaged group. In individual testing sessions children were asked to identify, by reading or naming, 8 common logographic samples presented on cards. No time limit was set, and each response was given points: 0 (incorrect), 1 (spelling response), 3 (related concept), or 4 (correct). Two scores were computed for each child, the number of words correctly identified and a composite score totaling each response. Parents were presented the same logo cards and predicted their child's performance as "would know" (5 points), "might know" (3 points), or "would not know" (0 points). Two-group *t*-test analyses for uncorrelated means were computed. Significant differences were found in favor of the academically advantaged children for both the number of words read and the composite scores. Parents in the at-risk group predicted that their children would read the logos at a significantly higher level than did parents of the advantaged children. Mothers of the advantaged children were significantly more accurate in predicting their children's success in the response task.

BRODY, GENE H.; STONEMAN, ZOLINDA; & MCCOY, J. KELLY. (1995–96, December/January). How caregivers support the literacy development of Head Start graduates in a rural setting. *The Reading Teacher, 49*, 340–342.

Reports how caregivers nurtured school literacy skills in a sample of kindergartners who attended Head Start. The children (n = 71) were part of the National Head Start and Public School Transition Project. The majority of the children's caregivers lived in poverty, and a little less than half of them had high school diplomas. Approximately 53% of the sample were African American, and 47% were Caucasian. For this discussion, the findings were summarized and reported as factors most likely to support the emerging literacy skills of children from low-income, rural settings. These factors included (1) the promotion of the child's independence by the caregiver, (2) the high level of communication between the child's caregivers, (3) the responsiveness to the child's questions by the caregiver, (4) the affectionate interaction during storytelling between the child and caregivers, and (5) the level of cognitive demand and the frequency of high-level cognitive questions during the storytelling.

BRENNA, BEVERLEY A. (1995, July). Five early readers solving problems: A case study. *Reading, 29,* 30–33.

Uses a case study approach to study both the metacognitive reading strategies of 5 early readers and their reading-related interactions with primary caregivers. The 5 subjects (1 boy and 4 girls) were fluent readers, ages 4 to 6 years. The caregivers included parents and grandparents. To develop the case studies of the children, data collection procedures included recording miscues and reading behaviors during oral reading, conducting semistructured interviews to question children on the strategies observed, and conducting reading-related role plays between the children and a puppet character. The caregivers were interviewed to ask perceptions of their role in facilitating the children's reading development and to validate findings about the observed metacognitive strategies. The results indicated that all 5 children used a variety of thinking and reasoning strategies and demonstrated individual preferences in terms of the strategies they used most often. The most fluent reader used more metacognitive strategies more often and more appropriately than the least fluent reader. The least fluent reader relied most heavily on sounding out an unknown word; the average fluency readers employed strategies that drew on semantic and syntactic cues to the exclusion of phonic information. The 2 most fluent readers utilized all 3 types of cues: phonic, semantic, and syntactic. All caregivers expressed that reading is a problem-solving process and encouraged the children to solve reading problems independently. They also provided scaffolding by giving direct coaching in problem solving when the children were having difficulty.

CARDOSO-MARTINS, CLÁUDIA. (1995, October/December). Sensitivity to rhymes, syllables, and phonemes in literacy acquisition in Portuguese. *Reading Research Quarterly, 30,* 808–828.

Examines the relations between phonological similarity and phonemic segmentation with reading ability. Children were assessed 5 times over a period of about 2 years. The present study reports on findings from the first, third, and fourth testings. The 105 Brazilian children (5.2–7.3) were in 5 first grade classrooms. The first set of tests (rhyme detection, syllable detection, phoneme detection, phoneme segmentation, Raven's Progressive Matrices, and letter knowledge) was given at the end of kindergarten, the third set (word reading 2 and spelling 2) 4 months after reading instruction started, and the fourth set of tests (word reading 3 and spelling 3) toward the end of the first grade. Simple regression analyses were conducted to evaluate the predictive value of phonemes, syllables, and rhymes awareness on reading and spelling. Results indicated that rhymes are not as good predictors in Portuguese as they are in English. The ability to detect rhyme in multisyllabic paroxytone Portuguese words does not entail the ability to identify the segment shared by rhyming words. However, the syllable detection tasks were highly correlated to both reading and spelling and significantly predicted reading and spelling ability at both the middle and the end of the school year. In other words, sensitivity to syllables might help predict children's ability to learn the correspondence between print and spoken syllables in beginning stages of reading acquisition in Portuguese.

WALTON, PATRICK D. (1995, December). Rhyming ability, phoneme identity, letter-sound knowledge, and the use of orthographic analogy by prereaders. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 87,* 587–597.

Compares the viability of 2 models of orthographic analogy usage for the purpose of reading words. One model claims that beginning readers make orthographic analogies on the basis of rhyming, whereas the other claims that making orthographic analogies is dependent on considerable experience recoding individual letter sequences involving phonemes. Subjects were 66 kindergarteners who were pretested on rhyming, phoneme identification, letter-sound

knowledge, and vocabulary knowledge. They were then randomly assigned to 1 of 3 treatment conditions. The conditions entailed (1) instruction in rhyming words (intact spelling condition), (2) instruction in onset and rime (phonological condition), or (3) instruction in recognizing words with spellings that were segmented (segmented spelling condition). Analysis of performance by children in each condition on the several dependent measures administered revealed that subjects with well developed prereading skills are capable of orthographic analogies when beginning to read. However, rather than rhyming, the ability to identify final phonemes was the best discriminator between children who could read analogy test words and those who could not. A synthesis of both models is supported by the evidence from this study.

ROHL, MARY, & PRATT, CHRIS. (1995, December). Phonological awareness, verbal working memory and the acquisition of literacy. *Reading and Writing: An Interdisciplinary Journal*, *7*, 327–360.

Describes a 2-year longitudinal study designed to examine the relations among phonological awareness, verbal working memory, and the development of reading and spelling. Subjects were 76 children (41 boys and 35 girls) available for testing at all phases of the study. They were nonreaders from 5 classes in 3 schools in lower middle class areas of Perth, Western Australia, and had a mean CA of 5.8 at the start of the study. Phonologic awareness was measured by tests of onset and rime, phonemic segmentation, and phoneme deletion. Other tests were verbal working memory tests (memory for letters test, memory for words test, and memory for sentences test), reading and spelling tests (Neale Analysis of Reading Ability–Revised, real and pseudoword decoding tests of the Interactive Reading Assessment System, Schonell Spelling Test, and a pseudoword spelling test), and the PPVT-R. Testing was conducted within the first 5 weeks of grade 1, 9 months later at the end of grade 1, and 9 months later at the beginning of the second semester of grade 2. Factor analyses showed that the verbal working memory tests loaded on 2 distinct but highly related factors, the first of which involved the repetition of verbal items exactly as spoken by the experimenter, whereas the second involved repetition of items in reverse order. Factor analyses also showed that although the phonological awareness variables consistently loaded on the backwards repetition factor at the beginning and end of grade 1, by grade 2 the phonological awareness variables loaded on a separate factor, which also included sentence repetition. Results of multiple regression analyses, with reading and spelling as a compound criterion variable, indicated that phonological awareness consistently predicted later reading and spelling even when both simple and backwards repetition were controlled. In contrast, verbal working memory did not consistently predict reading and spelling across testing times. Whereas there was some indication that verbal working memory measured during grade 1 did predict reading and spelling in grade 2, these effects were no longer evident when all 3 phonological variables were controlled.

BOWEY, JUDITH A. (1994, August). Phonological sensitivity in novice readers and nonreaders. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology*, *58*, 134–159.

Investigates the association between phonological sensitivity and novice reading skill in 5-year-old children who had not been exposed to formal reading instruction. Subjects were 96 children (44 boys and 52 girls) with a mean PPVT-R standard score of 107.21. All were monolingual English speakers attending state preschools located in middle-class suburbs of Brisbane, Australia. Subjects were tested individually in a series of 4, 20-minute sessions using published and experimental tests. The published measures included the PPVT-R, the Digit Span subtest of the WISC-R, and the Sentence Imitation subtest of the Primary Test of Oral Language Development. Experimental tests were phonological oddity tasks (rime oddity, onset oddity, phoneme oddity task 1, and phoneme oddity task 2), sound identity tasks, novice reading skill task, letter knowledge task, and a word identification test. Using the results of the

word identification test, the subjects were divided into 2 groups: 76 nonreaders, who could not identify any words, and 20 novice readers, who could identify 1 or more words. ANOVA and ANCOVA procedures were applied to explore differences between nonreaders and novice readers on the various indices of phonological sensitivity. Results indicated that the novice readers were higher in both phonological sensitivity and verbal ability than nonreaders. Differences in phonological sensitivity remained between the novice readers and nonreaders equivalent in letter knowledge after verbal ability effects were controlled. Although nonreaders varying in letter knowledge also differed in phonological sensitivity, this result may have reflected underlying differences in verbal ability.

IV–19 Studies on the reading process

FITZGERALD, JILL. (1995, Summer). English-as-a-second-language learners' cognitive reading processes: A review of research in the United States. *Review of Educational Research, 65*, 145–190.

Summarizes findings of 67 investigations on ESL learners' cognitive reading processes. Subjects' educational level ranged from elementary school to college and their language proficiency from basic to advanced. Language backgrounds were mostly Hispanic, Southeast Asian, and Arabic. Findings were clustered in 6 groups. (1) ESL readers' vocabulary: 8 studies that showed vocabulary is a significant variable in ESL readers' success. (2) ESL readers' strategies: 2 sets of studies were identified, 13 studies on linguistic strategies that showed there is no pattern for strategy use, that language dominance and background may not affect strategy use, and that better comprehension was aligned to fewer miscues; and 10 studies on metacognitive strategies that suggested ESL readers monitored their comprehension, that nine reading strategies were often used, and that language background did not influence the types of strategies used. (3) Schema and prior knowledge utilization: 17 investigations that suggested schemata and text structure influence comprehension and recall. (4) Relation between proficiency in reading and in speaking: 7 studies that yielded mixed results. (5) Relation between proficiency in language variables other than speaking: 14 papers that concluded there exists a positive relation between language proficiency and the other variables. (6) Comparisons across language learners: 2 aspects were compared, ESL learners to native English learners, 17 reports that suggested the similarities between them are qualitative whereas the differences are quantitative; and L1 reading to ESL reading, 17 investigations that showed transfer of L1 reading strategies to ESL reading. ESL readers' cognitive processes are similar to those of native English speakers.

JIMÉNEZ, ROBERT T.; GARCÍA, GEORGIA EARNEST; & PEARSON, P. DAVID. (1996, January/March). The reading strategies of bilingual Latina/o students who are successful English readers: Opportunities and obstacles. *Reading Research Quarterly, 31*, 90–112.

Examines the strategic reading processes of 8 bilingual Latina/o children who were identified as successful English readers. For comparative purposes, 2 smaller samples were included: 3 monolingual Anglo students who were successful English readers and 3 bilingual Latina/o students who were less successful English readers. The major objective of the study was to explore the question of how bilingualism and biliteracy affect metacognition. Data were gathered using both unprompted and prompted think-alouds, interviews, a measure of prior knowledge, and passage recalls. Preliminary analysis resulted in the identification of 22 distinct strategies organized into 3 broad groups (text-initiated, reader-initiated, and interactive). Three of the strategies were considered unique to success in that students who used

them: (1) transferred actively information across languages; (2) translated from one language to another, but most often from Spanish to English; and (3) accessed openly cognate vocabulary when they read, specifically in their less dominant language. In addition, the successful Latina/o readers frequently encountered unknown vocabulary items whether reading English or Spanish texts, but they were able to draw upon an array of strategic processes to determine the meanings of these words. The less successful Latina/o readers used fewer strategies and were often less effective in resolving comprehension difficulties in either language. They also frequently identified unknown vocabulary, but they differed substantially from the successful Latina/o readers in their ability to construct plausible interpretations of text. Because the successful Anglo readers rarely encountered unknown vocabulary and because they could access well-developed networks of relevant prior knowledge, they were able to devote substantial cognitive resources to the act of comprehension. The data suggest that Latina/o students who are successful English readers possess a qualitatively unique fund of strategic reading knowledge.

JIMÉNEZ, ROBERT T.; GARCÍA, GEORGIA EARNEST; & PEARSON, P. DAVID. (1995, Spring). Three children, two languages, and strategic reading: Case studies in bilingual/monolingual reading. *American Educational Research Journal, 32*, 67–97.

Describes and compares cognitive and metacognitive processes of a proficient bilingual Latino reader to a marginally proficient bilingual Latino reader and an accomplished monolingual Anglo-American reader. This case study used prompted and unprompted think-aloud protocols, interviews, a questionnaire, text retellings, and reading assessment scores as sources of data. Three sixth graders were selected from a larger study in strategies use of sixth and seventh graders. Subjects attended a school that serves a working- and middle-class neighborhood where 27.5% of the population is Latino. Recommendations from the principal, the director of bilingual education, and the teacher were used to select the subjects. Three criteria were followed: ability to read, ability to think aloud, and willingness to read in Spanish. Participants read a narrative and 2 expository texts in English and Spanish. Interviews, think-aloud protocols, and knowledge assessment data were combined to create profiles. The Latino proficient bilingual reader was presented in detail, whereas the 2 other participants' profiles were smaller and used to explain the first child's reading competence. Four main themes emerged from the analysis: (1) Bilingual readers are logocentric in contrast to the monolingual reader who seemed to have automatized the lexical decoding process, (2) the view of reading affects strategy use, (3) proficient readers are multistrategy users, and (4) language and reading proficiency influence the way readers use their second language. Readers can use their second language to integrate meaning or to hinder comprehension.

HOOVER, MICHAEL L. (1992, July). Sentence processing in Spanish and English. *Journal of Psycholinguistic Research, 21*, 275–299.

Investigates the amount of time spent by native speakers in reading to the end of a clause and the difficulty in understanding self-embedded sentences in Spanish and English. In Experiment 1, 12 paid English speakers at a university read 114 sentences varying in depth, structure, presence or absence of a plural noun, and presence or absence of a relative pronoun. Stimuli were presented word-by-word on a computer that also recorded the time spent in reading each word. After each sentence subjects had to complete 1 of the 4 comprehension tasks: (1) paraphrase the sentence, (2) invent a sentence that could precede the sentence, (3) invent a sentence that could follow the sentence, and (4) indicate whether the subject-verb-object (SVO) sequence presented was part of the meaning of the sentence. Results of 2 repeated-measure ANOVAS, to compare right-branching and self-embedded sentences with or without "that," yielded significant differences in time spent to complete the comprehension tasks and in reading time per word, sentence, clause depth, and clause type. All effects were significant

except the inclusion or omission of "that." In Experiment 2, 12 volunteer Spanish speakers at universities read sentences in Spanish varying in depth, plurality, SV inversion, and structure. Equipment and procedure were identical to those in Experiment 1 except that the experiment was carried out entirely in Spanish. Two repeated-measure ANOVAS were conducted to compare right-branching self-embedded sentences and the inversion of SV and VS. Comprehension was not affected by the type of sentence, but it took longer to read more deeply structured sentences. Findings indicated that Spanish speakers understood self-embedded sentences with two subordinate clauses, whereas English speakers did not. Spanish and English speakers employ different kinds of strategies to comprehend text.

RUSCIOLELLI, JUDITH. (1995, Summer). Student responses to reading strategies instruction. *Foreign Language Annals, 28*, 262–273.

Determines which strategies students initially employ while reading Spanish and their responses to subsequent instruction in specific strategies that are recommended. Subjects, 65 third- and fourth-semester Spanish students, first rated 12 statements describing reading behaviors and selected their frequency of using each behavior when reading foreign language materials. Classroom activities were then developed to emphasize scanning for specific information, skimming, repeated readings, word-guessing skills, and summarizing. These activities were taught during the spring semester following the administration of the strategies questionnaire. Ten articles were read using the same format: prereading activities, skimming and scanning practice, underlining unknown words, choosing specific vocabulary to guess, and summarizing the main ideas. At semester's end, the students ranked a listing of the strategies from most to least useful. Seven different strategies were ranked in first place. Strategies that received the highest percentages of response were looking at pictures or titles and making predictions, guessing unknown words by analyzing part of speech, and relating words to context. Mean ranking, however, suggested that instruction in skimming and word guessing proved most useful to students.

WHITNEY, PAUL; BUDD, DESIREE; BRAMUCCI, ROBERT S.; & CRANE, ROBERT S. (1995, September/October). On babies, bath water, and schemata: A reconsideration of top-down processes in comprehension. *Discourse Processes, 20*, 135–166.

Reviews 3 alternative views of the role of top-down processing in comprehension and proposes a new theoretical framework that synthesizes elements from each of the 3 views. The 3 alternative views discussed included the minimalist framework, construction-integration theory, and schema-assembly theory. It was proposed that although each of these views has some merit, none adequately addresses the context-sensitive nature of top-down processes in comprehension. It was suggested that the most general conclusion supported by the data of top-down processing is that such processing is adapted flexibly to fit the nature of the text being read as well as the goals and abilities of the reader. To understand the complex role of top-down processes in comprehension, it was proposed that 3 key ideas drawn from existing theories be integrated. These include the concept of online schema assembly, the concept of multiple coding, and concern with contextual sensitivity. The new framework offered focused on how distributed activation control is maintained by the comprehension system.

COMMEYRAS, MICHELLE, & GUY, JODIE. (1995, November). Parole officers and the king's guards: Challenges in understanding children's thinking about stories. *Language Arts, 72*, 512–516.

Relates the researchers' efforts to be open to multiple interpretations regarding the meaning of children's thinking. The subjects were 18 second graders of whom 9 were European American, 8 were African American, and 1 was East Indian. They attended an elementary school located in a university town in the southeastern United States. The researchers' oral read-

ing of a short story and the ensuing discussion were videotaped and transcribed for analysis. The analysis focused on examination of the reasons offered by the children for specific story events and was completed by applying current understandings in the areas of critical thinking, interpersonal reasoning, and children's philosophical thinking. The researchers considered that the children were capable reasoners and attempted to consider alternative interpretations to explain children's unsupported judgments. Additionally, the authors found that their understandings were extended by acquiring knowledge about the children's unique backgrounds of experience, including knowledge of events and practices in the children's communities.

HARTMAN, DOUGLAS K. (1995, July/September). Eight readers reading: The intertextual links of proficient readers reading multiple passages. *Reading Research Quarterly, 30,* 520–561.

Chronicles the intertextual links that 8 able readers made as they read across 5 passages. The 8 students (4 males, 4 females) were juniors (4) and seniors (4) attending a midwestern university high school. Six of the 8 were ranked at or above the 92nd percentile on the verbal section of the Preliminary Scholastic Aptitude Test and the National Merit Scholarship Qualifying Test. The other 2 students were ranked at the 85th and 66th percentiles. Following a practice session, each reader was videotaped completing 3 tasks: (1) thinking aloud while reading a collection of 5 sequenced passages, (2) responding verbally to prompting questions about what he or she had read, and (3) completing a debriefing interview. Intertextuality as a cognitive construction was used to analyze the connections readers made among textual resources. The analyses revealed 2 general types of intertextual links: (1) connections among ideas, events, and people; and (2) social, cultural, political, and historical connections. The readers adopted various discourse stances, reflected in the ways they positioned themselves in relation to the passages and used textual resources in different patterns of distribution. Results indicated that good readers use a number of ways to read, even when given the same passages and task.

MAGLIANO, JOSEPH P.; BAGGETT, WILLIAM B.; JOHNSON, BRENDA K.; & GRAESSER, ARTHUR C. (1993, January/June). The time course of generating causal antecedent and causal consequence inferences. *Discourse Processes, 16,* 35–53.

Investigates online inference generation to determine when causal antecedent and causal consequence inferences are activated during the reading process. Subjects were 160 psychology undergraduates participating for course credit. Passages having both causal antecedents and causal consequences, as well as control passages, were presented to students online in a rapid serial processing format (RSVP) at rates of either 250 or 400 milliseconds. After reading the last word of each sentence, students were asked to respond to a word stimulus, which signified either the causal antecedent or the causal consequence. Word stimuli were presented at intervals of 250, 400, 600, or 1200 ms after the last word of the sentence presented during the RSVP task stimulus onset asynchrony (SOA interval). A 2-inference category (antecedent vs. consequence) × RSVP rate (250, 400 ms) × SOA intervals (250, 400, 600, and 1200 ms) factorial design was employed with RSVP rate and SOA as between-subject variables and the activation score as the dependent variable. ANOVA performed on the data revealed a threshold of 400 ms before causal antecedents are generated online. Consequence antecedents were not activated online, but later during retrieval.

VAN DEN BROEK, PAUL, & LORCH, ROBERT F., JR. (1993, January/June). Network representations of causal relations in memory for narrative texts: Evidence from primed recognition. *Discourse Processes, 16,* 75–98.

Tests 2 different models for describing mental representations of causal relations in narrative: the linear chain model and the network model. The linear model describes text units

that are adjacent in the surface structure of the text, whereas the network model describes relations between nonadjacent and adjacent text units. Three priming experiments explored how introductory psychology students represent causal relations among events in a narrative. Methodology for the 3 experiments involved the subjects reading short narratives with events that could be represented either linearly or as a network, and then receiving a speeded recognition test of their memories for story events. Recognition trials involved subjects reading a sentence prime that was general (reminding them of a story) or specific (reminding them of a particular event). Specific primes recalled either causally related or unrelated events to the subsequent target event and were either adjacent or nonadjacent to the targets in the text's surface structure. Specific primes that were causally related elicited faster positive responses than specific primes that were unrelated or general primes. This was the case when the specific prime and target were adjacent or nonadjacent in the story's surface structure. Findings for the 3 experiments supported a network model for representing causal relations in narrative.

ZWAAN, ROLF A.; MAGLIANO, JOSEPH P.; & GRAESSER, ARTHUR C. (1995, March). Dimensions of situation model construction in narrative comprehension. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition, 21*, 386–397.

Discusses 3 dimensions of situational continuity in stories (temporal, spatial, and causal) and examines whether readers simultaneously monitor more than one dimension. Subjects in 2 experiments with similar procedures were 28 undergraduate psychology students. Subjects read naturalistic, but stylistically different stories, each consisting of sufficient variability on the 3 situational variables. Sentences in each story were segregated into units that were identifiable as either temporal, spatial, or causal. The stories were presented sentence-by-sentence on a computer monitor, with reading times for each subject being recorded. After reading each story, subjects were asked to summarize what they had read. Regression analyses revealed that readers simultaneously keep track of several situational dimensions while involved in normal story reading. Argument overlap does not necessarily influence situation model construction.

VANDERVELDEN, MARGARETHA E., & SIEGEL, LINDA S. (1995, October/December). Phonological recoding and phoneme awareness in early literacy: A developmental approach. *Reading Research Quarterly, 30*, 854–875.

Reports 2 studies investigating phonological recoding and phoneme awareness in early literacy. The first study addressed the development and role of phonological recoding in beginning reading and was conducted with 108 children, ages 5 to 8. Subjects were 36 kindergarten, 36 grade 1, and 36 grade 2 pupils. Three sets of measures were used, including assessments of letter knowledge, phonological recoding (speech-to-print matching, spelling, and pseudoword reading), and reading and spelling (learning task, word reading, and spelling). Analyses to investigate developmental progression included ANOVA for between-group differences and repeated measures MANOVA for within-group differences on the various tasks. Stepwise regression analyses for the entire sample were conducted to find the best regression model for each criterion variable (the reading and spelling measures). The results indicated regular phases in phonological recoding prior to accuracy in reading simple pseudowords and a strong but changing relation between these rudimentary skills and several reading tasks. For Study 2, the original subjects were given an additional 6 measures of phoneme awareness including initial phoneme recognition, final phoneme recognition, phoneme location, phoneme recognition/location identification, sequential segmentation, and deletion and substitution. Stepwise regression analyses revealed differences in the regression models for the measures of reading, indicating a complex and changing set of relations. For example, sequential segmentation, which was included as a simple segmentation task and which measured skill along a continuum from partial to complete, entered first in regressions for the

easier measures of reading. In contrast, deletion and substitution entered first for word reading. The regression for spelling was similar to that for advanced reading.

KLIN, CELIA M. (1995, November). Causal inferences in reading: From immediate activation to long-term memory. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition, 21*, 1483–1494.

Cites 3 experiments designed to investigate the time course of drawing causal inferences. Participants in each experiment were university undergraduate students (n = 110, n = 52, and n = 48 for Experiments 1, 2, and 3, respectively). Each experiment used a different task (an on-line word-naming probe, a reading-time measure, and a recall task) to allow investigation of the entire time course of the process of drawing a causal inference. Participants read passages that contained a causal coherence break that could be resolved by reactivating a concept presented earlier in the passage. In Experiment 1, subjects named a probe word that represented the earlier mentioned cause more quickly after encountering the causal coherence break, suggesting that the causal concept had quickly been reactivated. In Experiment 2, participants were slow to read a sentence after the causal coherence break that contradicted the intended inference, indicating that the inference had been encoded and retained in working memory. In Experiment 3, the results of a recall task indicated that the causal link was also included in the long-term memory representation of text. It is concluded that the results of the 3 experiments demonstrate that there are circumstances under which a reader will reactivate background causal information when encountering a causal coherence break and will encode this information as part of the text representation.

IV–20 Comprehension research

WALCZYK, JEFFREY J. (1995, July/September). Testing a compensatory-encoding model. *Reading Research Quarterly, 30*, 396–408.

Tests a compensatory-encoding model of skilled reading that maintains that stronger linkages occur between subcomponent efficiencies, available resources, and comprehension when there is a pressured rather than a nonpressured reading performance. Adults, 175 undergraduate volunteers, were tested on a variety of subcomponent measures: lexical access, semantic memory access, verbal working memory span, contextual priming, and anaphoric resolution. Eighty-seven volunteers were assigned to a no-pressure reading condition and 88 to a reading under pressure condition. Subjects were given 6 tasks administered individually via computer in random order: (1) word-naming, in which 20 nouns of varying concreteness and familiarity were presented one at a time; (2) semantic memory access, in which the viewer was to determine if a series of 20 noun pairs presented 1 pair at a time belonged to the same semantic category; (3) contextual priming, a task to assess the extent to which context facilitates lexical access; (4) verbal working-memory span; (5) anaphor reference, a test to determine the efficiency with which subjects resolved anaphoric references; and (6) literal comprehension. In the pressure situation, readers were given a limited amount of time to read the 8 passages in the literal comprehension task. The major prediction was confirmed; none of the reading subcomponent measures were correlated with comprehension in the nonpressure reading condition, but the efficiencies of lexical access, semantic-memory access latency, and retrieval from working memory were correlated with comprehension in the reading under pressure condition.

CHAMBLISS, MARILYN J. (1995, October/December). Text cues and strategies successful readers use to construct the gist of lengthy written arguments. *Reading Research Quarterly, 30*, 778–807.

Presents 3 experiments to identify text cues and comprehension strategies used by competent readers comprehending lengthy arguments. Subjects were 80 twelfth grade advanced placement English students. Across the 3 experiments, readers were randomly assigned to 1 of 2 groups. Most readers were in a survey group where they completed paper-pencil tasks for the entire study. A small group (8 for Experiments 1 and 2 and 6 for Experiment 3) met individually with the researcher to complete think-aloud protocols. All subjects read arguments varying in argument structure, content familiarity, and argument signaling. Surveys were scored; scores were analyzed using univariate analysis procedures (ANOVA). Protocols were analyzed qualitatively. Results indicated that both text structure and signaling in introductions and conclusions consistently influenced students' responses. They used these cues to recognize the argument structure in a lengthy text, identify the claim and evidence, and construct a gist representation.

HUITEMA, JOHN S.; DOPKINS, STEPHEN; KLIN, CELIA M.; & MEYERS, JEROME L. (1993, September). Connecting goals and actions during reading. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition, 19*, 1053–1060.

Explores in a series of 3 experiments whether readers connect actions to goals. Subjects for Experiments 1, 2, and 3, respectively, were 32, 32, and 57 undergraduates participating for course credit. In each experiment, subjects read passages that contained a line that was either consistent or inconsistent with the protagonist's goal stated several lines earlier in the text. Although the paradigm used in each experiment was essentially the same, the nature of the passages used differed. With each successive experiment, intervening background material for the protagonist's goal in each passage provided more information in addition to the protagonist's consequent action. The dependent measure in each experiment was reading time for the part of the target sentence that was consistent or inconsistent with the original goal. Mean comparisons across experiments revealed that subjects were slower at reading inconsistent versions of the target line than they were at reading the consistent versions. Protagonist goals were reactivated regardless of whether the intervening material described the protagonist's actions toward the goal or whether the intervening material reported another of the protagonist's goals. The findings suggest that propositions in a sentence presently being read automatically give rise to related propositions in long term memory, even though those propositions may be unrelated to the goal.

LONG, DEBRA L., & GOLDING, JONATHAN M. (1993, January/June). Superordinate goal inferences: Are they automatically generated during comprehension? *Discourse Processes, 16*, 55–73.

Asks whether readers automatically generate superordinate goal inferences during text comprehension. Subjects were 50 introductory psychology students. Participants read short narratives that, with related prompts, could elicit superordinate and subordinate goal inferences at specific junctures (experimental condition) and with unrelated prompts (control condition). The narratives were read one word at a time on a computer monitor at 250 ms presentation rate. Sentences describing an action in the passage were followed by a test word from either a superordinate or subordinate goal inference. Sentences describing events or states in the story were followed by nonwords. Test words from superordinate and subordinate goal inferences appeared in either their inference context or in one of the unrelated stories. Superordinate and subordinate goal inference words were counterbalanced across two versions of the program. The final word of each sentence appeared with a period and was followed by a lexical decision test item. The test item was a letter string that was either a word or a nonword. Subjects' task was to indicate which. The lexical decision task was followed by a paper and pencil comprehension test and a question assessing perceived difficulty in reading at the 250 ms presentation rate.

ANOVA procedures applied to the data revealed that good comprehenders exhibited shorter response latencies for superordinate goal inferences in comparison to subordinate goal inferences. Poor comprehenders exhibited no reliable differences in their latencies.

WOOD, EILEEN; WINNE, PHILIP H.; & CARNEY, P. ANNE. (1995, December). Evaluating the effects of training high school students to use summarization when training includes analogically similar information. *Journal of Reading Behavior, 27*, 605–626.

Investigates the effectiveness of training high school students to summarize texts. Subjects, 77 11th and 12th graders, ages 16 to 19 years, were drawn from 5 English classrooms in one Canadian secondary school. Some students were provided with elaborated text, and others were given condensed text to test whether the amount of detail in the materials studied affected overall contents of summaries. A control condition received no training. Texts were similar in content and format for the first topic but varied in presenting directly transferable information in the second. Students completed free recalls followed by written summaries and a battery of cued and free performance measures. Training, study, and testing were conducted over 3 consecutive days. Summaries were scored for use of summarizing rules and for the quality of the information recalled. Training materials did not differentially affect summarization skills between the 2 training groups. Means for the content transferable and content nontransferable groups were not statistically different, but both were greater than for the untrained group. Results suggest that students can become more systematic in their construction of summaries when given explicit instruction. Structural differences in the passages were not governing factors for use of summarizing rules or for amount of recall. Measures of achievement, administered a day after reading and summarizing and minutes after studying summaries, indicated no reliable effects due to training or to passage version. Untrained groups reading the condensed version answered questions as well as groups trained to summarize who read the elaborated text. Trained subjects had no edge over untrained on transferable materials. Overall, students experienced some benefit from summarization instruction.

LONG, DEBRA L.; GOLDING, JONATHAN M.; & GRAESSER, ARTHUR C. (1992, October). A test of the on-line status of goal-related inferences. *Journal of Memory and Language, 31*, 634–647.

Presents 3 experiments investigating question-answer procedures and online status measures of 2 types of goal-related inferences, superordinate goal inferences and subordinate goal inferences, to test the prediction that superordinate goal inferences are more likely to be generated during comprehension than are subordinate goal inferences. Subjects were introductory psychology students in 2 universities. In Experiment 1, using a lexical decision task, superordinate goal inferences were encoded online as part of the reader's text representation. Decision latencies to words from superordinate goal inferences were faster than were decision latencies to words from subordinate goal inferences in the inference but not in the unrelated context. Experiment 2 investigated whether lexical decision results can be attributed to the influence of the context on postaccess processes. Findings were replicated with a word naming task, suggesting that results from Experiment 1 were not due to context checking. Experiment 3 determined the extent to which findings from Experiments 1 and 2 might be influenced by semantic associations. Materials were the same as in the previous experiments; however, the content words were scrambled to present an incoherent representation of the text. Latencies did not reliably differ in either the inference or the unrelated context. Overall, the patterns of results appear consistent with a global-coherence model of inference generation, with the reader providing causal connections to link episodes within texts. Combining question-answer procedures and online measures of inference generation appears to be a useful strategy for investigating inference generation.

KOCH, ADINA, & ECKSTEIN, SHULAMITH G. (1995, August). Skills needed for reading comprehension of physics texts and their relation to problem-solving ability. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching, 32*, 613–628.

Reports an investigation of skills needed for the critical reading of physics texts, including the identification of necessary reading comprehension skills, the separability and hierarchical ranking of these skills, and their relations to problem solving ability. Subjects, 35 students in a technological junior college in Israel who were divided into 4 ability levels according to grades in first semester physics, read basic physics text and 2 added passages containing statements about the basic text, which students were to label as true, false, or unreported. The researcher-developed test required students to use their skills separately; to identify segments of different type, true, false, and unreported; and to apply their skills to a continuous passage. Scores were compared to scores on a different version of the same test where items were identical but presented in separated list form. Scores in the continuous format were lower than scores in the separated format. Scores for the unreported items were lower than those for the false or true items. There was considerable variability in the scores, with highest variability in the unreported items and on the continuous format. The researchers conclude that the corresponding skills are separable, that the ability to separate and identify segment type in a continuous passage is a higher level than identifying statement type in a separated list, that the continuous passage is a higher level than identifying statement type in a separated list, that the continuous format is responsible for the difference in scores between true and false items, and that reading comprehension skills are separable from problem solving skills.

FAULKNER, HEATHER J., & LEVY, BETTY ANN. (1994, August). How text difficulty and reader skill interact to produce differential reliance on word and content overlap in reading transfer. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology, 58*, 1–24.

Designs 4 experiments to examine the factors that influence across-text transfer for children. The experiments were conducted with good and poor readers (identified using the WRAT-R) at grade levels 2, 3, 4, and 6. Participants read 2 texts in 4 different conditions defined by the degree of relation between the texts. The first texts were related to the second either by overlap in words only, in content only, in words and content, or in neither words nor content. The dependent variable, transfer, was indicated by increases in the reading speed and accuracy of the second text. ANOVA procedures were applied to analyze differences in reading times. Results indicated that the extent to which readers benefited from word or content overlap depended on the interaction of reader skill with text difficulty. Children who read texts that were easy for them showed transfer only when a pair of stories shared content. However, when children read stories that were difficult for them, they also showed transfer when words alone were shared by the pair of stories.

LEA, R. BROOKE. (1995, November). On-line evidence for elaborative logical inferences in text. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition, 21*, 1469–1482.

Designs 4 experiments to discover when and under what circumstances model inferences are drawn in text comprehension. Each experiment was conducted with undergraduate psychology students. Participants read stories in which logical inference was not necessary to maintain textual coherence, and inference making was assessed with online probes. Two experiments tested logical forms central to a model of propositional-logic reasoning; both indicated that participants were making the logical inferences. Two further experiments replicated these results with stories that did not begin with thematic titles.

CARR, SONYA C., & THOMPSON, BRUCE. (1996, Winter). The effects of prior knowledge and schema activation strategies on the inferential reading comprehension of children with and without learning disabilities. *Learning Disability Quarterly, 19*, 48–61.

Compares the reading comprehension abilities of LD pupils with those of both their age peers and their reading-level peers. The subjects were 16 LD seventh and eighth graders, and 16 non-LD age peers (NLD), and 16 non-LD, reading-level peers who were fifth graders. The 16 reading passages used were taken from the Inferential Reading Comprehension Test and included 8 passages of familiar content and 8 of unfamiliar content. All were written at a fourth grade readability level and included 5 passage-dependent questions measuring inferential comprehension. The summed scores for the 2 passage types were the 2 dependent variables. Pupils were assigned randomly to subject- or experimenter-activation of prior knowledge conditions, but all subjects participated in both of the prior knowledge activation conditions. In the experimenter-activation condition, subjects were asked specific questions to activate prior knowledge. In the subject-activated condition, no questions were asked. MANOVA was used to determine whether there was a difference in inferential comprehension performance of the LD group compared to their NLD age- and NLD reading-level peers. MANOVA was also used to determine whether the 3 groups of subjects performed equally well on inferential comprehension scores within subject- and experimenter-activated conditions and on both familiar and unfamiliar passages. Results revealed that all groups benefited from experimenter activation of prior knowledge, but these benefits were most noteworthy for LD pupils and when passage topics were unfamiliar. The LD subjects performed similarly to their reading-level peers as opposed to their age peers.

WHITNEY, PAUL; RITCHIE, BILL G.; & CRANE, ROBERT S. (1992, July). The effect of foregrounding on readers' use of predictive inferences. *Memory & Cognition, 20*, 424–432.

Extends previous attempts to determine whether subjects make predictive inferences during comprehension. Participants were undergraduate university students. In Experiment 1, a word-stem completion task was used to test for predictive inferences. The word stems were formed from target inferences that followed either priming or control passages. The data revealed that predictive inferences were generated only about concepts that were foregrounded in the passages. In Experiments 2 and 3, lexical decision and naming were used to test for predictive inferences. The lexical decision data replicated the word-stem completion data. A control experiment ruled out a simple context-checking explanation for the lexical decision results. The naming data indicated that this task was not sensitive to elaborative inference generation. The results showed that readers made predictive inferences, but did so selectively.

IV–21 Research design

CUNNINGHAM, JAMES W., & FITZGERALD, JILL. (1996, January/March). Epistemology and reading. *Reading Research Quarterly, 31*, 36–60.

Investigates the epistemology of reading theory, practice, and research and notes how knowing about epistemological stances can aid in understanding outlooks on reading. Epistemology is the branch of philosophy that focuses on what knowledge is, where it is located, and how it increases. The article begins with a discussion of 7 main issues in epistemology posed in the form of 7 questions. Taken as a group, the 7 issues form a multivariate continuum with the major theories of knowledge of the past and present lying along the continuum. This multivariate continuum is then divided into 5 clusters of epistemology: positivism/radical empiricism, hypothetico-deductivism/formalism, realism/essentialism, struc-

turalism/contextualism, and poststructuralism/postmodernism. An orienting overview of each of the 5 clusters is given followed by a brief summary of that cluster's modal stance on each of the 7 issues. The 7 issues and 5 clusters are then used to explore the epistemological underpinnings of 2 theoretical views of the reading process: an interactive view and a transactional view. The authors demonstrate that a richer, deeper understanding of the 2 views are gained by the application of epistemology in analyzing them. In addition, a basis for evaluating the internal consistency or coherence of each view is built. Three additional means by which epistemology might be useful are discussed: (1) helping professionals discern their own or others' epistemological stances on specific reading issues or sets of issues, (2) linking theory with practice by pointing out educational implications of particular views of the reading process, and (3) illuminating reading research from particular views of the reading process.

V. The teaching of reading

V–1 Comparative studies

ALLEN, DIANE D., & FRERICHS, DEAN. (1996). A historical examination of one university reading clinic: Implications for others. *Journal of Clinical Reading*, 5, 32–43

Presents a case history of one university clinic from 1971–1988, which identifies trends in reasons for clients referred, tests administered, and recommendations made. Data included 517 client files that were analyzed by assessment year, client age, and client gender. Data were tabulated and reported as percentages. Results revealed that most children were referred to this clinic for poor school work in general; the second largest percentage of children referred was due to poor behavior in the classroom. Age differences included a larger percentage of 6- to 10-year-old pupils being brought to the clinic because of their behavior at school or their poor word identification skills. Students age 16 years and older were referred for difficulties in comprehension and reading rate. No differences in reasons for referrals were observed for males and females. In the tests administered, it was found that in the 1970s skills-oriented tests were administered to a large percentage of clients. In the 1980s the use of informal inventories increased. There were no differences in tests administered to clients on the basis of age or gender. The recommendations suggested appeared to follow the trend in reading instruction over the period studied, that is, from an emphasis on discrete skills to an emphasis on meaning. In the 1980s there was less emphasis on word identification training and more emphasis on comprehension strategies. Recommendations also increased for recreational reading and for more emphasis on writing. Younger children, ages 6 to 10, were encouraged to obtain assistance with the development of word identification skills and fluency in reading. Instruction in study skills was recommended more often for older readers. More females were referred for tutoring and for training in word identification skills, whereas more males were referred for special placement.

MARTIN, MICHAEL O., & MORGAN, MARK. (1994). Reading literacy in Irish schools. *The Irish Journal of Education, 28*, 5–101.

Offers an overview of a 1990–1991 reading literacy study that was performed in 32 worldwide educational systems under the direction of the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA). The results of the study are summarized, and earlier related research conducted in Ireland is reviewed. The report is presented in 7 chapters. The methodology of the IEA study appears in Chapter 2. Two target populations were involved:

(1) all pupils in the grade level where most 9-year-olds were to be found, and (2) all students attending in the grade level where most 14-year-olds were to be found. In Ireland, data were obtained from 9-year-olds at 122 schools and 14-year-olds at 151 schools. Three literacy areas were assessed: narrative text, expository text, and documents. Additionally, information was collected on aspects of teachers' reading and on descriptive information from teachers; a school questionnaire was completed by the principal; and a national case study questionnaire was used to gather information on economic, educational, political, and cultural concerns. Chapter 3 gives the data on the Irish children's reading performance. In overall literacy, Irish 9-year-olds ranked 12 among 27 countries listed. Among the 31 countries participating in testing 14-year-olds, Irish students' overall literacy mean rank was 20. Chapters 4–6 examine major influences on reading, and a final chapter delineates some policy implications.

ILES, MAGGIE. (1995, July). First I have to read it in my head: A survey of reading in KS1 and KS2, in Kirklees LEA. *Reading*, *29*, 34–37.

Summarizes an evaluation survey of the Kirklees Local Education Authority (LEA) in West Yorkshire, United Kingdom. This LEA included urban settings, urban fringe, suburban estates with a range of social conditions (affluent to disadvantaged), semirural settings, and rural settings. The schools surveyed (n = 27) varied in size. Seven evaluation questions focused the survey; data were collected via presurvey questionnaires, observations and interviews of teachers and children conducted by paired inspectors, and pupil testing conducted by psychologists. Reading instruction was found to be a priority. Findings and recommendations related to policy and planning, standardized testing, approaches for children with special educational needs, parental involvement, teacher preparation, use of libraries, reading skill (decoding, accuracy, fluency, and expression), reading performance of bilingual pupils, and phonics instruction. The report confirmed that 82% of the readers interviewed read with average or better accuracy and scored similarly in fluency. Of these, 25% were considered excellent. In the areas of higher order reading skills and in the development of critical approaches to text, pupils scored less well. Bilingual learners achieved as well as their English-speaking peers in all areas except the development of critical literacy. It was noted that pupils tended to under-apply phonological knowledge as an aid to decoding unfamiliar or difficult words. The use of context or pictures was the first word analysis strategy of 51% of the readers.

TØNNESSEN, FINN EGIL. (1995, November). Literacy in Norway. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, *39*, 244–246.

Reports the first major literacy study Norway has participated in. It sought to determine how well and how often 9- and 14-year-olds read. Thirty-two countries representing a variety of languages participated. Both Norwegian age groups scored above the international average. Much disparity was found in the scores of the younger group, perhaps due to teachers' attitude and interest in reading. Before this time there were no national standardized tests in reading and writing in Norway, where there are two different official systems of writing, one devised 150 years ago for a rural society and one developed in this century for city schools. They are much alike but have differences in spelling and vocabulary.

U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. (1994). *Reading literacy in the United States* (Technical Report). Washington, D.C.

Details the U.S. portion of the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) 1991 Reading Literacy Study. The U.S. portion of the study (32 countries were involved) was directed by the National Center for Educational Statistics. The report contains information on sample design, data collection, and data analysis in the U.S. Presented also is a discussion of the instrument development. The U.S. sample consist-

ed of about 200 schools at each of grade levels 4 and 9 and involved 11,000 students, 470 teachers, and 332 principals. This report describes and discusses how the study was carried out in the U.S. and how the national data analyses were conducted. Other reports give additional information. Part I of the report focuses on the field operations and includes detailed descriptions of the sample design, enlistment procedures, response rates, data collection, and preparation of the data files. Part II focuses on the instrumentation, and Part III focuses on the analysis in the United States.

KING, CARYN M.; JAMPOLE, ELLEN SIMPSON; & BERRY, GERALDINE Y. (1995). The freedom to teach: A glimpse of schooling and reading instruction in today's Russia. In Wayne M. Linek & Elizabeth G. Sturtevant (Eds.), *Generations of literacy* (pp. 59–68). Harrisonburg, VA: College Reading Association.

Shares the experiences of one group of North American educators who observed in 8 schools and 18 Russian elementary classrooms in St. Petersburg and Moscow during 1993. Descriptions highlight the consistency and change in the Russian educational system, Russian methods for teaching beginning reading, and the implications of perestroika as viewed by Russian educators..

ALLINGTON, RICHARD; GUICE, SHERRY; BAKER, KIM; MICHAELSON, NANCY; & LI, SHOUMING. (1995, Spring). Access to books: Variations in schools and classrooms. *The Language and Literacy Spectrum, 5*, 23–25.

Shares data from 12 elementary schools, 6 in districts serving many low-income children and 6 in districts that enrolled few low-income children, to determine pupil access to books. Differences were found in number of books per child, in number of magazine subscriptions, in size of classroom libraries, and in district policies toward monies spent for materials. Largest classroom collections were found where classroom teachers reported purchasing books in addition to books purchased with district-allocated funds. School library access was also limited in schools serving low-income children, with several limiting the number of books children could check out from the library or barring pupils from taking books from the building. The researchers conclude that many schools had inadequate, dated collections that did not meet minimal standards set by the American Library Association. They provided children with fewer opportunities to visit the library and placed greater restrictions on access to books. Smaller classroom libraries were common to schools serving low-income children. More support for school and classroom library collections is needed if children are to become better readers.

V–2 Status of reading instruction

TOPPING, KEITH, & WOLFENDALE, SHEILA. (1995, November). The effectiveness of family literacy programmes. *Reading, 29*, 26–33.

Describes some goals of family literacy programs as well as some findings and implications from family literacy research and evaluation studies. Studies reviewed include those in which parents listened to their children read, those in which parents read to their children, and those in which tutoring was a part of the program. Some of the studies reached beyond literacy in their scope and effects. A few also considered parents' improved literacy. Although the evaluation research on parental involvement in reading is generally positive, the picture for family literacy is still incomplete. Evaluative evidence is varied in quality and quantity. The reviewer suggests that issues of generalization and maintenance, as well as cost-effectiveness, will be critical to future programs. Further, it is important that those working in family litera-

cy share the same definitions and the same understandings of appropriate evaluative criteria. Better methods of tutoring for parents need to be developed, in particular those which are both widely acceptable and likely to conform with most home cultures. In addition, the reviewer argues for better research designs and more meaningful evaluations that are integrated into the major programs. Research is also needed that will distinguish the kinds of family literacy programs that work best for particular participants.

POULSON, LOUISE; BENNETT, NEVILLE; MACLEOD, FLORA; & WRAY, DAVID. (1995, November). Schools as partners in the family literacy small grants initiative. *Reading, 29*, 18–22.

Reports an evaluation undertaken to determine the success of a small grants program for family literacy sponsored by the Basic Skills Agency in the United Kingdom. The small grants program is part of the agency's 4-year developmental initiative in family literacy which funds local initiatives based on partnerships between different agencies that include schools, libraries, social services, and charities. A key element of the programs was the presence of some work with adults ouly, children only, and adult-child joint sessions. A related purpose of the evaluation was to identify factors or principles operating within successful programs that could be transferred across contexts. Twenty sample programs were selected that reflected the full extent of the programs' settings, target populations, agents, and management. Observations were made of parent, child, and joint sessions. Participants, course providers, and administrators were interviewed. Documents were collected related to publicity, recruitment, attendance, course planning and evaluation, and accreditation of participants' learning. Preliminary findings described ways in which agencies and school professionals were learning to work together; for example, adult basic educators and early childhood specialists who collaborated in school sessions with parents and children. Parents were found to be in school both as learners and as partners with teachers in the education of their children. However, parents sometimes felt confused about their roles in children's literacy learning; similarly, school personnel suggested they failed to serve parents' needs as well as children's needs. There was evidence that some parents, encouraged by the family literacy program, were seeking additional adult basic education opportunities.

ROBERTSON, CHRIS; KEATING, IRIS; SHENTON, LESLEY; & ROBERTS, IVY. (1996, February). Uninterrupted, sustained, silent reading: The rhetoric and the practice. *Journal of Research in Reading, 19*, 25–35.

Surveys the practice of uninterrupted, sustained silent reading (USSR) in primary classrooms in 9 primary schools in 3 counties in England. The sample included both urban and rural schools. Structured interviews were conducted with both the headteacher and two staff members in each school, focusing on the rationale, classroom procedures and materials, and the reactions of parents, pupils, and teachers relative to USSR. Interviews were followed by classroom observations to determine what teachers do in practice. Teachers and headmasters differed in their perceptions of how long USSR had been instituted in their schools. Teachers differed in interpretations of their role during USSR. A majority of respondents cited giving reading a high profile as a rationale for USSR; only one respondent (a headteacher) cited research. From both interviews and observations it was evident that teachers' interpretations of how sessions should be organized and managed was not drawn specifically from the professional literature, with only one school closely following the prescribed model. Although the value of a quiet reading time was generally acknowledged and much evidence of practice observed in sessions, it appeared that interpretations of USSR were governed by teacher preference or pupil need.

DEGROFF, LINDA; STANULIS, RANDI; COMMEYRAS, MICHELLE; & HANKINS, KAREN HALE. (1996, Winter/Spring). Getting to know about our ways of knowing: A preliminary report from a national survey. *Georgia Journal of Reading, 21,* 10–14.

Presents plans for a study and information from 31 interviews at professional meetings about how literacy professionals' practices and policies help children become literate. Three methods of data collection will be used: a questionnaire to be distributed to a national sample of 6,000 literacy professionals, interviews with a smaller sampling, and an interactive focus group session at the International Reading Association Annual Convention. Data from a pilot study of the questionnaire and the interviews are reported. Brief analyses from 5 interviewers are presented under 2 major headings: (1) Why literacy professionals chose to make changes, and (2) How literacy professionals made changes. Under the first heading, changes were reported as being made because a teacher was bored with or saw students failing with current practice. Changes were made by attending workshops or conferences, experimenting with new methods, and observing in other classrooms.

V–3 Emergent literacy

AYRES, LINDA R. (1995, October/December). The efficacy of three training conditions on phonological awareness of kindergarten children and the longitudinal effect of each on later reading acquisition. *Reading Research Quarterly, 30,* 604–606.

Compares the effects of 3 approaches to developing phonological awareness in readers within their kindergarten class environments. Participants were 3 teachers and 113 kindergarten children. The children received phonological awareness training in 1 of 3 conditions, each of which was integrated with a literature-based activity. The 3 conditions respectively involved phonological awareness training through: (1) direct instruction, (2) indirect instruction, and (3) a combination of direct and indirect instruction. A control group received no specific instructions in phonological awareness. Teachers of each treatment group followed specified lesson plans provided for each day of the 10-week intervention program. Multiple regression, correlation, and planned-comparison techniques applied to the data indicated that, in comparison to the control group, groups receiving training were more advanced in phonological awareness. Direct instruction was more beneficial than indirect instruction. However, direct instruction emerging from indirect instruction during the second part of the school year was most effective in increasing children's opportunities for reading success.

GOLDENBERG, LESLIE K. (1996, Spring). Parental beliefs in promoting emergent literacy for children with and without disabilities. *The Language and Literacy Spectrum, 6,* 52–57.

Presents findings related to the literacy beliefs and practices of parents who have preschool age children with and without disabilities. The report is part of a larger unpublished study. The data are based on the results of a survey mailed to 269 parents in two preschool programs. Both programs provided services to children with disabilities. Of the surveys distributed, 125 were returned; 24% were from parents of children who had no disability, 46% were from parents of children with a single disability in the area of speech/language development, and 30% were from parents of children with multiple disabilities. The survey used a Likert scale with 13 statements. No overall mean ratings were found between the literacy beliefs of parents of children with disabilities and those of parents of children without. However 4 individual statements showed statistically significant differences. Parents of children with disabilities believed more strongly than other parents that they should always read a book aloud from cover to cover, and that they should begin to read aloud to their children af-

ter the age of 3. Parents of nondisabled children had a higher mean rating than parents of children with disabilities on reading aloud daily to their children and on selecting books to read that are above the child's age level.

RASINSKI, TIMOTHY V. (1995). Fast start: A parental involvement reading program for primary grade students. In Wayne M. Linek & Elizabeth G. Sturtevant (Eds.), *Generations of literacy* (pp. 301–312). Harrisonburg, VA: College Reading Association.

Reports on a preliminary study of Fast Start, a parent involvement-intervention program for primary grade children. Subjects in the informal pilot study were children who were receiving corrective reading instruction at a university reading clinic. The program was designed to help children be successful in school through intensive and systematic parental involvement coordinated with the school. In the program, parents and children read a brief, highly predictable and interesting text each day. Repeated readings involved parents reading to their children, paired reading, and the children reading on their own. After the text had been read, parents and their children engaged in word exploration activities. Parents were given specific training on the Fast Start method during a 90-minute explanation and demonstration session. Follow-up training was offered through individual consultations in person or by telephone. At the beginning of the month, children took home a packet of texts, a newsletter providing additional information on the program and ideas for family extensions and activities, and a monthly log sheet for the parents to record their daily participation. Early results indicated that the program had positive effects on word recognition, fluency, and overall reading proficiency. Children who were part of the group receiving the Fast Start supplementary instruction had substantially greater improvement in reading than those who were not involved in the program. The level of growth in reading was positively and significantly correlated with the degree of parental involvement in the program.

SHAPIRO, JON. (1995). Home literacy environment and young children's literacy knowledge and behavior. In Wayne M. Linek & Elizabeth G. Sturtevant (Eds.), *Generations of literacy* (pp. 287–300). Harrisonburg, VA: College Reading Association.

Reports a 5-year longitudinal study on the home literacy environments of preschool children. The original cohort was 60 3- and 4-year-old children attending a university child study center. A total of 45 children from the original group were tracked through grade 2. The preschool experience of these children did not include any formal instruction in reading or reading-related skills. Children were read to on a daily basis and were free to explore books during the day (2.5 hours). Over the preschool years, children were administered various metaliterate measures including the: (1) Concepts of Print (COP) Test, (2) Linguistic Awareness in Reading Readiness Test, (3) Lipa Logo Test, (4) Mow-Motorcycle Test, (5) Identification of Written Language Test, and (6) Story Retelling Task. Children were also administered standarized reading measures in the spring of grades 1 and 2. An 18-item parent questionnaire was administered to elicit information regarding the home literacy environment. Pearson Product Moment correlation coefficients were computed between the Home Literacy Environment Index and all other measures during the first 2 years of the study. For the youngest preschool children, the home literacy environment was found to be related to the COP scores. For older preschoolers, the literacy environment was somewhat related to their abilities to identify environmental print and to map a spoken word to its orthographic representation. With this group, a stronger relation was seen between the home literacy environment and the children's understandings of the functions of literacy. Higher level home literacy 4-year-olds tended to display more literacy knowledge than did lower home literacy children. This, however, was not the case for the 3-year-olds. When a conservative test using scores derived from fac-

tor analyses was employed, the relation between home literacy environment and children's emerging awareness of literacy weakened.

CRONAN, TERRY A., & WALEN, HEATHER R. (1995, Fall). The development of Project PRIMER: A community-based literacy program. *Reading Research and Instruction, 35*, 37–47.

Outlines the development and implementation of Project PRIMER (PRoducing Infant/Mother Ethnic Readers), designed to encourage low-income parents to read to their children. Participants in the program were 147 families assigned to 1 of 3 groups. In the high-intervention group, (over 18 sessions), 15 college students taught mothers of Head Start children effective methods to use while reading to their young children. Each college student was required to make a 1-year commitment, complete eight weeks of readings and lectures, attend 2-hour weekly class meetings, and have lessons videotaped and reviewed by supervisors and peers. Other students were trained as evaluators and behavioral coders. The intervention lesson included modeled reading in an age-appropriate book, which was left for the family along with the teaching of an abstract concept and a song. Four library visits were also scheduled. Participants in the low-intervention group received only 3 visits. A comparison group participated only in assessments. Results indicated that parents in the high-intervention group were more likely to read to their children, to read for a longer period, and to use a library more frequently than parents in the other groups. Parents in both high- and low-intervention groups were more likely to read to their children at the postintervention than at the initial assessment; however, parents in the high-intervention group reported more changes from pre- to postassessments. Children in the high-intervention group showed improvements in their cognitive development, indicating that parents engaged in the targeted behaviors.

BUS, ADRIANA G.; VAN IJZENDOORN, MARINUS H.; & PELLEGRINI, ANTHONY D. (1995, Spring). Joint book reading makes for success in learning to read: A meta-analysis on intergenerational transmission of literacy. *Review of Educational Research, 65*, 1–21.

Reviews the research related to parent-preschooler reading and language growth, emergent literacy, and reading achievement. Thirty-three studies of this issue were selected and quantitatively meta-analyzed. The authors focused on the frequency of book reading to preschoolers. Results indicated that reading books to children accounted for 8% of the variance in the outcome measures. It is felt that joint reading affects the development of knowledge required for success in emergent literacy and influences the acquisition of the written language register and reading achievement in early schooling. The publication year of the studies and the children's age at the time of the literacy skills measurement explain some of the variation of the effect sizes. Effects were greater in earlier studies and investigations on younger age samples than similar studies in recent publications and investigations with older age samples. The socioeconomic status of the family did not influence joint book reading. The facilitating effect of joint book reading in early acquisition of reading skills becomes smaller as children progress to more advanced reading stages.

V–4 Teaching reading—primary grades

FOORMAN, BARBARA R. (1995). Research on "The Great Debate": Code-oriented versus whole language approaches to reading instruction. *School Psychology Review, 24*(3), 376–392.

Attempts to resolve the continuing controversy over code emphasis versus meaning emphasis in beginning reading instruction by reviewing selected research. It is argued that

the development of literacy in not a natural act as is learning to speak one's native tongue, but that training plays a larger role in the learning of literacy process than it does with spoken language, which has a large biological contribution. Context, it is claimed, is not a panacea for constructing meaning out of words and sentences; rather, automaticity of decoding skill is the panacea. Research and opinion are presented supporting the use of direct instruction in alphabetic coding for both reading and writing. The author concludes that empirical evidence favors explicit instruction in alphabetic coding in beginning reading instruction.

KORKEMÄKI, RIITTA-LIISA, & DREHER, MARIAM JEAN. (1996, March). Trying something new: Meaning-based reading instruction in a Finnish first-grade classroom. *Journal of Literacy Research, 28*, 9–34.

Investigates Finnish children's progress in reading under a story-based reading instruction program implemented in first grade. The typical approach to reading instruction in Finland is described as one based on a visual and auditory readiness perspective and synthetic phonics instruction. The experimental program was based on emergent literacy research and utilized the reading of predictable books and purposeful reading and writing, along with attention to letter-sound correspondences in context. Field notes and videotapes were used in tracking pupils' reading strategies over time. Participants were nine 6- and 7-year-old first graders in a classroom of a university training school. The study took place from late August through February of the first grade. Prior to the beginning of formal instruction, children were tested on various emergent literacy concepts, including phonological awareness, word recognition, knowledge of environmental print in context and out of context, and letter naming and writing. Retesting on letter and word recognition occurred about a month after the beginning of the intervention period. Videotaping of children reading familiar and unfamiliar books began after a month of instruction and occurred at one-month intervals thereafter. Classifications of reading behavior were identified from transcriptions of the videotapes. At pretest time, children exhibited a high level of letter knowledge. Early fall readings were done primarily from memory. By February, children had learned to decode, enabling them to read unfamiliar words; sight word vocabulary had increased also. All children had attained the alphabetic phase of reading development. There was greater fluency as well as the use of more flexible strategies, and children had learned to use both graphic and contextual information.

BOND, CAROLE L.; ROSS, STEVEN M.; SMITH, LANA J.; & NUNNERY, JOHN A. (1995–96). The effects of the Sing, Spell, Read and Write program on reading achievement of beginning readers. *Reading Research and Instruction, 35*(2), 122–141.

Compares the effectiveness of Sing, Spell, Read and Write (SSRW), a program designed for teaching reading, writing, spelling, and speaking in kindergarten through grade 3, with a district adopted basal reading program. SSRW promotes a strong phonics orientation. Eight randomly selected schools in a large metropolitan school district teaching SSRW were divided into 3 strata (high, middle, and low) on the basis of socioeconomic status and were matched at the school and class level with 9 comparison schools, using socioeconomic status, racial makeup, and standardized achievement scores. Comparison of reading, writing, and spelling scores indicated that SSRW was somewhat more effective than the traditional (basal) curriculum for teaching word attack and letter-word identification, especially for pupils in low-stratum schools. For more complex language skills such as writing and oral reading comprehension, SSRW was not more effective than the conventional curriculum. Overall, the attitude of pupils who participated in SSRW was positive. Survey and interview data collected from 21 teachers showed overwhelming enthusiasm for the program.

MOSKAL, MARY KAY. (1995, Summer). The first grade interim progress report: Student self-assessment as a report card. *Illinois Reading Council Journal, 23*, 45–50.

Describes the use of self-assessment by first grade pupils designed to replace one interim report card for parents. The report consisted of pupils' written responses to 5 open-ended questions focused on their performance in reading and math. To support the children in answering the questions, teachers took groups of 4 or 5 through the steps of brainstorming, sharing, and writing. After all reports had been written, the teachers interviewed each pupil individually and wrote comments for the report based on the interview. Parents were prepared to receive these reports by being informed at open house nights, parent-teacher conferences, and with the progress report itself, of the philosophy and research supporting pupil self-assessment. The positive responses of teachers, administrators, and parents were shared.

McCarthy, Patricia; Newby, Robert F.; & Recht, Donna R. (1995, Summer). Results of an early intervention program for first grade children at risk for reading disability. *Reading Research and Instruction, 34*, 273–294.

Reports the results of a longitudinal study of the effects of an early intervention program on reading performance at the end of grades 1 and 3. The subjects were 38 first grade pupils with low-emergent reading skills, 19 from each of 2 elementary schools in the same suburban school district. The groups from the 2 different schools were matched as pairs on age, receptive vocabulary skill (PPVT-R), measures of early reading abilities, and teacher ratings of emergent reading skills. Pupils from one school participated in an early intervention program (EIP) designed by the researchers from available information on Reading Recovery. These pupils received a median of 58, 30-minute daily, one-to-one tutoring sessions during either the fall or spring semester of first grade. Instruction focused on word recognition, phonetic application, and comprehension in context. Pupils from the second school received no extra intervention. All subjects were pre- and posttested in first grade and retested in third grade. Also tested in third grade was a group of 17 average third grade readers identified using teacher recommendations and total reading scores from the ITBS. Reading assessment measures administered in first grade included the Clay's Observation Survey, a list of 25 primer level words, and 3 story selections at preprimer and first grade reading levels. These stories were used to secure an oral reading speed score, an oral reading accuracy score, a free recall reading comprehension score, and a reading comprehension score. Follow-up measures administered to all subjects in third grade were drawn from the Qualitative Reading Inventory and included the Graded Word Lists, Oral Reading Speed in Context (passages at third and fourth grade levels), Oral Reading Accuracy, Free Recall Reading Comprehension, and Reading Comprehension Questions. ANCOVA and ANOVA analyses were completed separately on data secured in first and third grades. The EIP pupils' word recognition in isolation and in context, reading speed, and comprehension were superior to those of the matched controls at the completion of tutoring at the end of first grade and third grade. At grade 3, the EIP group was equivalent to a group of average reading classmates on word recognition in context, oral reading accuracy, and answering comprehension questions, but not on word recognition in isolation or on reading speed.

Ross, Steven M.; Smith, Lana J.; Casey, Jason; & Slavin, Robert E. (1995, Winter). Increasing the academic success of disadvantaged children: An examination of alternative early intervention programs. *American Educational Research Journal, 32*, 773–800.

Examines the relative strengths and weaknesses of the Reading Recovery (RR) and the Success for All (SFA) programs for preventing school failure. Compared with regard to the two programs were their (a) cost effectiveness, (b) impact on children's literacy skills, and (c) acceptance by and influence on administrators, teachers, and parents. Data collected consisted of interviews and surveys from teachers, program coordinators, and tutors, as well as pre- and

posttest measures administered to participating pupils. Findings of a variety of analyses showed RR to provide significant benefits to tutored pupils, particularly in the area of reading comprehension. SFA provided greater benefits to special educators and tutored children, especially in the area of word attack. School climate was more favorable toward the SFA program.

GOSS, MARGARET. (1996, Spring). To recover or not to recover...Is that the question? A reflection on Reading Recovery. *The California Reader, 29*, 21–22.

Examines the cost effectiveness of the Reading Recovery (RR) Program in a California school district wherein 25 RR teachers had been trained. Analysis of documentation on children who had participated in the one-on-one 10- to 15-week program indicated that all made substantial progress within that time period, although a few progressed at a slower rate than expected. Observations of trained RR teachers in whole classroom settings showed that the nature of their classroom instructional interaction with pupils had been positively influenced. Trained teachers seemed to easily implement the RR teaching strategies with children in their classroom on a daily basis throughout the year.

PHILLIPS, LINDA M.; NORRIS, STEPHEN P.; & MASON, JANA M. (1996, March). Longitudinal effects of early literacy concepts on reading achievement: A kindergarten intervention and five-year follow-up. *Journal of Literacy Research, 28*, 173–195.

Examines the effectiveness of a kindergarten literacy intervention program on children who were at risk of school failure and compares the effectiveness of the intervention used at home, at school, and at home and at school with each other and with a control group. Children were followed through fourth grade. Four Canadian schools from each of 3 types of groupings (rural village, rural collector, and urban) were selected randomly and assigned randomly to a control group or to one of the three treatment groups. In total there were 18 kindergartens from 12 schools with 325 children. At the beginning of kindergarten year, a parent questionnaire and three pretests were administered: the Metropolitan Reading Readiness Test–Level 1, the Circus Listen to the Story Test–Level A, and the Early Literacy Concepts Test–Level 1. Alternate forms of the same measures were given at the end of the kindergarten year. At the end of grades 1 and 2, appropriate levels of the story-reading ability section of the National Achievement Test (NAT) were administered. At the end of grades 3 and 4, the reading comprehension sections of the appropriate forms of the Canadian Tests of Basic Skills (CTBS) were given. All teachers used the same language program. Intervention materials consisted of 24 booklets, one per week, used (1) at home by parents for 10 to 15 minutes a night, (2) both at home and at school for 10 to 15 minutes a day, or (3) at school only. The control group received the authorized language program only. No additional intervention was given in the following grades. At the end of grades 1 and 2, all 3 intervention treatments showed a significant positive effect on reading achievement on the NAT. At the end of grades 3 and 4, only the school treatment had a significant effect as determined by CTBS scores. Results indicated that it was the increased knowledge of early literacy concepts that led to increased reading achievement in grades 1 to 4.

MEDWELL, JANE. (1996). Parents and teachers using reading records. In Bobbie Neate (Ed.), *Reading Saves Lives* (pp. 168–175). Herts, UK: United Kingdom Reading Association.

Examines the roles of shared reading records (SRR), a card or booklet used to record comments about children's reading interactions at home and at school. A questionnaire was sent to 24 U.K. schools to explore the use of SRRs in early school years. In addition, interviews were conducted with 35 teachers of reception and year 1 classes, and records they kept were examined. Participating schools used some sort of SRR, which went home with the children's reading books. The range of formats for the SRRs varied. Some booklets contained rating scales

and checklists, and most had space reserved for comments. Teachers mentioned a number of purposes for keeping SRRs, with responses in 10 major categories. Most emphasis was placed on collecting evidence for teaching and assessment purposes and on communicating to parents. Samples of comments found in the SRRs were collected for 6 children in each of the 35 classrooms participating. The largest category of comments were general comments about performance in reading and did not meet many of the purposes specified for the SRRs.

RICHARDS, JANET C. (1996, Spring). "They don't teach the skills!": Promoting a university-school-family literacy project. *Journal of Reading Education, 21*, 28–42.

Gives preliminary results of a qualitative inquiry involving parents, preservice teachers, classroom teachers, and a university professor as partners in a literature-based literacy project. Data sources included surveys, an observation coding system, field notes, informal conversations, dialogue journals, teaching cases, and oral story retellings. The study was conducted in one southern U.S. elementary school in which 93% of pupils receive government-subsidized meals. Over 80% of pupils scored at or below the 30th percentile on standardized reading and language arts measures. At the beginning of the program, baseline data indicated that most children could not name their favorite stories of story characters and most indicated that people learn to read by sounding out words. Pupils could not retell a story in structural order. At the end of the second year of the program, most pupils could name their favorite stories and story characters, could recognize basic story features, and could include more events and characters in their retellings. Observations and interviews indicated that many of the 18 classroom teachers had begun to integrate their literacy instruction, although there was still a heavy reliance on the use of the basal reader. Parents are reported as increasingly interested in their children's school efforts.

BEVERTON, SUE. (1995, November). Whose literacy? School, community or family? *Reading, 29*, 14–18.

Summarizes perceptions, definitions, and attitudes implicit in different approaches to family literacy in the United Kingdom. The author also explores challenges from the research, and presents a case study of how Family Reading Groups (FRGs), a voluntary initiative to bring home and school learning environments together, can operate successfully. Although the FRGs are not uniformly cast across England, research has found that they display a number of common characteristics. These include primary emphases on the value of books as sources of pleasure, the development of enthusiasm for reading, and the equal status of all members. Finally, FRGs value sharing experiences with books. Characteristic challenges to initiating FRGs include determining the role of the group, reconciling different understandings of the purposes and values of reading, and understanding the contrasts between home and school literacy. The case example describes the initiation and operation of an inner-city primary school's Family Reading Group. The headteacher and language arts coordinator applied to the Local Education Authority for seed money for books and materials for 2 classes of 7- to 8-year-olds. Letters were sent to parents inviting voluntary participation. Six meetings held over 18 months included such activities as book discussions, time for choosing books, and book introductions. Twenty of the original 30 children, along with their parents, remained after 18 months. Both the school staff and parents reported positive benefits.

WOLLMAN-BONILLA, JULIE E., & WERCHADLO, BARBARA. (1995, December). Literature response journals in a first-grade classroom. *Language Arts, 72*, 562–570.

Explores the use of literature response journals in a first grade classroom. Subjects were the 20 first graders (11 boys, 9 girls) in one class. All were children from working-class or middle-class families. At the beginning of the year, some of the children were emergent readers and writers, many were beginning readers and writers, and a small group had mastered

predictable and environmental print. The teacher, who had 25 years of first grade teaching experience, used a literature-based reading program as part of her theme-centered curriculum. All pupils maintained response journals in connection with the teacher's oral reading of a book early in the year, and their journal entries comprised one data set. Four girls, typical of the most able first grade readers, continued to write in response journals throughout the year, and their year-long entries were a second data set. The two sets of journals were analyzed separately by assigning responses to categories. The categories were defined by the researchers who identified 2 qualitatively different types of responses in the children's responses: text-centered responses (retelling, understanding characters, and prediction) and reader-centered responses (personal reaction, relating to experience, and self in story). The class data included 519 responses to the one book; 83% of these responses were text centered. The remaining 17% were reader-centered responses. A dramatic shift in the types of responses of the 4 pupils who wrote over the course of the year was observed. Early in the year they wrote primarily text-centered responses (87%); however, from the third month of school on, they began to write more reader-centered responses, accounting for 71% of their total journal entries.

KRAMER, CLIFFORD. (1996, Spring/Summer). First graders' growth in writing, spelling, and reading. *WSRA Journal, 40*, 15–18.

Reviews briefly selected studies on the stages of development first graders go through in reading, spelling, and writing and focuses on 2 previous reports emanating from 2 elementary schools within the author's own school district. The author reports on changes found in those studies in the 3 areas. Changes in oral reading fluency were documented through 1-minute reading samples. The average number of words read from a children's book was 1 in September; the average number had by January grown to 39; the number was 81 by May. It noted that the documentation of the growth in the 3 areas through first grade aided teachers in identifying improvement and in finding an alternative method of assessment.

CLARKE, MARILYN S. (1996, Spring). Learning from teacher-research: Journal writing with kindergarten children. *The Language and Literacy Spectrum, 6*, 70–74.

Chronicles the attempts of a kindergarten teacher as she develops a journal writing program as part of her classroom literacy program. The teacher-author describes in detail the changes made in the classroom in order to facilitate journal writing and the impact of the program on children, including their reading and reacting to others' journals.

DONOVAN, CAROL A. (1996). First graders' impressions of genre-specific elements in writing narrative and expository texts. In Donald J. Leu, Charles K. Kinzer, & Kathleen A. Hinchman (Eds.), *Literacies for the 21st century: Research and practice* (pp. 183–194). Chicago, IL: National Reading Conference.

Examines first grade pupils' impressions of elements specific to the production of narrative and expository texts after they received explicit instruction in both genres. One class of suburban first grade pupils (n = 19) from a middle class community were subjects in the study. Children experienced varied structured and unstructured activities designed to teach them the conventions and purposes of writing, including the use of text organization and discussion of genre-specific elements. By midyear, two 45-minute writing blocks were designated for story writing (morning) and informational writing (afternoon). Daily shared readings also exposed children to both genres. A puppet, who wanted to learn to read and write, was used to conduct interviews to probe children's understanding and knowledge of genre structures. Interviews were conducted individually during writer's workshop, and the types of genre protocols were counterbalanced. Transcripts were used to categorize responses focusing on the level of understanding for narrative and expository structures. Results support the conclusion that expository writing is no more challenging than narrative if models are pro-

vided. With explicit instruction in both genre structures, narrative production was found to be more challenging than expository for these first graders.

V–5 Teaching reading—grades 4 to 8

WATTS, SUSAN M. (1995, September). Vocabulary instruction during reading lessons in six classrooms. *Journal of Reading Behavior, 27*, 399–424.

Explores how teachers teach meaning vocabulary during reading lessons and what teachers' stated purposes for teaching meaning vocabulary are. Six teachers of fifth grade and sixth grade classes (3 at each level) located in a large, urban school district participated. The classes observed were racially mixed and gender balanced. In 4 classrooms, there were 3 reading groups; the remaining classrooms had 2 groups. In all classrooms, the high-reading group was reading at grade level. Passive participant observations of complete reading lessons were conducted in the teachers' classrooms at 8 scheduled times over 4 months. A total of 47 observations were conducted; all were audiotaped. Teacher interviews were completed at the end of the study. Data were analyzed to identify dominant themes through open and axial coding; a cross-case analysis was applied. Findings revealed that new words were taught most often as a prereading activity, and there was a distinct pattern of discourse surrounding word meaning instruction. Teachers typically used more than one method for teaching words, most frequently employing definitional and contextual types of instruction. Teaching strategies associated with effective instruction in the research literature were rarely observed. Teachers' stated purposes for vocabulary instruction were congruent with the requirements of the basal reading series used.

DOLE, JANICE A.; BROWN, KATHLEEN J.; & TRATHEN, WOODROW. (1996, January/March). The effects of strategy instruction on the comprehension performance of at-risk students. *Reading Research Quarterly, 31*, 62–88.

Investigates the effects of strategy instruction on comprehension performance of at-risk individuals and groups. In Phase I of the study, 67 fifth and sixth grade at-risk pupils were assigned to 1 of 3 instructional treatments: strategy instruction, story content instruction, and basal control instruction. Pupils received only one of the treatments over a 5-week period, each day reading a different prescribed selection. ANCOVA applied to baseline, immediate posttest, and week-delayed posttest data showed that although the 3 groups performed equally well when reading texts after receiving instruction, the strategy instruction group outperformed the story content and the basal groups when children read on their own. In Phase II of the study, the focus was on determining why strategy instruction was successful with one lower achieving pupil but was unsuccessful with one higher achieving one. Written assignments, classroom observations, and oral interviews of the children provided the data for this aspect of the study. Analysis showed that although the lower achieving pupil perceived strategy instruction as beneficial, the higher achieving one did not. The higher achieving child's comprehension performance actually declined with the use of the strategy, suggesting the importance of motivation in strategy instruction and use.

OLLMANN, HILDA E. (1996, April). Creating higher level thinking with reading response. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy, 39*, 576–581.

Examines the effects of different response formats on pupils' thinking about literature. Subjects were 111 middle-class suburban seventh graders. At 5-week intervals during their seventh grade year, pupils were introduced to and asked to use 1 of 7 reading response formats (literary letter, reading response questions, 2-column response, letter to an author,

hexagonal essay, buddy book journal, and character journal). The pupils' written responses using each format were examined for evidence of 21 different kinds of thinking, including textual, personal, and metacognitive reflections at 5 levels of Bloom's Taxonomy. The benefits and limitations of each format are described with the literary letter eliciting the least amount and the hexagonal essay the most amount in terms of literal thinking.

BOSSERT, TERESA S., & SCHWANTES, FREDERICK M. (1995–96). Children's comprehension monitoring: Training children to use rereading to aid comprehension. *Reading Research and Instruction, 35*(2), 109–121.

Investigates whether fourth graders could be taught to employ rereading as an effective regulation strategy during text comprehension. Subjects were 32 fourth grade pupils assigned to either a training or a control group; reading comprehension was assessed using the ITBS. Regulation training for the treatment group took the form of a set of guided instructional prompts directing readers to look back to answer comprehension questions. Two types of question conditions were employed, proximate and distant. Proximate questions required the reader to look back to an immediately preceding section of text; distant questions were designed to require lookbacks to a section beyond the immediately preceding section of text. Distant information questions were presented only during posttesting. Assessments were made of the relation between the amount of practice needed during training to demonstrate proficient skill use and the reader's ability to apply that strategy to the variation of the training task. The control group did not receive explicit instructions to look back to previously read text, but was given a second opportunity during the pretest session to answer a question when an incorrect response was initially given. Materials were 10 stories developed by the researchers and written at a third grade level. Each was divided into 3 sections of approximately equal length (60 to 80 words per section), and multiple-choice questions about the information presented in the text appeared at the end of each section. Data included numbers of lookbacks that occurred for each subject, percentages of questions answered correctly, and percentages of questions on which a lookback occurred followed by a correct response. ANOVA techniques were applied to analyze effects. Results indicated that the trained subjects used the rereading strategy significantly more often that did control subjects. They were also more likely than control subjects to produce correct responses following a lookback to questions about more distantly read text.

WHITIN, PHYLLIS E. (1996, February). Exploring visual response to literature. *Research in the Teaching of English, 30*, 114–140.

Describes an ethnographic study of seventh graders' experiences in learning to make and share meaning about literature through the creation of visual representations. Subjects were 2 seventh grade language arts classes of academically gifted students. Data collection occurred in 3 phases. During Phase I, the pupils became familiar with the sketch-to-sketch strategy that involved reacting to theme, characters and their relationships, conflict, and feelings through sketching using symbols, colors, shapes, lines, and textures. Data collected included samples of sketches, written reflections from literary study, self-evaluations, and portfolios, and pupil interviews about their work. Field notes of classroom events were maintained. In Phase II, the collection of artifacts and interviews were continued. Children were invited to help the researcher analyze data and draw conclusions about the role of sketching in creating meaning from reading. Phase III involved all pupils in further discussions and construction of conceptual models of what creating sketches meant to them as learners. The data were reported to demonstrate that sketching and sharing the visuals had encouraged children to recognize the open potential of literary interpretation. Sharing the visual with others provided opportunities to generate new meanings and to create new signs, or symbols, collabo-

ratively through conversations. Sketching also provided opportunities for critical thinking, which complemented the expressive dimensions of written and oral language.

RANDALL, SALLY N. (1996, April). Information charts: A strategy for organizing student research. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy, 39*, 536–542.

Describes the use of information charts (I charts) to help middle school pupils organize and write research projects and reports the results of a survey of student opinions of this strategy. Participants were eighth graders engaged in a guided research project. They were introduced to the I-chart technique in class and practiced its application before they began their research project. To secure reactions to the I-chart procedures, students were asked to respond in writing to open-ended questions at 3 stages. Their opinions were secured during the course of researching the project, at the conclusion of the project, and during the following spring when engaged in a second, independent research project. The number of students responding positively was tallied and percentages were calculated. At the first point, 16 of 38 students (42%) spontaneously mentioned the usefulness of the I charts. At the end of the project, 28 of 34 (74%) rated the I chart positively; in the context of independent research project, 17 out of 44 (39%) reported that I charts were the best strategy for organizing and writing research.

NOBLES, CONNIE H., & KONOPAK, BONNIE C. (1995). Eighth-grade students' use of concept circle diagrams for meaningful learning from science text. In Wayne M. Linek & Elizabeth G. Sturtevant (Eds.), *Generations of literacy* (pp. 249–260). Harrisonburg, VA: College Reading Association.

Uses concept circle diagrams to help students learn from science text. Subjects were 27 students from an intact eighth grade science class at a laboratory school. Students were introduced to and given practice in concept circle diagram construction over 4 weeks as they learned about radioactivity. Concept circle diagrams are two-dimensional geometric figures that depict the relation between superordinate and subordinate concepts. Students constructed diagrams individually and in small groups and completed journal entries on their personal use. A week following the unit, students completed a vocubulary evaluation asking them to define pertinent terms and to explain the relations among the terms through examples. A constant comparative analysis was used with student's individual- and group-constructed diagrams, individual and group evaluations of their peers' work, journal entries, teachers' evaluations of students' diagrams and comments, vocabulary evaluations, and observer field notes. It appeared that students felt that they were active learners as they struggled to understand the new concepts and their relations. The teacher was able to use the diagrams to recognize where misconceptions were held. The class average on the vocabulary evaluation was 95%.

EMERY, DONNA W. (1996, April). Helping readers comprehend stories from the characters' perspectives. *The Reading Teacher, 49*, 534-541.

Describes an instructional strategy designed to assist pupils in interpreting the characters they encounter in literature selections. Designed for preadolescent readers, the procedures and questions associated with the technique of creating story maps with character perspectives (SMCP) were detailed. SMCPs were suggested to help readers focus on the literary elements of both plot and characters. Drawing from the application of SMCPs with 6 classrooms of 9- to 11-year-olds over a 6-week period, the author presented sample discussions and a map. Previous research is cited, suggesting that elementary school age children can improve their ability to infer characters' perspectives, thereby improving story comprehension.

THOMAS, SALLY, & OLDFATHER, PENNY. (1995, November). Enhancing student and teacher engagement in literacy learning: A shared inquiry approach. *The Reading Teacher, 49*, 192–202.

Discusses a shared inquiry approach implemented in one multiage classroom of 10- and 11-year olds attending an elementary school in a small California community. Described are several inquiry-based strategies utilized by the teacher in partnership with her pupils in order to explore the meaning purposes and outcomes of the literacy curriculum. Observations suggested that the approach better activated children's intrinsic motivation to engage in literacy and learning.

AUSTIN, HELENA. (1996, May). Reading positions and the student-of-literature in a Year 6 classroom. *Australian Journal of Language and Literacy, 19*, 144–153.

Analyzes classroom talk about a literary selection as an illustration of the various reading positions used in one sixth grade classroom in New South Wales, Australia. Materials were drawn from a literary unit based on a novel and include the text, the autiotapes, and the transcripts of 11 lessons making up the unit; the interviews with the teacher; and all the pupils' writings. Selections from the classroom talk are presented as illustrations of the focus on reading positions. Reading positions are described as the resources a reader calls upon when talking to display how he or she makes sense of a particular narrative passage. The reading positions identified are realistic narrative, anthropomorphic narrative, and representational tale. The analyses of the discussions show that the talk changes from one position to another in an arbitrary manner. It is contended that pupils must be able to identify from the teacher's talk which set of resources is relevant at a given moment in the classroom talk and be skillful at moving from one set to another. Features of pupil talk revealed from the analyses indicate the following: (1) pupils are able to speak realistically, anthropomorphically, and representationally; (2) pupils' talk moves between reading positions in some circumstances; (3) pupils' use of the sets of relevances and those that the teacher uses are misaligned at times, and the teacher fails to align them; (4) pupils challenge the use of a particular relevance set at certain moments; and (5) pupils were able to make the distinction between realistic and anthorpomorphic readings.

WAGGONER, MARTHA; CHINN, CLARK; YI, HWAJIN; & ANDERSON, RICHARD C. (1995, December). Collaborative reasoning about stories. *Language Arts, 72*, 582–589.

Describes the benefits of a group discussion format labeled collaborative reasoning, in which children are encouraged to explore diverse views in response to literature, to reason, and to support their ideas. The defining traits of collaborative reasoning include: (1) the main issue being discussed lends itself to multiple perspectives or positions; (2) both the text and pupils' experiences are used as bases for consideration of the issue; and (3) the emphasis is on understanding pupils' positions and how they came to them, rather than achieving a single interpretation of a text. In practice, children gather in small groups to discuss a central question about a story, raising their hands to indicate their initial position on the question (positive, negative, or neutral). Seven strategies appeared to be useful in getting collaborative reasoning started. These include prompting, modeling, asking for clarification, challenging, encouraging, summing up, and fostering independence. Examples are provided for each move, as well as an extended example of a collaborative discussion. After observing 200 discussions in 6 fourth and fifth grade classrooms, interviewing participants, and analyzing transcripts of videotapes, the researchers determined that although the children's reasoning was high across discussions, the disposition to seek evidence, to recognize the importance of clarity, to challenge others, to summarize, and to change positions developed at different rates in different rooms. Over time, there was increased participation by pupils. They took the majority of turns, and the length of the turns was generally longer than in typical lessons. Analyses of several discussion transcripts suggest that children utter 70% or more of the words during collaborative reasoning, differing from a typical lesson in which teacher talk predominates.

GAUTHIER, LANE ROY. (1996, December/January). Using guided conversation to increase students' content area comprehension. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy, 39*, 310–312.

Describes a semester-long informal study in 5 middle school content area classrooms. In each classroom, students engaged in guided conversation at least 3 times over the course of the semester. Guided conversation is a cooperative learning technique in which students are assigned to groups and each group takes responsibility for reading, researching, and presenting a certain portion of the subject matter. The teacher acts as a resource person and encourages guided conversation among group members. Whole-class guided conversation follows each group presentation. Teachers reported the success of the semester-long activity and their willingness to continue the strategy in the future. Test data also suggested the strategy's effectiveness.

ROSER, NANCY L.; STRECKER, SUSAN K.; & WARD, TAMARA J. (1996). What I wanna know is why Sam Houston's Mom named him after a city: Moving (slowly) toward inquiry in fourth grade. In Donald J. Leu, Charles K. Kinzer, & Kathleen A. Hinchman (Eds.), *Literacies for the 21st century: Research and practice* (pp. 134–145). Chicago, IL: National Reading Conferences.

Observes 2 fourth grade teachers from U.S. urban and suburban schools as they implemented a researcher-designed social studies unit on the Texas Revolution and Republic. The study was conducted over a 4-week period and included 19 class sessions ranging from 60 to 90 minutes each. The unit plan matched the content objectives of the social studies text but differed in guiding teachers to evoke situational interest and inquiry. Following shared reading of a biography, the second phase of the unit had children self-select a related piece of historical fiction from three class sets and join one of three class book clubs. Children then returned to the whole group where they posed questions about their readings and discussions. To provide comparison data, children were observed 2 class days prior to implementation of the unit and given a pretest on the unit content. Data sources included transcripts of discussions, work samples, pupil and teacher interviews, and pre- and posttest results. Findings indicated that although children spontaneously questioned, speculated, and shared insights, their movement toward sustained inquiry was slow. Pre- and posttests revealed an increase in the number of accurate ideas reported (63 and 230, respectively) and a slight decrease in the number of misconceptions held (22 and 10, respectively). Book club talk (peer-led) was often initially off topic with minor spats over procedures. Little evidence of inquiry or wondering was observed when pupils were specifically put to the task of finding answers to their own questions in inquiry groups.

PEPPER, MARTHA M., & BAUMAN, GAIL A. (1995, December). Teaching science using children's literature in the departmentalized middle school. *Florida Reading Quarterly, 32*, 21–23.

Describes attitudinal changes in one teacher's students when the teacher replaced the science textbook with children's literature related to concepts and units in the science curriculum.

KAUFFMAN, GLORIA; SHORT, KATHY G.; CRAWFORD, KATHLEEN MARIE; KAHN, LESLIE; & KASER, SANDY. (1996). Examining the roles of teachers and students in literature circles across classroom contexts. In Donald J. Leu, Charles K. Kinzer, & Kathleen A. Hinchman (Eds.), *Literacies for the 21st century: Research and practice* (pp. 373–384). Chicago, IL: National Reading Conference.

Studies the social interactions and talk occurring within literature circles when teachers were and were not present. A collaborative team of 4 teacher researchers and a university researcher invited children in their classrooms to join 1 of 4 small group literature circles to read and discuss a picture book. The 4 classrooms were all intermediate multiage classrooms

serving ages 9–11. In each room, 2 literature circles (one with the teacher and one without) were formed, resulting in a total of 16 circles across 4 classrooms. The 2 picture books dealt with social issues of prejudice and racism, topics that were part of the classroom inquiries. Discussions, occurring at the end of the school year, lasted approximately 30 minutes and were audiotaped. Audiotapes were transcribed and analyzed using constant comparative analysis to create categories of the types of literacy talk and of the social roles taken by group members. When the teacher was a member of the literature circle, she assumed the facilitator role most of the time and participant role some of the time. Noted was the influence of teacher behaviors, such as active listening, on pupil thinking and talk. As facilitator, the teacher encouraged children to extend or expand their ideas. There were few instances in which teachers shared their own opinions and connections and only one instance in which they shared a personal experience. In literature circles where the teacher was not present, all groups used some kind of strategy to get the discussion started. Pupil talk focused on sharing connections, experiences, and opinions. In groups where some children were not strong discussants, one or two children assumed the formal role of facilitator. No qualitative differences were noted whether the teachers were or were not in the group. All of the talk (teacher or pupil) was analytical rather than imaginary.

BEGG, SANDY. (1995, November). Reading circles. *Practical Stories, 1*, 1–5.

Describes the development of reading circles in 2 fifth and sixth grade team taught classes. Students of mixed ability were grouped based on interests. Each group selected its own text from a broad range of genres. The author describes the activities for the first session, the organization of the classroom, and the procedures for the reading circle. Teachers served as facilitators and models for book conversations. In addition, they worked to ensure participation. Each reading circle had both an assigned reading amount and a related task. Both were posted for the week. Further, teachers and students monitored the reading of the set pages, the participation in the discussions, and the completion of the tasks. The teacher-researcher reported that students found purpose, structure, and positive peer exchanges when reading circles were introduced within their classrooms.

DIEDERICH, CYNDY, & MOSS, KAY. (1995, Fall). Shared novels program: Connecting home and school for literacy. *Illinois Reading Council Journal, 23*, 35–38.

Discusses a program that enables parents to share in the literacy development of their children. The literature-based program was conducted at an elementary school in Illinois and entailed parents of fifth graders being given paperback copies of books their children would be reading in school. The parents were further invited to read and discuss the books at home with their children. Classroom discussions of books used in the shared novels program were enhanced. Children of parents who read the novels used in the program offered more ideas during classroom discussions, exhibited better understanding of the elements of plot and characterization, and were more cognizant of a variety of literary devices used in the novels than children of parents who did not participate.

V–6 Teaching reading—high school

SIEGEL, MARJORIE, & FONZI, JUDITH M. (1995, October/December). The practice of reading in an inquiry-oriented mathematics class. *Reading Research Quarterly, 30*, 632–673.

Examines the nature and use of reading in an inquiry-oriented secondary mathematics classroom over an 18-week semester-long course on mathematical connections. Fourteen

students were enrolled in the alternative high school math class. The study was a collaborative action research and included 2 university researchers, 2 classroom teachers, and a research associate as team members. Field notes, audiotapes, and videotapes were collected at every class meeting, as well as from biweekly team meetings. Additional data sources were the teacher's daily plans, photocopies of student work and instructional materials, and interviews conducted by the university researchers. Written narratives were constructed from field notes and mechanical recordings of each class. Instructional events were identified and analyzed for reading components and included how the text was used and why it was read. Forty-two instructional events and 126 reading components were identified and distilled into 23 categories and 5 general components: reading to make public, reading to comprehend, reading to get an example, reading to generate something new, and reading to remember. Also identified were the multiple kinds of texts used throughout the course to support the development of broader conceptions of learning and mathematics. Examples illustrated the embeddedness of reading in the course by showing the occurrence of reading across the semester, how these practices were ways to learn and do mathematics in the classroom, and the interrelation of reading components within and across selected instructional events. The researchers conclude the need for ongoing collaborative research to challenge traditional concepts of content area reading and for framing problems involved in reading mathematics.

McINTOSH, MARGARET E., & DRAPER, RONI JO. (1995, October). Applying the question-answer relationship strategy in mathematics. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy, 39*, 120–131.

Reports an adaptation of the question–answer relationships strategy for use in mathematics classes. Steps of the procedure are described in careful sequence. Examples of questions, answers, and relationships from actual lessons are included. After strategies were taught, students applied them to their own mathematics textbooks and to worksheets with specific mathematics tasks. Students also wrote in learner logs about their answers and how they identified the relationships in their texts. Additional activities emphasized student thinking about the degree of time and effort involved in working mathematics and in applying the newly learned study processes. The researchers suggest the usefulness of this strategy for middle and high school students.

LEE, CAROL D. (1995, October/December). A culturally based cognitive apprenticeship: Teaching African American high school students skills in literary interpretation. *Reading Research Quarterly, 30*, 608–630.

Investigates the implications of signifying, a form of social discourse in African American communities, as a scaffold for teaching skills of literary interpretation. Specifically, the study explores the roles of prior social knowledge and knowledge of signifying on the range of skills used in reading and interpreting fiction, the construction of student generalizations about text based on analysis of figurative language in texts, how teachers support the scaffolding process, and the overall effects of instruction. Six senior English classes from 2 all African American urban high schools in the midwest participated in the study. The majority of students at both schools scored below the 50th percentile on national standardized tests of reading. Four classes participated in the instructional intervention and two classes served as controls. Students read short stories and completed short-answer questions in oral and written forms. Instructional discourse during whole- and small-group work was analyzed to trace shifts in understanding from signifying as a tool for oral language to its use as a tool for understanding "speakerly" texts. Also investigated were shifts from student dependence on the teacher for understanding to student independence from the teacher. Those in the experimental group outscored the control group on posttests. Correlation coefficients among the posttest measures

suggested that prior knowledge and signifying were related to subsequent achievement in reading. Students in the experimental group who initially had the lowest prior knowledge scores appeared to make the most gain. Examples from transcripts of lessons illustrate the modeling, coaching, scaffolding and self-monitoring strategies of the teachers and the students.

WILLIAMS, NANCY, & BROGAN, MAUREEN. (1996, Winter). Integrating literacy skills with creative writing through collaboration and sharing. *Illinois Reading Council Journal, 24*, 19–25.

Describes a reading and writing instructional program used with 15 minority high school sophomores. The program involved African American, Asian American, and Latino students and was carried out over 10 Saturday sessions of about 2.25 hours each. Expository and narrative texts were used to build a basis for understanding text structures and for transferring to writing. Two autobiographies were used to aid in understanding character development. Comparison and contrast of information was reinforced through the reading of expository articles followed by comparison and contrast maps. Other techniques included imagery and drawing and peer collaboration. It is reported that at the end of the program students thought of themselves as writers and had written narrative and expository prose incorporating various structures. Students demonstrated an understanding of text structure by using maps in their study notes to organize information.

HILL, MARGARET H., & VAN HORN, LEIGH. (1995, November). Book Club goes to jail: Can book clubs replace gangs? *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy, 39*, 180–188.

Describes the initiation of a summer book club within a juvenile detention center with incarcerated youths ages 11 to 17. A teacher-researcher worked 2 hours twice a week for 3 weeks with 2 groups of 5 volunteer students whose reading ability ranged from good to strong, but who were reluctant writers. None had been given opportunity to read and discuss books freely within their regular academic program in the center. Data took the form of field notes, transcriptions of conversations, student journals, and written work, and transcriptions of debriefings with the supervisor of the research. Findings indicated that these students cooperated with one another and the teacher-researcher by suggesting books, responding thoughtfully to texts, and offering their own reactions and comments to others' ideas. Their written responses indicated thought, variety, and insight. Finally, students viewed book club as a way to give and gain respect of others; one mentioned that a book club might save her sister from gangs.

SIMPSON, ANNE. (1995, July). Why do we have to read this book?: Small group reading in the secondary school. *Reading, 29*, 16–22.

Reports a study of an Australian secondary English class of 27 participants where groups of 4 to 5 students selected a common novel to read, read several chapters each week, and then met for 45 minutes of class time to discuss the section read. To prepare for discussion, students used sticky notes to identify passages that they wanted to discuss. After each week's discussion, each student wrote a one-page response to the section covered. At the end of 10 weeks, all students wrote an evaluation of the program. Students reported appreciating the opportunity to discuss self-selected books in small groups. Several reported more positive attitudes toward reading. Many learned that although texts start slowly and may appear initially boring, the books became interesting when students persevered and stuck with the text. Many reported learning to read more closely, paying careful attention to details of the text. Students reported favorable opinions of the use of sticky notes, discussions, and short weekly written responses that provided a foundation for longer polished and reflective writing pieces. Students were positive in their responses to varied genre. Many felt their comprehension skills

had improved and that talking about the books gave them greater appreciation. Others commented about more positive interactions with the teacher through discussions of books.

DILLON, DEBORAH R.; O'BRIEN, DAVID G.; WELLINSKI, STEVEN A.; SPRINGS, REBECCA; & STITH, DAVID. (1996). Engaging "at-risk" high school students: The creation of an innovative program. In Donald J. Leu, Charles K. Kinzer, & Kathleen A. Hinchman (Eds.), *Literacies for the 21st century: Research and practice* (pp. 232–244). Chicago, IL: National Reading Conference.

Creates a motivating and intellectually challenging curriculum for at-risk adolescents and identifies components of the innovative program that are most effective in enhancing engagement. The site for the innovative program was the literacy lab in a large, comprehensive high school serving approximately 120 at-risk students (15 students per class period in a block-8 schedule) in grades 9–12. The program was designed to replace the traditional remedial reading program. The development of the curriculum took into account that work was a large part of the students' lives. Students' social lives centered around work, and the time spent at work was equal to or greater than the time spent at school. Students viewed work as more purposeful than school; the vocations of parents strongly influenced the students' future job aspirations and their attitudes toward the literacy lab. Text-based activities were integrated with other media, including a variety of computer-based multimedia activities. Students selected activities from a generic menu and contracted to complete each activity over a time period compatible with task difficulty. Once a week students engaged in lessons structured around organizers such as DRTA, KWL, and Guided Reading Procedure. Sustained silent reading and writing time marked the first 20 minutes of each 92-minute class period. Lessons were observed and field notes recorded in the lab 2 to 3 days per week, 3 classes per day, over a 3-year period. Videotapes were made of 25% of the lessons and 50% were audiotaped. Academic histories were constructed of students who had been in the program for 1 or 2 years and interviews were conducted with a representative sample of 10 students. Interviews indicated that students placed most value on those activities that allowed them the greatest choice. Despite stating that they liked computer work, small group activities, and other reading and writing tasks, students disliked those activities when the class climate was not conducive to such work or on days when they were not in the mood to work. All students except one found the literacy lab activities to be enjoyable and helpful in their development as readers and writers.

LEHMAN, MICHAEL. (1995, November). Reciprocal teaching in manual arts. *Literacy Learning: Secondary Thoughts, 3*, 42–46.

Suggests that the metacognitive strategies explicit in the reciprocal teaching process offer an effective approach to assisting students to facilitate the transfer and application of information derived from reading to practical problem-solving contexts. A training program applying reciprocal teaching procedures for year 9 students enrolled in a manual arts course was outlined. The program consisted of 3 sessions. It was reported that students shared satisfaction with the approach when asked to react to their training in class discussion after the third session. In addition students felt they understood more of what they need when using comprehension monitoring activities.

GLASGOW, JACQUELINE N., & BUSH, MARGIE. (1996, May). Students use their multiple intelligences to develop promotional magazines for local businesses. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy, 39*, 638–649.

Shares student and community comments and experiences when students enrolled in a high school English course developed promotional magazines for local businesses to use in selling their products, services, or equipment. Students used onsite visitations, interviews, and

research to collect data for the project. Working in cooperative teams, students wrote articles on the history of the business or product, interviewed owners, developed advertisements, and created original art or photographed examples of scenes related to the business studied. Each team prepared oral presentations on their project as a culminating activity. Students mentioned the value of the project and their preference for the project to writing traditional research papers. Most felt that the project was meaningful and helpful for making strong community connections. Community members and parents reported finding the project useful.

V–7 Teaching reading—college and adult

ROBERTSON, JULIE FISHER, & RANE-SZOSTAK, DONNA. (1996, April). Using dialogues to develop critical thinking skills: A practical approach. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy, 39*, 552–556.

Details group activities for using dialogues to guide students in developing and applying critical thinking skills. Participants were members of a college-level critical thinking course. At the beginning of the course, students were randomly assigned to collaborative groups of 4 to 5 students. These groups worked throughout the semester on critical thinking application exercises and group projects both in and out of class. The students also maintained self-reflection journals throughout the semester. Initially, students were presented with written dialogues consisting of brief interactions between two people, with each speaker presenting a different viewpoint. The collaborative groups acted out the dialogues and presented their analyses to the class. The second step was simulated group discussion that focused on student analysis of the patterns that occurred in a group dialogue. Part of the class played designated roles, and the rest of the class functioned as observers who evaluated the discussion process. It was reported that both student observers and those who played roles were successful in analyzing the experience critically. Their journals revealed that the students felt they learned a great deal from the simulation and felt the experience helped pull together concepts related to critical thinking.

JOSTEN, DENICE. (1996, April). Students rehashing historical decisions—and loving it. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy, 39*, 566–574.

Assesses the effects of an inquiry-based approach using reciprocal teaching on the comprehension and recall of social studies reading material with college freshmen. Participants were 80 probationary freshmen enrolled in 8 sections of developmental reading taught by 4 teachers at 1 university. Subjects and teachers were assigned to experimental and control conditions in equal numbers. The experimental approach, the concerns and decision-making strategy (CAD), was a reading-discussion strategy based on an inquiry process and a reciprocal teaching strategy. Training in this approach consisted of teacher modeling and student practice. Experimental classes received one 40- to 45-minute training session in CAD per week for 3 weeks; control groups practiced strategies for the recognition of main ideas and details. In the fourth week of the study, the experimental groups applied CAD to a reading about the Korean conflict. The control groups read and highlighted the passage, after which their teachers asked 12 questions. Posttest, recall measures of the article were administered to both experimental and control groups in the fifth week; measures included a written, free recall of information and a comprehension test with 8 questions requiring several levels of thinking. The scores of the experimental groups taught by one of the teachers who prepared for teaching CAD were reported to be significantly higher than the scores of the two teachers who taught the control groups. The scores of the experimental groups were also significantly higher on the comprehension test. Although there was no significant difference noted between the scores on questions requiring low-level thinking (literal and recall), there was a significant

difference reported between the experimental and control group scores for questions requiring high-level thinking. In addition to testing, students responded to their experience on surveys. Their comments suggested that most students felt that CAD helped maintain their focus and was a more interesting approach to learning history. The teachers also completed surveys and indicated that some reflective thinking had occurred in all conditions.

CAVERLY, DAVID C.; MANDEVILLE, THOMAS F.; & NICHOLSON, SHEILA A. (1995, November). PLAN: A study-reading strategy for informational text. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy, 39*, 190–199.

Describes PLAN, a study-reading strategy that students are taught to use before, during, and after reading informational text. Students are taught the 4 distinct steps: (1) predict the content and structure of the text and assess its potential for providing information for the task or purpose; (2) locate the known and unknown information by placing checks next to familiar concepts and question marks by unfamiliar concepts; (3) add short phrases and words to the text map while reading; and (4) note their new understanding and use of their new understanding to fulfill the task. During the note stage, students make graphic organizers, produce charts, study for tests, discuss, write summaries, and apply other known strategies. Tasks are learned in sequential order and then adapted for different texts. Reports of the utility of PLAN with college students and an adaptation with middle school students are included. PLAN was implemented with college students who failed the reading subtest of a state-administered instrument in a 15-week, 3-credit hour developmental reading course. Data suggest that college students who experienced PLAN had higher grade points, stayed in school, and passed the required state-administered skills test for college. Middle school results were more mixed, with results varying with the amount of implementation of the procedure.

LIPSON, MARCIA. (1995, Summer). The effect of semantic mapping instruction on prose comprehension of below-level college readers. *Reading Research and Instruction, 34*, 367–378.

Studies the effect of semantic mapping instruction on prose comprehension of below-level college freshmen participating in a required remedial reading program because of low scores on the Descriptive Test of Language Skills. Students met twice a week, 4 hours per week, for 8 weeks. Subjects were assigned to one of three reading instruction conditions; 16 received direct instruction in mapping strategies; 12 received instruction using 3-level study guides; and 12 served as a control condition, reading and discussing expository essays from a standard college reader. Six instructors were randomly assigned to each of the three instructional conditions. All subjects took a pretest and a posttest, completing 9 questions covering passage content. Three questions measured knowledge of textually explicit information, 3 measured textually implicit information, and 3 measured "scriptally" implicit information (prior knowledge). After determining comparability of the groups on all dependent measures, ANOVAS of posttreatment scores determined the relative effectiveness of the 3 interventions. Significant posttreatment differences were found for textually explicit information and textually implicit information, suggesting the superiority of the semantic mapping condition to the other conditions and the utility of semantic mapping instruction in courses for below-level readers.

NICAISE, MOLLY, & GETTINGER, MARIBETH. (1995, July/September). Fostering reading comprehension in college students. *Reading Psychology, 16*, 283–337.

Reports on the effectiveness of a strategy-based intervention program designed to increase reading comprehension of college students. The study reports on 4 students from 1 university who were selected because they were (1) fluent in word reading based on oral reading scores from the Advanced Reading Inventory, (2) below average in reading

comprehension based on scores from the NDRT, and (3) participated in a preintervention interview. Participants included 2 male and 2 female students, ages 23 to 30 years. The intervention period consisted of 10 individual sessions of approximately 90 minutes each, meeting twice a week for 5 weeks. Intervention was designed to build knowledge of and help students acquire and practice the specific reading strategies of predicting, clarifying, summarizing, and setting reading goals; activate schemata for reading topics by training in concept mapping; increase metacognitive awareness by encouraging active comprehension monitoring; and enhance feelings of self-efficacy. Materials included the use of controlled passages and chapters from a variety of textbooks. When mastery of a specific strategy was demonstrated (90% or greater accuracy), students transferred the strategy to materials of their own choice. Intervention effectiveness was determined through the use of a multiple-baseline design across the 4 strategies as well as pre- and posttests designed to evaluate change. The 4 students improved on the reading strategies and made significant gains in reading comprehension on the NDRT as well as on experimental measures. All four reported satisfaction with the program and higher academic and reading self-efficacy.

FLEISCHAUER, JANET PATTERSON. (1996, Spring). Assessing developmental reading courses: Do they have an impact? *Research & Teaching in Developmental Education, 12*, 17–24.

Investigates the impact of one university's developmental reading and study skills course designed for freshmen on student performance and retention. Subjects were full-time freshmen students who were considered high-risk by the university. They comprised 2 treatment groups ($n = 733$) and 2 control groups ($n = 957$). Students in treatment groups were placed in and successfully completed the developmental reading and study skills course; control group students were high-risk freshmen who did not enroll in the course. Both groups were divided into upper (350–400) and lower (300–349) SAT-V ranges. To evaluate the effects of the developmental course, both GPAs and retention were examined for all subjects for 3 semesters. Chi-square analysis revealed that students completing the course stayed at the university until their third semester at a significantly higher rate than comparable students not enrolled. ANOVA with post-hoc procedures revealed that upper and lower treatment group GPAs exceeded those of corresponding control groups for the first semester, but leveled out by the third semester. The number of credit hours earned by the treatment groups significantly exceeded the number of credit hours earned by control groups throughout the 3 semesters.

V–8 Instructional materials

STRICKLAND, DOROTHY S.; WALMSLEY, SEAN; & WOLLNER, WENDY. (1995, December/1996, January). What's in those boxes anyway? An analysis of school book club offerings. *The Reading Teacher, 49*, 344–346.

Examines the nature and range of materials available through school book clubs sponsored by publishers. Although book clubs offered different proportions of books, ancillary items, and even computer software, the researchers collapsed their data to reflect the totality of book club offerings, using the total lists of the major book clubs for one year. Books accounted for 82% of the offerings; miscellaneous items accounted for 11%. Book clubs offered a wide-range of genres, led by realistic fiction (27%), but included traditional literature, concept books, historical fiction, mystery, humor, adventure, fantasy, and informational books. Culturally diverse books accounted for just under 6.5% of the offerings, whereas award winning literature made up approximately 9% of the lists. Miscellaneous items included more than 10 each of such items as stickers, posters, kits, bookmarks, calendars, stamps, and

pencils. Stickers, posters, and kits were the most frequently offered miscellaneous items, helping to explain why some teachers and parents think miscellaneous items are overrepresented on the lists. Audiotapes play a significant role in the lists, many of them professional readings of books they accompany. The researchers concluded that book club offerings represent a far greater range than audiences may think.

McCarthey, Sarah J., & Hoffman, James V. (1995, September). The new basals: How are they different? *The Reading Teacher, 49*, 72–75.

Reports data from the first year of a 3-year study examining changes in literacy practices that accompanied the adoption of new basal programs in first grade classrooms in Texas. The first year of the study examined old and new basal reading materials, analyzed children's responses to the old and new texts, and described 16 teachers' instructional practices using the old basals. Old basals (1986–1987) and new (1993) from 5 commercial publishers were examined. Pupil texts were examined on the following dimensions: (1) word sentence difficulty; (2) literature adaptations and genre; (3) literacy features including content, language, and design; (4) predictability; and (5) decodability. Findings indicated that the total number of words in the new programs was considerably less than in the old, but new programs contained substantially more unique words. New texts were more diverse in terms of format, organization, and genre. Holistic and analytic rating of the literary quality of the selections in each series yielded consistently and substantially higher scores for the new series. Over 50% of the selections in the new basals offered features of predictability (patterns, rhyme, and rhythm) compared with 20% of selections in the old. Decoding demands of the newer texts (using a 5-point rating scale) were far greater than the old. Responses to pairs of old and new stories were collected from a group of 31 kindergarten to second grade pupils. In general, children's rankings were consistent with the researchers' holistic assessments of quality. Observations and interviews with the 16 teachers were used to gauge their reading practices, their views of authority, and their attitudes toward children. Teachers were categorized from "literature emphasis" to "skills emphasis" using a 5-point continuum, as well as by their individual ways of learning and knowing. First year data suggested that teachers varied in the ways they used basals and in their views of the construction of knowledge.

Reutzel, D. Ray, & Larsen, Nycole S. (1995, November). Look what they've done to real children's books in the new basal readers! *Language Arts, 72*, 495–507.

Compares children's tradebooks with their versions in 1993 basal reader anthologies. Five 1993 basal series were used for the content analysis. Each publishing house claimed in writing that the literature selected for use in their anthologies was unabridged and unadapted. Ten percent of the selections from each basal at grades 1, 3, and 5 were randomly selected for analysis ($n = 52$). Each basal selection was then compared page-by-page with its original tradebook form. Changes, adaptations, or omissions were recorded. Coding categories were created for text adaptations, changes in illustrations, print-to-picture layout, storyline, and other alterations. Results indicated that all 52 selections had been adapted in some way before being published in the basal series. Thirty-five percent of the sample contained text adaptations. Text adaptations consisted only of omissions. There were no vocabulary substitutions at the word, sentence, or paragraph levels. Storylines were kept intact. Another 35% of text adaptations were chapter excerpts from a full-length children's novel. A small number of text adaptations (1%) were omission of a word, a sentence, or several paragraphs. Sixty-three percent of the selections showed evidence of illustration adaptations. The entire sample, with the exception of one book, showed differences in the print-to-picture format between the original book and the basal version. Thirty-one percent had attached questions to the last page of the story; 21% of the selections had been retitled in the basal.

BEAN, THOMAS; READENCE, JOHN E.; & MALLETTE, MARLA H. (1996). Selecting multicultural young adult novels: Identifying criteria for use with Bank's typology. In Donald J. Leu, Charles K. Kinzer, & Kathleen A. Hinchman (Eds.), *Literacies for the 21st century: Research and practice* (pp. 296–305). Chicago, IL: National Reading Conference.

Identifies criteria for selecting multicultural young adult novels that deal with racism in a culturally conscious fashion to be used with a typology of ethnic identity. Five criteria were used to select 6 books from reviews in *Journal of Reading*, Newbery lists and American Library Association lists from 1990 to present. Each novel represented Hispanic, Native American, and Asian-Pacific Islander protagonists, with racial discrimination playing a prominent role. Each book was given an initial reading by the researchers who identified key episodes from the beginning, middle, and ending sections. Each episode was analyzed using 6 stages of ethnic identity and their characteristics as 1 classification scheme for character development. Main characters in each of the novels varied in their ethnic identity clarification. Results are presented as representative cases (character development at upper stages) and contrasting cases (character development at lower stages). The criteria used to select books offer teachers a means of identifying young adult novels that realistically confront societal problems.

NIKOLA-LISA, W. (1996, Winter). Teachers talk about the *Magic School Bus* series. *Illinois Reading Council Journal, 24*, 37–46.

Surveys five teacher groups concerning their reactions to the *Magic School Bus* series, which presents science content in a fantasy format. Responses were collected from 56 teachers enrolled in a field-based masters degree program. Groups were interviewed about preexisting knowledge of the series, notes were taken as teachers worked in pairs examining books in the series, and a questionnaire was administered. Respondents indicated that the texts were appropriate for use at various grade levels, depending on the amount of teacher guidance given. Teachers were about evenly split as to whether the books were science books or science-based fiction. When asked how the books might be used in their own classrooms, teachers were split between uses in the language arts and science areas. Eleven of the 56 respondents stated that they read the books aloud to pupils. The teacher character in the series was described by adjectives ranging from creative and energetic to eccentric and goofy. The teacher character's style also varied in description by respondents, with some referring to her as emotionally aloof from her pupils. A follow-up conducted with 12 other teachers revealed similar reactions to the series as those found with the original groups.

MATES, BARBARA FOWLES, & STROMMEN, LINDA. (1995 December/1996 January). Why Ernie can't read: *Sesame Street* and literacy. *The Reading Teacher, 49*, 300–306.

Examines the literacy messages on *Sesame Street*. Ten 1-hour episodes of sequentially numbered programs were recorded and analyzed to identify the focus and frequency of literacy messages. Literacy message was defined as a program segment, referred to as a bit, that presented description, discussion, or example of activities or skills related to written language. Of the 350 bits viewed, 184 had literacy-related content. Specific categories of literacy messages included letters, words in print, reading behavior, and bilingualism. The analysis revealed that most of the literacy messages had to do with the names and shapes of letters or the sounds of individual letters, and in one case a digraph. In all but three cases, the letter sound was presented as the same initial sound in a series of words. Four segments featured presentation of the alphabet. Some attention was also devoted to the blending principle, modeling how individual letter sounds are synthesized into speech. Sight words were also fre-

quently presented. The bits had very few demonstrations of the usefulness of reading and writing in everyday life and fewer still of the pleasures derived from these activities. Only 2 bits suggested that print is useful to people, and 6 undermined the value of literacy. People were actually seen reading or writing on only 9 occasions. There were no bits in which adults read literature or other materials aloud to preschoolers. The concept of bilingualism was introduced through spoken rather than written language.

BAKER, SCOTT K.; KAMEENUI, EDWARD J.; SIMMONS, DEBORAH C.; & STAHL, STEVEN A. (1994). Beginning reading: Educational tools for diverse learners. *School Psychology Review, 23*(3), 372–391.

Provides 5 instructional design principles to consider when developing or improving instructional tools for diverse beginning learners and offers these principles as a structure for evaluating beginning reading programs and modifying lessons to accommodate individual learner needs. Principles include designing beginning reading instruction around the big ideas of phonological awareness, alphabetic understanding, and automaticity with the code; designing conspicuous strategies to teach the big ideas; designing instructional tools to assist in integrating the strategies taught; designing mediating scaffolding to provide learners with support; and designing judicious review to reinforce the essential building blocks of phonological awareness, alphabetic understanding, and automaticity with the code.

V–9 Teaching—grouping/school organization

WESTERA, JULIA, & MOORE, DENNIS W. (1995, July). Reciprocal teaching of reading comprehension in a New Zealand high school. *Psychology in the Schools, 32*, 225–232.

Investigates the utility of reciprocal teaching procedures with 46 New Zealand high school students. Subjects were identified as the lowest performing students from 7 classes on the Progressive Achievement Test (PAT). All were screened for decoding problems with the Neale Analysis of Reading Ability and determined to be adequate decoders but poor comprehenders. Thirty-five constituted the experimental group, and 11, the control group. The majority were Maori or Pacific Islanders. Students were placed into reciprocal teaching groups. Twenty students had 12 to 16 reciprocal teaching lessons, 15 students had 6 to 8 lessons, and the remaining 11 received no lessons. Posttest results on the PAT suggested significant gains for the students receiving the extended treatment of 12 to 16 lessons, but no significant differences for the students receiving the shorter instruction or for the control students. Follow-up assessments of 17 of the original 20 in the extended program suggested that 3 to 7 months later, gains were maintained. The researchers suggest the utility of reciprocal teaching procedures and the cultural compatibility of the procedures for Maori and Pacific Island students.

KELLY, MARIE. (1995). Reciprocal teaching: A practical, accessible and long-lasting method for improving comprehension. *Reading Forum NZ, 2*, 20–25.

Investigates the efficacy of reciprocal teaching as part of the regular classroom reading instruction with Standard 3 and 4 New Zealand pupils. Using the Progressive Achievement Test (PAT) of reading comprehension and the Burt Word Reading Test, 12 children from 2 classrooms were divided into 2 experimental groups. Another group of 6 from Class 1 served as the control-comparison group. Pupils in the 2 experimental groups displayed delays of between 6 months to 2 years on comprehension scores. The control group pupils were at average to above average levels for comprehension. Reciprocal teaching procedures were taught to the experimental groups daily for 20 minutes for part of the second term of the school year. After

each daily session, children completed an assessment passage of 250-350 words and a 10-item comprehension test. Results indicated that daily comprehension scores increased when reciprocal teaching was introduced. The first experimental group increased from an average of 46.2.% to 66.8% during the intervention, while the second group increased from 40% to 63.5%. The control group exhibited no shifts. In addition, the experimental groups maintained their gains during the follow-up phase. Posttesting with the PAT and the Burt Word Reading Tests demonstrated, on average, more than 1 age-equivalent year on the comprehension measure, and average gains of 8.6 months and 11.5 months on the Burt Word Reading Test. The control group made no such gain in comprehension, and gained an average of 3.8 months over the 3-month period on the word reading measure.

KLINGNER, JANETTE KETTMANN, & VAUGHN, SHARON. (1996, January). Reciprocal teaching of reading comprehension strategies for students with learning disabilities who use English as a second language. *Elementary School Journal, 96*, 275–293.

Investigates the efficacy of two related interventions on the reading comprehension of 26 seventh and eighth graders with learning disabilities whose first language was not English. All participated in reciprocal teaching for 15 days, and then were randomly assigned for 12 days to one of two equal-size groups: (1) reciprocal teaching with cooperative grouping or (2) reciprocal teaching with cross-age tutoring. Although there were no statistically significant differences between groups on 2 measures of comprehension, both groups made significant progress in reading comprehension. Analyses focused on understanding the performance of more and less successful children within groups. Findings revealed that initial reading ability and oral language proficiency seemed related to gains in comprehension, that a greater range of pupils benefited from strategy instruction than would have been predicted on the basis of previous research, and that pupils in both groups continued to show improvement in comprehension when provided minimal adult support.

STEVENS, ROBERT J. (1994). Cooperative learning and literacy instruction. In Nancy J. Ellsworth, Carolyn Hedley, & Anthony N. Baratta (Eds.), *Literacy: A Redefinition* (pp. 127–158). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Presents evidence on results from the use of the Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition (CIRC) program, a cooperative learning approach to teaching elementary reading and language arts. The program consists of 3 main elements: story-related activities, direct instruction in comprehension strategies, and integrated writing and language arts. The program was used in grades 2–6 in 31 classes in 3 elementary schools for 2 years; 4 additional schools were used as controls. Scores from alternate forms of the CAT subtests in reading comprehension, reading vocabulary, language mechanics, and language expression were used as pre- and posttest measures. In addition, the Index of Reading Awareness, a 20-item multiple-choice informal assessment of metacognition, and an attitude rating form measure were administered. At the end of the first year, significant effects were found favoring the CIRC classes on measures of reading vocabulary and reading comprehension. Achievement data at the end of the second year favored the CIRC program on 3 of 4 achievement measures: reading comprehension, reading vocabulary, and language expression. ANCOVA analyses indicated a significant posttest difference on the metacognition score favoring the experimental groups. No significant pre- or posttest differences were found between groups on measures of attitude toward reading or writing. Separate analyses conducted indicated similar results for LD students at the end of each year of the study.

GRAU, CYNTHIA J. (1996, Spring). Non-ability grouped and multi-level instruction in fourth grade: An application of the Winston-Salem project. *The Language and Literacy Spectrum, 6,* 75–80.

Implements and evaluates the impact of a multimethod, multilevel model of literacy instruction in a fourth grade, urban classroom. The teacher-researcher describes the implementation of the program and describes the procedures that were incorporated in a 2½-hour period for language arts and included writing, phonics, spelling, sustained silent reading, cooperative reading groups, and reading aloud to children, plus the use of chapter books with superior readers. The author reports that children were generally successful and pleased with the program.

HALL, DOROTHY P., & CUNNINGHAM, PATRICIA M. (1996). Becoming literate in first and second grades: Six years of multimethod, multilevel instruction. In Donald J. Leu, Charles K. Kinzer, & Kathleen A. Hinchman (Eds.), *Literacies for the 21st century: Research and practice* (pp. 195–204). Chicago, IL: National Reading Conference.

Reports on the results of implementing a 4-block, multimethod, multilevel instructional framework for literacy learning in one school. Children remained in the same class with the same teacher through first grade and second grade. The instructional framework allotted 135 to 150 minutes among four blocks of literacy activities each day: guided reading, self-selected reading, writing, and working with words. Teachers assessed by observing and conferencing with children, collecting running records, and viewing writing samples. At the end of the year, an IRI was administered. IRI data reported began with the second year in which all first grade teachers were involved and continued through 5 years of first grade and 4 years of second grade. Approximately 100–140 children in each grade were included in each year's data. Across 5 years, data collected revealed that instructional levels remained consistent. At the end of first grade, 58–64% of children read above grade level (third grade or above), 22–28% read on grade level (first or second grade), and 10–17% read below grade level (preprimer or primer). Out of 100 children each year, approximately 1 child was unable to read the IRI preprimer level by end of year 1. Those children often achieved a reading level of first grade by the end of second grade. At the end of grade 2, 68–76% of children read above grade level (fourth grade or above), and the number reading below grade level fell to between 2–19%.

BURKEY, LINDA C.; VACCA, JOANNE L.; & VACCA, RICHARD T. (1995). Children as literacy researchers. In Wayne M. Linek & Elizabeth G. Sturtevant (Eds.), *Generations of literacy* (pp. 237–248). Harrisonburg, VA: College Reading Association.

Provides second graders with the opportunity to co-research with an adult on a topic of mutual interest, literate classroom environments. Participants were 4 second graders from a lower-middle class urban school. Children worked as a research team during collaborative group sessions 3 times a week, for 20 to 30 minutes, over 6 months. The adult researcher facilitated the group research, which focused on identifying the best classroom environment for helping children become readers and writers. During the research process, the children generated questions, discussed possible solutions, and implemented varied data collection methods such as observation, interview, and document analysis. After data were collected, pupils shared, discussed, coded, and categorized information from which conclusions were drawn. The co-researchers concluded that a literate classroom environment is rich in 3 areas: physical, psychological, and social characteristics. As researchers, children developed metacognitive awareness of the research process and the skills and strategies needed to conduct an investigation. Data analysis and time to meet as a group during the school day proved to be the most difficult aspects of the process.

V–10 Corrective/remedial instruction

SHANAHAN, TIMOTHY, & BARR, REBECCA. (1995, October/December). Reading Recovery: An independent evaluation of the effects of an early instructional intervention for at-risk learners. *Reading Research Quarterly, 30*, 958–996.

Presents an analysis of the extant evaluations of the Reading Recovery program and makes recommendations concerning its value as an instructional intervention. The authors included all published evaluations of Reading Recovery and unpublished studies that included sufficient information to allow meaningful analysis. Multiple approaches were used to analyze the original studies. When it was possible to analyze data in a more precise and direct manner, data were combined across studies or effect sizes were calculated to estimate the magnitude of impact. When it was possible to generate new information, such as in the economic analysis, this was done to allow a greater precision of measurement. When the nature of the original source materials allowed for only a subjective or qualitative analysis of the results, this, too, was done. In summary, the authors' consideration of the existing studies was largely qualitative. In analyzing effectiveness of the program, the authors considered whether Reading Recovery leads to learning and compared the amount of learning accomplished relative to the gains of average- and low-achieving children, whether the learning gains attributable to Reading Recovery can be maintained over time, whether the program leads to other instructional changes in schools, and whether the benefits were worth the cost of the program. Results revealed that Reading Recovery leads to learning. Pupils made greater than expected gains in reading, and effects were comparable to those accomplished by the most effective educational interventions. However, it was found less effective and more costly than claimed, and it was not found to result in systemic changes in classroom instruction. The authors concluded that the program merits continued support, and they offered recommendations for monitoring the program more effectively and for encouraging innovations that might lower costs while maintaining effectiveness.

STOYA, SUSAN. (1995, Spring). Portraits of success: Two students in Reading Recovery. *The Language and Literacy Spectrum, 5*, 35–41.

Presents two case studies of pupils who received the Reading Recovery intervention in first grade. The first was a girl who experienced difficulty in kindergarten due to emotional difficulties and scored the lowest of all first grade children in her school on Clay's Observation Survey at the beginning of first grade. She received 65 individual lessons from her Reading Recovery teacher and exited the program reading on a first grade level (1–2 basal level). In the years following the intervention, she did not receive additional reading support, and she exhibited more confidence in reading and in her interactions with others. In fifth grade, she scored between the 48th and 56th normal curve equivalents (NCE) on the CAT. The second pupil was also considered among the lowest in her class. She differed from the first child in that she exhibited a great deal of item knowledge (Observation Survey); however, she did not apply her knowledge to read text strategically. She received 42 individual lessons and exited the program reading at a text level equivalent to a 1–1 basal reader. At the end of first grade, she scored at the 84th NCE on the CAT. Through second and third grades she remained between the 68th and 84th NCE on the CAT, and she scored in the top 15 of her third grade class on the state tests.

PRESSLEY, MICHAEL; BROWN, RACHEL; EL-DINARY, PAMELA BEARD; & AFFLERBACH, PETER. (1995). The comprehension instruction that students need: Instruction fostering constructively responsive reading. *Learning Disabilities Research & Practice, 10*(4), 215–224.

Presents a review of research focusing on comprehension strategies and comprehension instruction. Summarizing research employing verbal protocol analyses, the authors presented description of the ways excellent readers process text and referred to this proficient activity as constructively responsive reading. In reviewing research on comprehension strategies instruction, the reviewers identified a transactional strategies instruction model and reported that controlled evaluations of this approach with students experiencing difficulties in reading have confirmed positive effects on their comprehension. It was noted that the verbal protocols of reading conducted with children revealed that young readers generally were not constructively responsive. Because weak readers have been affected positively by transactional strategies instruction, it was hypothesized that children in general will gain from such strategy instruction. The need for long-term studies of the effects of the transactional strategies instruction model with readers of all ability levels was suggested.

BECKER, EVELYN Z., & MCCORMICK, SANDRA. (1996). Reading comprehension: A review of recent studies of instruction with students having learning disabilities. *Journal of Clinical Reading, 5*, 44–77.

Reviews recent research related to reading instruction for LD students. The articles reviewed come primarily from 2 journals in the learning disabilities field. Within the general heading of comprehension, 2 major subcategories are identified: reader factors and text factors. Under reader factors, research is categorized and examined under the topics of prior knowledge, metacognition, and visual imagery. Text factors include the subcategories of advanced organizers and illustrations. A brief final section deals with studies related to oral reading and comprehension. Six major conclusions are reached from the research.

MARSTON, DOUGLAS; DENO, STANLEY L.; KIM, DONGIL; DIMENT, KIRK; & ROGERS, DAVID. (1995, September). Comparison of reading intervention approaches for students with mild disabilities. *Exceptional Children, 62*, 20–37.

Investigates the relative benefits of 6 instructional strategies for teaching reading. Subjects were 176 mildly disabled students receiving individualized instructional services through the School-Based Resource Program of the Minneapolis public schools. Also participating were 37 special education resource teachers, 31 serving as experimental teachers and 6 serving as control teachers. Based on random assignment, each experimental teacher received intensive training in one of the following instructional strategies: peer tutoring, reciprocal teaching, effective teaching principles, computer-aided instruction, direct instruction according to the SRA program materials, and direct instruction according to the district basal program. Conditions of each instructional model were implemented during the period May 1 to September 1, 1990. Standard scores derived from the CAT and the district CAM reading probes were used to make pre- and post comparisons. Comparisons of all 7 conditions of instruction on student grade level using one-way ANOVA produced results that are inconsistent with other previously reported research findings on the same inquiry focus. Achievement of students in the computer-assisted group, the reciprocal teaching group, and the district basal were highest. Higher levels of engagement were observed in all groups, including the controls.

SHANY, MICHAL TAMIR, & BIEMILLER, ANDREW. (1995, July/September). Assisted reading practice: Effects on performance for poor readers in Grades 3 and 4. *Reading Research Quarterly, 30*, 382–395.

Investigates (1) the effects of assisted reading practice with at-risk children, (2) the differential effects of teacher assistance and taped assistance, and (3) the prediction of gains by the initial performance of the children. The sample included 29 third and fourth grade pupils who read at a mid-first grade level. They were randomly assigned to 2 treatment and 1 control

conditions. The teacher-assisted group (n = 10) practiced by reading basal materials orally and receiving assistance with word identification from a teacher. The tape-assisted group (n = 9) practiced by reading while listening to a tape recorder, the speed of which they could control. The control group (n = 10) received normal classroom instruction. Pre- and posttreatment measures of performance included tests of reading and listening comprehension (Canadian Test of Basic Skills) and letter-, word-, and text-reading speeds (Biemiller Test of Reading Processes). Treatment effects were examined by ANCOVA procedures using each pretest as its own covariate. When overall significance was demonstrated, single degree-of-freedom contrasts were used to compare both treatments with the control and to contrast the 2 treatments. Results revealed that assisted practice significantly improved the text reading rates and reading comprehension scores of the experimental groups compared to the control group, although gains in letter naming speed, decoding, and reading speed for words out of text did not reach statistical significance. A second finding was that listening while reading resulted in twice the amount of reading as the other method and led to higher scores on listening comprehension measures. Finally, gains in reading comprehension were larger when there was a large pretreatment difference between listening comprehension and reading comprehension.

ENGLERT, CAROL SUE; GARMON, ART; MARIAGE, TROY; ROZENDAL, MARY; TARRANT, KATHI; & URBA, JOYCE. (1995, Fall). The early literacy project: Connecting across the literacy curriculum. *Learning Disability Quarterly, 18*, 253–275.

Investigates the effectiveness of an integrated reading and writing curriculum for young, mildly challenged children. Participants were 9 resource classroom teachers (3 first-year and 3 second-year implementers of the curriculum, and 3 controls) and their assigned pupils (88 children in grades 1 through 4), most of whom were identified as LD. The curriculum was designed to involve the children in contextualized literacy projects as well as learning-to-learn strategies. Included as goals were the encouragement of classroom dialogues about literacy, the support of children's learning at their zones of proximal development, and the creation of literacy communities among the learners. A wide variety of literacy measures were administered at the beginning and the culmination of the project, including writing to inform, writing to explain, writing fluency, strategy knowledge, sentence dictation, oral reading, and retelling. The results suggested that the resource teachers who were most experienced in implementing the curriculum were most successful in improving literacy performance in nearly all literacy learning domains examined.

ALLEN, DIANE D. (1996). Involving graduate students in personal literacy evaluation through the use of portfolios. In Martha D. Collins & Barbara G. Moss (Eds.), *Literacy assessment for today's schools* (pp. 75–81). Harrisonburg, VA: College Reading Association.

Describes the Literacy Workshop (LW), a language literacy program replacing the traditional reading clinic. The LW served two populations: graduate students earning reading endorsement and local children recommended by teachers, parents, or other interested adults. To be eligible, a child must have completed at least one grade level (K–5) and be described as a reluctant reader or aliterate. Graduate students participating in the workshop completed a prerequisite training course. After initial language literacy assessments, children were grouped according to interest, rather than age or ability, and assigned a graduate student mentor who shared a similar interest. Reading, writing, speaking, and listening were developed through group specific, high-interest activities and project development during daily 3-hour sessions. Children left the 6-week workshop with a project and learning log. Through relaxation and imaging prompts, children verbally completed the sentence "I believe learning is...". All beliefs were categorized according to a 5-level matrix, from Level 1–No evidence of learning

to Level 5–Learning as enabling. Children's belief statements were collected pre- and post-workshop and examined for differences annually for 3 years. Before the workshop, the majority of child belief statements were coded as Level 1 or 2, whereas comments at Levels 3 through 5 were found after participation.

BOYLE, JOSEPH R. (1995, Fall). Using a cognitive mapping strategy to increase reading comprehension for students with learning problems. *Illinois Reading Council Journal, 23*, 23–34.

Examines the effects of cognitive mapping instruction on the reading comprehension of pupils with mild disabilities. Of interest was the effect of the strategy on the pupils' ability to produce cognitive maps from their reading, on the pupils' comprehension of material read, and on the pupils' ability to generalize the strategy to content area text reading. Participants were 8 fifth grade pupils ranging in ages from 10.10 to 11.9. Three were considered LD, 2 were classified educable mentally handicapped (EMH), and 3 were nondisabled students with poor academic performance in reading and content area subjects. All subjects were at least 1 year below current grade level in reading (CTBS). Strategy instruction consisted of an introductory and mnemonic practice phase during which pupils were instructed in the components of the cognitive mapping strategy using on- or below-grade level passages. Following training, generalization passages selected from the pupils' content area texts (social studies, science, and history) were used. The assessment measures were daily mapping accuracy scores, daily comprehension scores on 10 questions developed for the passages read, and the reading comprehension subtest of the Formal Reading Inventory. Upon completion of strategy training, all pupils were able to recite all 6 steps of the strategy with 100% accuracy. Their map accuracy scores, calculated by counting the number of correct components in their maps, ranged from 70% to 97% for below-grade level materials and 84% to 98% for on-grade level materials. During the training phase, their mean comprehension scores increased to 78% for below-grade level material and to 81% for on-grade level material. On the content area passages, average comprehension scores ranged from 80% to 97%, and the overall average of the group was 88%. Analysis of the standardized test was completed using a paired samples *t* test on pre- and posttests. Results revealed no statistically significant gains on test scores.

TINGSTROM, DANIEL H.; EDWARDS, RON P.; & OLMI, D. JOE. (1995, October). Listening previewing in reading to read: Relative effects on oral reading fluency. *Psychology in the Schools, 32*, 318–327.

Evaluates the effects of a repeated reading intervention with and without a passage preview condition on the oral reading fluency of elementary pupils. Subjects were 3 African American male pupils (9, 10, and 12 years old in grades 3 and 4) who were reading 2 to 3 years below their grade placement. The 3 readers were presented with 2 intervention treatments. A repeated reading technique, designated reading to read (RTR), included immediate corrective feedback, performance feedback, verbal reinforcement, and pupil charting of progress, in addition to repeated practice. For the second condition, a passage preview conducted by the researcher who read each new passage to the pupil as the pupil followed along silently (PRV) was added prior to the pupil's repeated reading. Materials for training and testing were selected from 2 passages from each third of (beginning, middle, and end) each of the 10 books of grades 1–4 from the reading series used in the school. Two parallel, hierarchical sets of 30, 100-word passages were used, and 5 literal comprehension questions were developed for each passage. Each passage was read and reread until the mastery criterion of reading the passage in 1 minute without making any errors was met. As the criterion at a given level was met, the pupil was presented the next higher level passage. Effects were assessed using pre- and posttest measures of instructional reading level (on the leveled passages), the mean percent

word recognition accuracy, the mean percent comprehension accuracy, the mean words per minute, and the mean number of reading errors. Results evidenced substantial increases for all 3 boys on correct words per minute and percent comprehension accuracy and substantial decreases in mean number of errors. The PRV condition yielded higher correct words-per-minute rates and lower error rates for 2 of the pupils, whereas the third boy's performance was superior with the regular RTR intervention without PRV.

WADE, CHRISTINE HASSIL. (1995, Spring/Summer). Success-based reading: A case study. *Tennessee Reading Teacher, 23*, 16–19.

Presents the case study of one unmotivated fourth grade reader. The boy was tutored during a university practicum course for 20 sessions over a 10-week period. In the beginning he refused to look at books, he word called at a very slow pace, he became defensive when the tutor attempted to help him decode a word, and he appeared to resent being at the reading center. A language experience approach using the computer was adopted. The boy and his tutor began writing stories together on the computer, sometimes with the child typing into the computer and sometimes with the teacher taking his dictation. As the child wrote stories into the computer, he wrote them with comprehension questions in mind. By the end of the 20 sessions, the child's self-confidence had increased, he had developed a positive attitude toward reading, and he had become a more independent reader.

MORRIS, DARRELL; ERVIN, CRISS; & CONRAD, KIM. (1996, February). A case study of middle school reading disability. *The Reading Teacher, 49*, 368–377.

Details the case study of one middle school child referred to a university clinic for reading intervention. The subject was a sixth grade boy of average intelligence reading at the second grade level. His school diagnosis was LD. The initial diagnosis completed at the clinic consisted of tests of word recognition, passage reading, and spelling and confirmed that he was functioning at a second grade level. He received 72 hours of individual tutoring over a 2-year period from the same instructor, a first grade teacher participating in a clinical practicum course. His reading lessons were characterized by balance, support, and adherence to instructional level. Balance was reflected in a consistent lesson routine of reading for meaning, word study, fluency drill, and writing. The systematic study of word patterns and attention to spelling were additional components of his tutoring. Posttesting of word recognition, passage reading, and spelling after 2 years of instruction revealed a fourth grade instruction level in both reading and spelling. Because it was noted that his ability to recognize isolated words lagged behind his contextual word recognition ability, particularly in the second year of tutoring, it was stated that the second-year gain in reading skill was contextual in nature and that the underlying word recognition competence stalled.

ELLSWORTH, NANCY J. (1994). Critical thinking and literacy. In Nancy J. Ellsworth, Carolyn N. Hedley, & Anthony N. Baratta (Eds.), *Literacy: A Redefinition* (pp. 91–108). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Evaluates an instructional program designed to teach LD students to think critically by using a problem-solving schema and applying it to specific problem situations presented in short narratives. Subjects included 2 groups of high school students enrolled in 20 resource room classes for mainstreamed students with LD. In 10 classrooms, 35 of the students received instruction in the 8-step schema, and the other 35 students were used for comparison purposes and were in classrooms formed to match experimental group students on the basis of class size, grade level, reading level, and ethnicity. Experimental group students participated in seven 40-minute instructional training sessions. Pre- and posttest individual, audiotaped interviews were given in which students were asked to describe the steps they would take to reach a decision, to recall two problem narratives, and to answer 8 questions calling for the appli-

cation of the general schema to each of the 2 problem narratives. Comprehension was assessed by recall of the narratives. The measures used in evaluating the ability to identify and apply the general schema taught included schema identification (how many of the 8 parts of the general problem-solving schema students could name), and 4 measures of schema application: solution generation, fact finding, implementation planning, and contingency planning. ANCOVA procedures were conducted on the posttest scores of the 5 measures of schema identification and application with the pretest scores as the covariate. On all 5 measures, experimental group students scored significantly higher on the posttest than did the comparison students.

JOHNSON, HELEN L.; PFLAUM, SUSANNA; SHERMAN, ELLEN; TAYLOR, PATRICIA; & POOLE, PATRICIA. (1995, December/1996 January). Focus on teenage parents: Using children's literature to strengthen teenage literacy. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy, 39*, 290–296.

Reports the objectives and procedures of the family literacy project, Focus on Teenage Parents, a privately funded collaborative effort by college faculty and New York City Board of Education teachers and administrators. The project was designed to provide opportunities for student parents to strengthen their literacy skills and to simultaneously enrich their understandings of child development and parenting issues. The students, both parents and nonparents from the local high school, participated in a children's literature course taught by a faculty team. The course immersed students in children's literature and approached reading and writing holistically. The faculty were prepared through workshops introducing child development issues, early language and literacy, writing process activities, ways of using children's literature in the classroom, and storytelling. Benefits of the project were reported and included the observation that the students' personal engagement in reading, evidenced by their requests for personal reading material, grew as a result of their experiences reading children's literature to children.

LAUTERBACH, SUSAN L., & BENDER, WILLIAM N. (1995, October/November). Cognitive strategy instruction for reading comprehension: A success for high school freshman. *The High School Journal, 79*, 58–64.

Investigates the effectiveness of a cognitive strategy where students read a paragraph, ask themselves the main idea and two details, and put the main idea and details into their own words. Subjects were 3 students identified by the school district as exhibiting mild to moderate learning disabilities and receiving support in resource room services. Each had a demonstrated reading comprehension problem. Each read reading assignments of materials at their own level, paraphrasing into a tape recorder. Cue cards for what constituted effective paraphrases were given and then withdrawn in subsequent intervention stages. Students also applied the paraphrasing strategy in several settings, again paraphrasing into the tape recorder. Dependent measures were the percentage correct on paraphrasing main idea and details and the percentage correct on comprehension on a 10-item objective test administered one day after the paraphrasing session. Each student increased in paraphrasing ability. Reading comprehension scores increased and remained high across levels. In interviews students reported the effectiveness of the strategy.

CRANK, JOE N. (1995, Spring). Effects of a teacher-mediated spatial instructional routine on learning social studies concepts by students with learning problems. *Reading Instruction Journal, 38*, 22–34.

Compares the effectiveness of an instructional routine to assist LD students in learning content information by a traditional method. The experimental technique, visual depiction instructional routine, uses visual depictions or spatial strategies that include graphic organiz-

ers, webs, and sequence diagrams, along with the use of verbal instructional statements. Participants were 23 high school students, all classified as LD, assigned to 2 groups. Groups were matched as much as possible by gender, age, grade level, and race. Both groups were instructed with both instructional approaches. Students met for the experimental sessions on 2 consecutive days, with each session about 40 minutes. Subjects were taught 2 lessons on 2 different topics. Each topic was followed by 13 multiple-choice items and 3 true-false questions. All students were administered the WJPEB Social Sciences subtests. ANOVA techniques revealed no significant differences on prior social studies knowledge between the 2 groups based on the WJPEB subtest raw scores. Post-instruction test mean scores indicated significantly higher scores for students when they were taught with the experimental procedure as opposed to the regular procedure.

V–11 Teaching bilingual and other language learners

ROSSELL, CHRISTINE H., & BAKER, KEITH. (1996, February). The educational effectiveness of bilingual education. *Research in the Teaching of English, 30*, 7–74.

Summarizes the quantitative evidence related to the effectiveness of bilingual education programs. The authors read studies of bilingual education from the earliest period of this literature to the most recent. Of the 300 program evaluations read, only 72 (25%) met the researchers' methodological acceptance criteria; for example, they had a treatment and control group, a statistical control for pretreatment differences when groups were not randomly assigned, and had outcome measures in English. Virtually all of the studies in the United States were of elementary or junior high school Spanish speakers. The few studies conducted outside the United States were almost all in Canada. The research evidence on standardized achievement tests indicates the following: Transitional bilingual education (in which students are taught reading, writing, and content in their native tongue, gradually transitioning to English) is better than regular classroom instruction in only 22% of the methodologically acceptable studies when the outcome variable is reading; 7% of the studies when the outcome variable is language; and 9% of the studies when the outcome variable is math. Transitional bilingual education was never better than structured immersion, a special program for limited-English-proficient children in which the children are in a self-contained classroom composed solely of English learners, but in which the instruction in English is at an appropriate pace. The reviewers contend that the quantitative research evidence does not support transitional bilingual education as a superior form of instruction for limited-English-proficient children.

HSUI, VICTORIA Y. (1996 , February). Bilingual but not biliterate: Case of a multilingual Asian society. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy, 39*, 410–414.

Examines factors that contribute to a general lack of success in nurturing biliteracy among young adults in Singapore. Although Singapore is mostly Asian in its ethnic makeup, and although 4 main languages (Mandarin, Malay, Tamil, and English) are both spoken widely and recognized officially, the primary language of business, government, and schooling is English. In addition, after almost 10 years of bilingual education, most young adults are primarily monolingual readers of English. Although educational policies stress the importance of acquiring bilingualism and biliteracy, the effects of the policies are less clear. A battery of questions were administered to 163 student teachers (74% Chinese, 31% Malays, and 24% Indians) at the National Institute of Education to gain a comprehensive picture of their bilingual reading attitudes and habits, their school and home experiences in bilingual reading, and factors underlying bilingual reading tendencies. Selected subjects were interviewed to provide a more comprehensive picture. The group overwhelmingly preferred reading in

English (75%) to reading in the second language (3%). Reading in the second language had primarily been confined to the classroom. Five tendencies were identified that contributed to the observed tendencies: (1) variations in the use of English and the second languages according to orality and literacy; (2) relative proficiency in the first and second language; (3) variations in home and school experiences in reading in English and the second language; (4) availability of materials; and (5) effort expended and strategies used in accessing meaning of English and second language texts.

XU, HONG. (1996). A Filipino ESL kindergartner's successful beginning literacy learning experience in a mainstream classroom. In Donald J. Leu, Charles K. Kinzer, & Kathleen A. Hinchman (Eds.), *Literacies for the 21st century: Research and practice* (pp. 219–231). Chicago, IL: National Reading Conference.

Describes beginning literacy learning experiences of an Asian ESL girl in a mainstream kindergarten classroom. She was born in the United States and spoke fluent Tagalog and little English. Two teachers and 15 children comprised her Chapter 1 classroom; half spoke English and half spoke Spanish. English was the medium of instruction. Routine literacy events included journal writing and sharing, independent and shared reading, and centers. Weekly observations (90 minutes) during language arts and reading were conducted including audiotapes of the subject's interactions with peers and teachers. Structured interviews were conducted at the end of the year. Constant comparison methodology was employed for analysis. The developmental pattern of the girl's interaction with others suggests that young ESL children may need to adjust first to cultural and linguistic differences between home and school. In the interim, an extensive nonverbal period is expected and should be valued. Teachers' support included pairing the girl with children with some developed literacy skills, modeling several experiences such as reading a book, looking for letters and words on walls or in books, and using her prior knowledge as topics for her journal, and giving her timely and appropriate encouragement.

BARONE, DIANE. (1996). Whose language? Learning from bilingual learners in a developmental first grade classroom. In Donald J. Leu, Charles K. Kinzer, & Kathleen A. Hinchman (Eds.), *Literacies for the 21st century: Research and practice* (pp. 170–182). Chicago, IL: National Reading Conference.

Asks what accommodations need to be made to support the literacy learning of bilingual children in a developmental first grade classroom. The class consisted of 13 children; 7 had Spanish as their first language, and 6 had English as their first and only language. All had attended a half-day kindergarten in the same school the previous year and were considered the lowest performing in the class. The teacher, who was bilingual, had not taught a bilingual, developmental first grade prior to the study. The researcher assumed the role of participant-observer and spent an entire day each week over the year in the classroom observing and working with small groups of pupils. Field notes and classroom artifacts served as data sources for weekly analysis meetings with the classroom teacher. Written meeting summaries included literacy strategies observed, social interactions and language used by the children and teacher, and reading and writing behaviors. Despite a commitment to change, it took a full year before the teacher was comfortable moving away from a basal-based curriculum to instruction more congruent with recommended practices for second language learners. She found it difficult not to have the concreteness of worksheets and questioned what children were learning through shared reading experiences. Literacy routines, storytime, and writing practices were easier to implement. Opportunities for discussions among the children needed negotiation. The children became part of the class when their primary language was used for instruction. They were more independent as learners when the classroom context and rou-

tines were predictable and meaning based. By the end of the year, the teacher maintained a balance in using both languages in her instruction and communication. The children all became competent in English. None of the children whose primary language was English became proficient in Spanish, suggesting that the bilingual speakers reaped more benefits than native English speakers.

ANDERSON, VALERIE, & ROIT, MARSHA. (1996, January). Linking reading comprehension instruction to language development for language-minority students. *Elementary School Journal, 3*, 295–309.

Explores the use of reading comprehension instruction to develop oral language in language-minority students. Using classroom observations of literacy teaching, analyses of videotaped teaching sessions, conversations with teachers and administrators, and teaching demonstrations, the researchers identified 6 prevalent instructional issues related to reading comprehension and, in turn, to language development. These include: (1) flexibility of English language, (2) use of abstract and less imageable basic vocabulary, (3) consideration of larger contexts, (4) determination of important and unimportant aspects of texts, (5) elaboration of responses; and (6) engagement in natural conversations.

BLUM, IRENE H.; KOSKINEN, PATRICIA S.; TENNANT, NANCY; PARKER, E. MARIE; STRAUB, MARY; & CURRY, CHRISTINE. (1995, December). Using audiotaped books to extend classroom literacy instruction into the homes of second-language learners. *Journal of Reading Behavior, 27*, 535–563.

Investigates whether home-based repeated readings with an audio model is a significant supplement to the literacy instruction of second language learners. It was hypothesized that a beginning first grade reader who spoke English as a second language would benefit from having daily access to repeated readings in the home environment. To provide this access, books that had been shared in school were given to children for daily home use. After home rereading routines were established, children were given a tape recorder and audiotapes to accompany the books, enabling them to hear the English storybook as they followed along looking at the printed text. Of specific interest in this study was the effect of repeated readings with an auditory model on first graders reading fluency and self-monitoring behavior. Also of interest was the effect of the school-home reading activity on motivation. Home-based repeated reading of books was compared with the home reading of books with audiotapes. Results from this study indicated that all 5 participating second-language learners received substantial benefit from the opportunity to practice reading books with audiotapes at home. It appeared that the support provided by the audiotapes enabled children to read increasingly more difficult texts with fluency.

GERSTEN, RUSSELL. (1996, January). Literacy instruction for language-minority students: The transition years. *Elementary School Journal, 96*, 227–244.

Reports results from a research project in which language arts and literacy instruction for language-minority students were examined for 2 years in 18 U.S. urban classrooms. Data were gathered in 3 schools in a large district in southern California and in two classrooms in west Texas. In the majority of schools, the primary language was Spanish; in one California school, there was a wide range of Southeast Asian languages in addition to Spanish. Reading/language arts instruction was observed for over 200 hours in third through sixth grades. Interviews were conducted with teachers, administrators, and other relevant school personnel (special educators and bilingual specialists) to help provide context. Virtually all children in the 24 observed classrooms were making the transition from primarily Spanish-language or "sheltered English" instruction to instruction in English for almost the entire day. Data

collection targeted at least one child whom the teacher identified as experiencing difficulties in reading while simultaneously observing the class as a whole. Emerging themes from the observations are delineated, discussed, and integrated with emerging research bases. Iterative constructs that shaped and grew from the observations are illustrated with positive and negative examples that include challenge, success, involvement, scaffolding, mediation, and feedback.

PARATORE, JEANNE R.; HOMZA, ANNE; KROL-SINCLAIR, BARBARA; LEWIS-BARROW, TRINIDAD; MELZI, GIGLIANA; STERGIS, ROBIN; & HAYNES, HANNAH. (1995, December). Shifting boundaries in home and school responsibilities: The construction of home-based literacy portfolios by immigrant parents and their children. *Research in the Teaching of English, 29*, 367–389.

Examines the nature of parent-teacher interactions as a way of understanding how discussions and conferences focusing on the artifacts of children's literacy learning at home and school contribute to a collaborative relationship between parents and teachers. Four volunteer parent-teacher dyads were formed to explore the beliefs and understanding parents and teachers have about parents' role in schools and schooling. All of the parents were of Latin heritage and spoke Spanish as a first language. Data sources included 3 interviews with the parents and teachers, an audiotaped parent-teacher conference including discussion of the portfolios, and journals of incidental interactions, reflections, and portfolio use. Results suggested that the creation of home portfolios may provide a starting point for teachers and parents to discuss children's developing literacy. As teachers and parents addressed the artifacts that children completed at home and at school, they began to see the connections between home and school. Teachers saw how children practiced school literacy outside school, as well as how they practiced literacy behaviors that had not yet been addressed in school. Parents used the explicit examples to formulate questions about particular assignments or about specific practices they had observed. Researchers concluded that the process has the potential to affirm parents' awareness and knowledge of their children's performance and progress. In addition, it has the potential to inform teachers about the ways parents and children engage in literacy and to suggest ways to link events in school to routine events at home.

KROL-SINCLAIR, BARBARA. (1996). Connecting home and school literacies: Immigrant parents with limited formal education as classroom storybook readers. In Donald J. Leu, Charles K. Kinzer, & Kathleen A. Hinchman (Eds.), *Literacies for the 21st century: Research and practice* (pp. 270–283). Chicago, IL: National Reading Conference.

Investigates whether immigrant parents with limited education would be positively influenced by participating in elementary classroom read alouds. Six Latino immigrant parents enrolled in an intergenerational literacy program; participants had fewer than 7 years of formal schooling. Teachers of 7 bilingual elementary classrooms volunteered to have parents read in their classes. Three to 5 reading sessions took place in each kindergarten, first, and first–second combination class. No parent read in his or her own children's classrooms. Every parent participated in 4 reading sessions. On the day before each read aloud, parents selected books in Spanish or English to take home and read with their children. On the day that classroom read alouds were conducted, training sessions were held for ½ to 1 hour focusing on read-aloud strategies to use before, during, and after reading, Modeling and demonstrations were conducted based on the needs identified during observations of the read-aloud sessions. Qualitative analyses were conducted on the following data sources: field notes of training sessions, audiotapes of classroom read alouds, interviews with parents and classroom teachers, and audiotapes of parent-child readings at home. All parents brought personal strategies and approaches to the classroom reading session, with 5 of the 6 parents incorporating strategies

that they had previously used in reading with their own children. Training had a strong impact on parents' use of effective read-aloud strategies, producing immediate and cumulative effects. Each parent incorporated some type of prereading, during reading, and postreading activity into each read aloud. Four parents were consistently effective in eliciting pupil participation, building on children's own background and drawing attention to illustrations. Teachers viewed the storybook sessions as positive ways to increase home-school connections, to reinforce the importance of reading, and to expose children to a variety of reading styles.

PARIBAKHT, T. SIMA, & WESCHE, MARJORIE. (1996, January). Enhancing vocabulary acquisition through reading: A hierarchy of text-related exercise types. *Canadian Modern Language Review, 52*, 155–178.

Details the development of a scheme for classifying vocabulary exercises encountered in ESL/EFL textbooks and reports one study of vocabulary acquisition with college-level, ESL students. The classification scheme resulted in 5 categories of exercises: selective attention, recognition, manipulation, interpretation, and production. The study involved an ESL classroom experiment in which vocabulary knowledge gains of learners in a thematic reading program (Reading Only Treatment) were compared with their gains in parts of the program in which some readings were replaced by vocabulary enhancement activities (Reading Plus Treatment). Subjects were 38 young adult, intermediate-level ESL students in a university setting. All subjects were exposed to both treatments. In the Reading Plus Treatment, students read 4 texts on 2 themes and answered comprehension questions. They then did a series of vocabulary exercises from the proposed categories based on the target words from the 2 main readings. In the Reading Only Treatment, the initial reading and comprehension questions were followed by additional reading of a supplementary text composed to present the target words again. Student gains in target vocabulary knowledge for the 2 treatments were assessed using a researcher-designed vocabulary knowledge scale (VKS). Paired *t* tests were carried out on pre- and postinstruction VKS scores. Results indicated that subjects achieved significant gains in both treatments. Comparative treatment effects were examined using MANOVA repeated measures analysis. Results revealed that gains were significantly greater in the Reading Plus Treatment. Specifically, students learned more words and demonstrated a greater depth of knowledge of the target words; in the Reading Only Treatment, learners' knowledge of most target words remained at the recognition level.

WONG, MEI YIN, & UNDERWOOD, GEOFFREY. (1996, February). Do bilingual children read words better in lists or in context? *Journal of Research in Reading, 19*, 61–76.

Investigates whether 84 children in Singapore (42 boys and 42 girls), all 11-year-olds and bilingual, could read orally with more accuracy when words were presented in a list or in text. Determination of the children's language dominance was based on a questionnaire that asked about the languages they used when communicating in different situations. The children were assigned randomly to read the same words orally both in a list form and in a 120-word nonfiction passage presented in counterbalanced order. Children's errors in context and list reading were recorded, together with answers to 4 comprehension questions over the paragraph. The errors noted were coded as omissions, syntactic substitutions, mispronunciations, and unacceptable substitutions. Error analyses showed that English nondominant readers performed less well in list readings relative to text readings. These children produced more errors in list readings for every error category. The English dominant readers produced no significant differences in performance for these conditions. For all children, there was a high number of omissions made in list reading.

PUMFREY, PETER D., & CHUGHTAI, IRFAN. (1996). Reading accuracy and comprehension of Asian bilingual pupils at National Curriculum Year 3: Encouraging find-

ings. In Bobbie Neate (Ed.), *Literacy Saves Lives* (pp. 155–167). Herts, UK: United Kingdom Reading Association.

Samples 54 bilingual Asian and 54 monolingual white year 3 pupils in one local education authority (LEA) in the United Kingdom in an effort to determine if there are dialect interferences in bilingual pupils' reading and to note the effects of the LEA on reading skills. Pupils' ages ranged between 7.5 and 8.5 years. Each pupil was administered the New MacMillan Reading Analysis under 3 different modes: normal, silent, and aural. The silent and oral modes provided silent comprehension and aural comprehension scores. Findings indicated that dialect interference does not adversely affect bilingual pupils' reading accuracy, reading behaviors, or reading comprehension compared to their monolingual peers. The schools have aided bilingual pupils to achieve as well as their monolingual peers in reading.

HOROWITZ, ROSALIND, & FRONTERA, LUCY S. (1994, August). Hispanic fourth graders' reading and study behaviors: The teacher's role in assessment. (Working paper WP-05). The University of Texas at San Antonio Hispanic Research Center.

Identifies content reading and study behaviors that could be used to identify students at risk for dropping out of school. Four teachers completed a questionnaire to assess the content reading and study behaviors of 57 Hispanic fourth graders in a low-income south Texas neighborhood. Questionnaire items were drawn from informal teacher interviews conducted to glean characteristics of children who show difficulty in school, as well as from research that identifies problems fourth graders begin to exhibit. From the final questionnaire, 16 questions were used for analysis, including those which queried pupils' work habits such as the completion of homework, completion of class assignments, ability to get organized, and ability to understand directions. Pupil success in school was determined by grade point average (GPA), achievement scores, age, years in special programs, and primary language. Nine of the 16 items had significant coefficients of correlation with GPA and reading achievement scores. Stepwise regression revealed that whether or not a pupil completed homework and possessed ability to answer questions in writing were significant predictors of GPA. Further, being a year or more older than normal for one's grade placement significantly predicted difficulty answering literal questions, distractibility, and low teacher estimates of reading ability. Teacher assessment of pupil reading level was almost equally predictive of grades as were achievement scores. The authors argue for consideration of teacher input about at-risk behavior early in the elementary grades.

FRONTERA, LUCY S., & HOROWITZ, ROSALIND. (1995, February). Reading and study behaviors of fourth-grade Hispanics: Can teachers assess risk? *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences, 17*, 100–120.

Identifies classroom behaviors that are predictors of academic performance and correlates these behaviors with teachers' assessments of pupil success or risk for school failure. Teachers completed a 16-item questionnaire about 57 Mexican American fourth graders' content reading and study behaviors. The 9 questionnaire items that explained most of the variance were correlated to GPA, overage status (a year or more too old for their grade), and achievement scores in reading on the Stanford Achievement Test. All coefficients of correlation yielded positive and negative associations at $p < .01$ to $p < .001$, except 2: items "understands directions to assignments" and "follows through on steps to complete assignments" were nonsignificant. A second stage of analysis sought to determine the usefulness of the questionnaire items to predict at-risk status through 3 step-wise regression equations. Findings indicated that mainly 9 questionnaire items are reliable predictors of pupil success or risk for school failure. These questionnaire items consistently explained about 50% of the variance in all equations.

HUGHES, MARIE TEJERO. (1995, December). Parental involvement in literacy: Views of Hispanic parents of children with learning disabilities. *Florida Reading Quarterly, 32*, 27–29.

Conducts interviews with Hispanic parents of children with learning disabilities to learn how they assist their children in literacy instruction at home and what literacy activities they perceive as desirable and feasible for them to do. Participants were 10 parents randomly chosen from all Hispanic parents who had LD children in grades 3 through 5 attending one school. The school's population was over 50% Hispanic. Parent interviews were conducted by telephone in Spanish and lasted approximately 30 minutes. The interviews were audiotaped and transcribed. The interviews indicated that the parent valued literacy activities in the home and that they were implementing a variety of them. They found home literacy activities useful for their children to learn to read and write, and they were willing to engage in literacy activities with their children. The parents expressed the need for more communication with the school and said they were willing to do more if the school suggested activities to work on at home.

MISHEFF, SUE. (1994, September). Perspectives of children in Guatemala. *Hispania, 77*, 524–531.

Describes the current status of children's literacy and literature in Guatemala. Data were collected through nonparticipant observations and interviews with the very few Guatemalan writers, booksellers, and publishers. It also discusses the high level of illiteracy and the social economic attitudes toward reading in Spanish, English, and Mayan. In addition, it includes a review of the most popular titles and authors in Guatemala.

KASPER, LORETTA F. (1996, December/1997, January). Using discipline-based texts to boost college ESL reading instruction. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy, 39*, 298–306.

Explores an alternate way of improving ESL reading comprehension in a community college in New York City. In a previous study the author concluded that pairing an academic course with a reading course can improve ESL student reading. This conclusion was based on the significant difference between the percentage of students in the 2 courses who passed the tests—a paired reading course (94%) and a nonpaired course (42%). Although these results are promising, financial concerns run against implementation. For this study, 2 analytical reading sections of 32 students each participated. One group took an analytical reading course paired with an introductory psychology course, whereas the other was nonpaired but structured around the same discipline-based material. Results revealed nonsignificant differences between the reading scores in the other 2 tests taken by the experimental groups. An additional comparison between the experimental groups' reading test scores and other analytical reading sections' scores of the college was conducted. Results showed that the experimental groups did better than the control groups. The questionnaire answers at the end of the course suggest that students in the experimental groups were very pleased by their linguistic and academic growth. The article closes with a discussion on the causes of this growth.

PEREZ, BERTHA. (1996). Instructional conversations as opportunities for language acquisition for culturally and linguistically diverse students. *Language Arts, 73*, 173–181.

Describes a classroom activity to promote instructional conversations about concrete, contextualized learning experiences in order for students to form their own oral texts instead of being subjected to lessons on how to talk. In this activity, teacher and students are engaged as partners in the pursuit of some new understanding. Sixteen second and third grade

limited-English-proficient children participated in this study in an ESL classroom in San José, California. Children listed several topics they were interested in discussing. The teacher developed a social context for one topic every day and started the conversation by giving her views on the topic and providing pupils with useful vocabulary. Then, she allowed children to take control of the conversation and to negotiate their meanings. The teacher became a scaffold for students. In the 2 episodes analyzed in the article, children engaged in social interactions to solve a situation that could happen in everyday life. Simultaneously, the conversation assisted second language development. Through these conversations, the teacher provided linguistic modeling, content knowledge departing from students' background knowledge, experiences, opinions, and culture. Children were able to discover new ideas and formulate their own theories while developing their second language skills.

PEACOCK, ALAN. (1995). An agenda for research on text material in primary science for second language learners of English in developing countries. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development, 16*, 389–401.

Describes and explains 6 features of educational systems in developing countries in Africa that need to be researched to find ways to improve science instruction in primary schools. Aspects needing improvement are teacher quality, cultural appropriateness of materials, language of instruction, textual and structural complexity, science content, and learning context. Teachers do not have sufficient knowledge of content, advanced skills in the language of instruction, or sufficient training or qualifications. Most of them have only primary or secondary education. Thus, they rely heavily on textbooks written in a foreign language and developed by nonresident writers whose knowledge of their culture is minimal. In the sample textbooks analyzed, language was far beyond students' abilities. For example, 38% to 55% of the vocabulary was completely new to students. Further, current literature demonstrated that science books are textually, graphically, and structurally too complex for speakers of native languages. Children from developing countries find these complexities overwhelming, especially because of an inefficient teacher mediation. Science content also is unfamiliar to both teachers' and students' experiences. Finally, classrooms of 50–80 students, that lack essential teaching materials and that rely heavily on teacher talk, rote memory, recitation, and repetition are not an appropriate context to develop problem solving skills in science.

V–12 Tests and testing

GAMBRELL, LINDA B.; PALMER, BARBARA MARTIN; CODLING, ROSE MARIE; & MAZZONI, SUSAN ANDERS. (1996, April). Assessing motivation to read. *The Reading Teacher, 49*, 518–533.

Describes the development of a public domain instrument designed to provide teachers with an efficient and reliable way to quantitatively and qualitatively assess reading motivation. The Reading Survey of the Motivation to Read Profile (MRP) assesses 2 specific dimensions of reading motivation: self-concept as a reader and the value of reading. The Reading Survey section consists of 20 items and uses a 4-point response scale. The Conversational Interview is made up of questions in three sections: probing motivational factors related to the reading of narrative and informational texts, general and specific reading experiences, and home-school reading practices. An initial pool of survey items was developed based on criteria of applicability across grades, teaching approaches and materials, suitability for group administration, and accuracy in reflecting the dimensions of motivation. The test was administered in late fall and early spring to 330 third and fifth graders in 17 classrooms from two districts. Cronbach's alpha revealed a moderately high reliability for both subscales (self-con-

cept = .75; value = .82). Pre- and posttest reliability coefficients were calculated for the subscales (self-concept = .68; value = .70), again confirming the moderately high reliability. Interview questions were also field tested with a stratified random sample of 48 highly motivated and least motivated third and fifth grade pupils. From analysis of the protocols, 2 graduate students selected 14 questions that yielded the most useful information about pupils' motivation to read. Two raters independently compared each child's responses to items on the survey with information provided during the interview. The results supported the belief that the children responded consistently on both types of assessments (survey and interview) and across time (fall and spring). When teachers categorized their pupils as having low, average, or high reading performance, statistically significant differences were found among the mean scores on the self-concept measure for low, middle, and high reading achievement groups, revealing that scores were positively associated with levels of reading achievement.

HOFFMAN, JAMES V.; WORTHY, JO; ROSER, NANCY L.; MCKOOL, SHARON S.; RUTHERFORD, WILLIAM L.; & STRECKER, SUSAN K. (1996). Performance assessment in first-grade classrooms: The PALM model. In Donald J. Leu, Charles K. Kinzer, & Kathleen A. Hinchman (Eds.), *Literacies for the 21st century: Research and practice* (pp. 100–112). Chicago, IL: National Reading Conference.

Tests the effectiveness of an alternative assessment model, Primary Assessment of Language Arts and Mathematics (PALM). Participants in the evaluation study were 20 teachers involved in the PALM project and their 342 first grade pupils. A comparison group of 20 teachers and 312 pupils was identified also. The PALM model draws on the performance assessment perspective and emphasizes the use of authentic assessment strategies. Three types of performance assessment tasks were developed for the PALM model: (1) curriculum-embedded assessments—a systematic collection and evaluation of work samples, observations, and anecdotes; (2) "taking a closer look" assessments—learner specific informal assessments such as IRIS, running records, miscue analysis, think alouds, interviews, and probes; and (3) demand assessments—data gathered within a particular time frame under prescribed conditions using same tasks and materials for all participants. Classroom observations of the administration of demand assessments and end-of-the year interviews with PALM teachers and comparison teachers were conducted. As part of the interview process, teachers in both groups ranked their pupils based on perceived skill level in math, writing, and reading. These rankings were compared to scores achieved on the respective subtests of the ITBS. Implementation of some components of the model presented a greater challenge to teachers than did others. Most teachers described the actual documentation of pupil behaviors as difficult. All PALM teachers reported that the model required a greater investment of time and energy than the ITBS, but they found the results worth it. All teachers described their teaching as more effective as a result of using the model. No teacher in the PALM group or the comparison group viewed the ITBS results as a positive influence on their teaching. A regression analysis was performed using variables representing key elements of the PALM model to predict the reading score derived from the ITBS. Results suggested a strong relation between PALM model scores and the ITBS reading subtest scores.

YOPP, HALLIE KAY. (1995, September). A test for assessing phonemic awareness in young children. *The Reading Teacher, 49*, 20–29.

Offers a tool for assessing phonemic awareness along with evidence of its reliability and validity. The instrument itself is a 22-item, orally administered scale designed to determine whether children can separately articulate the sounds of a spoken word in order. Words were selected for inclusion on the basis of feature analysis and familiarity. The complete Yopp–Singer Test of Phoneme Segmentation is administered individually and requires about

5 to 10 minutes per child. As the test is administered, children are given appropriate feedback. A child's score is the number of items correctly segmented. Coefficients of correlation are presented between children's performance on the Yopp–Singer test and a nonword reading test administered in kindergarten, as well as subtests of the CTBS administered to the same children from grades 1 to 6; coefficients with the pupils' spelling ability were computed for grades 2 to 6. Each of the coefficients was significant: Performance on the Yopp–Singer test had a moderate to strong relation with performance on the nonword reading test and with the word attack, vocabulary, comprehension, and spelling subtests of the CTBS. When partial time-lag coefficients were computed, most of the correlation coefficients remained significant, revealing that scores on the Yopp–Singer test made a unique contribution to predicting reading and spelling achievement beyond previous achievement in those areas.

MAJSTEREK, DAVID J., & ELLENWOOD, AUDREY E. (1995, August/September). Phonological awareness and beginning reading: Evaluation of a school-based screening procedure. *Journal of Learning Disabilities, 28*, 449–456.

Describes a longitudinal study designed to determine the predictive power of 2 experimental screening measures of phonological awareness with prekindergarten pupils. The sample included 76 children who were screened for kindergarten in one school district serving middle class families. At the time of the kindergarten screening, the pupils ranged in age from 55 months to 68 months. The study included 5 data collection phases. In the spring of 1990, each preschooler was screened with 2 phonological awareness procedures (rhyme detection and sound blending). At the end of kindergarten, the pupils were evaluated with an interim measure of sound–symbol relations. In addition, kindergarten teacher reports of each child's mastery of upper- and lowercase letter names were gathered from school records. In the spring of 1992, scores from the reading portions of the end-of-first-grade ITBS were collected. In November of second grade, teachers were asked to rate each pupil as reading below-, at- or above-grade level. At the end of second grade (1993), all participants were given the PPVT-R, 2 subtests of the WRMT-R (Word Identification and Word Attack), and the Mathematic Computation subtest of the Kaufman Test of Educational Achievement. Pearson product-moment multiple coefficients of correlation were computed to determine the relation between performances on the screening and interim measures and the end-of-second grade outcomes. The first experimental task, a phonological-synthesis task (sound blending), was significantly but modestly related to most of the interim and outcome measures. The phonological-analysis task (rhyme detection) was related to fewer measures of beginning reading.

STUART, MORAG. (1995, September). Prediction and qualitative assessment of five- and six-year-old children's reading: A longitudinal study. *British Journal of Educational Psychology, 65*, 287–296.

Presents data from a longitudinal study comparing two screening batteries, one based on Reading Recovery screening procedures and one on a set of phonological awareness and sound-to-letter tasks, to identify which children might be at risk of failing to learn to read successfully, which children could be identified in the first term of school, whether screening in the first school term was as efficient as end-of-year screening, and whether a single test from either of the 2 batteries could be identified as an accurate screening measure. Thirty children ages 4.7 to 5.2, 19 girls and 11 boys, were assessed during their first term at school. Ten screening tests were administered, as was the British Ability Scales Single Word Reading Test (BAS). At the end of the first year of school, subjects completed 4 of the 5 RR tests, 2 of the phonological battery, a test of reading nonwords, and the BAS. Data suggested a significant relation between the 2 test batteries ($r = .78$) and significant coefficients with reading ages on the BAS outcome. A series of partial correlation coefficients were carried out, controlling for

early reading ability. Six tests significantly predicted reading ages at the end of the year when reading ages at the beginning of the year were controlled. Sound-to-letter matching served as the overall best predictor. Only one subtest, the Dictation Screen Test, had a significantly improved coefficient of correlation if given at the end of the year. The results suggest that earlier screening is as effective as screening administered later. Follow up 7 months' later indicated that children who had learned phonological recoding processes continued to show greater reading gains over those who relied heavily on lexical skills.

STRONG, SUE, & SEXTON, LARRY C. (1996, Winter). Kentucky performance assessment of reading: Valid? *Contemporary Education, 67*, 102–106.

Suggests that the Kentucky Instructional Results Information System (KIRIS) is more expensive in cost and time than traditional assessment, has limited reliability and validity, and may have little use as a measure for state accountability and high-stakes decisions about Kentucky learners. Data comparing performance on the KIRIS open-response reading assessment and the ACT reading multiple-choice assessment were collected from 33 schools representative of the state. Papers were collected from 2,668 seniors. When comparing scores, the researchers concluded that the KIRIS scores and the ACT scores were often in disagreement, especially for students at the novice and apprentice levels. At the upper performance levels, more agreement was found between performances.

CARVAJAL, HOWARD; SCHRADER, MATTHEW S.; & HOLMES, COOPER B. (1996, February). Retest reliability of the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale–Revised for 18- to 19-year olds. *Psychological Reports, 78*, 211–214.

Estimates the retest reliability of the WAIS-R for 44 18- to 19-year-old undergraduate volunteers enrolled in a midwestern U.S. university. Subjects (15 males, 29 females; 38 Caucasians, 2 African Americans, and 4 Hispanics) took the test twice, with 2 to 8 weeks between testings. Mean scores on subtests and IQs and on coefficients of correlation of subtest scores and IQs were similar to values obtained in earlier norming by Wechsler for subjects ages 25 to 34 and 45 to 54. Data suggest the stability and reliability of the instrument for the 18- to 19-year-old age group.

PHELPS, LEADELLE. (1996, January). Discriminative validity of the WRAML with ADHD and LD children. *Psychology in the Schools, 33*, 5–12.

Reports the relation of Wide Range Assessment of Memory and Learning (WRAML) scores to WISC-III and Woodcock-Johnson Psycho-Educational Tests Battery–Revised (WJ-R) scores for 3 groups: 40 LD children with reading difficulties, 40 ADHD children, and 40 nonhandicapped children. All were referred to a private clinic for psychoeducational assessment. Subjects were Caucasian children, 36 females and 84 males, ages 6–18. All completed the three assessments in counterbalanced order over a 2-week period. No significant differences were found between ADHD and nonhandicapped children on any of the WISC-III, WJ-R, or WRAML scales. Significant differences were found between WJ-R Reading and Written Language, with LD students scoring lower than the ADHD and nonhandicapped groups. Significant coefficients were found across most scales, but not for the Learning subscale. Discriminant function analysis suggests the WRAML provides little distinguishing information for ADHD and LD children and does not aid in diagnostic decision making for educational and clinical interventions. Inclusion of working memory tasks might assist in identification of processing weaknesses for ADHD and LD students.

BAKER, SCOTT K., & GOOD, ROLAND. (1995). Curriculum-based measurement of English reading with bilingual Hispanic students: A validation study with second-grade students. *School Psychology Review, 24*(4), 561–578.

Investigates the reliability, validity, and sensitivity of curriculum-based measurement (CBM) reading in English with bilingual Hispanic children. For 10 weeks, 50 second grade bilingual pupils and 26 pupils who spoke English only were administered CBM English reading measures twice weekly. On CBM English reading measures, children read aloud for 1 minute from passages selected randomly from their general reading curriculum. The number of words read correctly provided a measure of reading proficiency. A criterion for inclusion in the study was that pupils must read an average of 20 words per minute correctly. Reliability of the CBM reading was compared between the groups with respect to the level of pupil performance and rate of progress. Evidence for the convergent and discriminant validity of the CBM reading for bilingual Hispanic children was evaluated using criterion measures of English reading and language proficiency, including performance on the SDRT and Teacher Ratings of English Reading and English. Sensitivity was evaluated by comparing the English reading progress of the 2 groups during the 13-week study. Results indicated that CBM reading in English was as reliable and valid for bilingual children as for English-only pupils and was sensitive to the reading progress of bilingual children. Pupils in both groups read approximately the same number of words correctly throughout the study. The construct validity of CBM reading as a measure of general reading proficiency in English was supported. By contrast, pupils in the English-only group scored significantly higher on both the SDRT total and the SDRT reading comprehension subtest. In addition, teachers rated the reading and language competence of English-only pupils as significantly higher than bilingual children.

SIMPSON, ROBERT G., & HALPIN, GERALD. (1995, August). Psychometric effects of altering the ceiling criterion on the Passage Comprehension Test of the Woodcock-Johnson Psycho-Educational Battery–Revised. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 55*, 630–636.

Analyzes the effects of altering the ceiling criterion when administering the Passage Comprehension test of the WJ-R and the significance of relaxing the ceiling criterion on the number of administered items required to establish a ceiling. Subjects, 77 elementary and middle school children from 2 school districts, completed the WJ-R to determine their eligibility for special education services. Ages ranged from 7.11 to 12.10 years. Full-scale IQs ranged from 71 to 137. For each subject the Passage Comprehension test was rescored, employing 3 different ceiling criteria: 5 consecutive errors, 5 errors in 6 consecutive responses, and 5 errors in 7 consecutive responses. These were compared with scores obtained following the procedures in the WJ-R test manual. There was a strong relation between raw scores obtained using all 4 scoring methods. There were consistent coefficients of correlation between each group of raw scores and scores on a full-scale IQ. There was no change in rank order scores from one method of scoring to another. Reliability and validity of obtained raw scores were virtually unaffected by using any of the alternative methods. Relaxing the ceiling criterion reduced the number of items needed to establish a ceiling, without affecting the psychometric properties of the test. The researchers conclude that using less stringent ceiling criteria might result in less pupil frustration and more efficient use of testing time, without loss of psychometric quality.

MARTENS, BRIAN K.; STEELE, EMILY S.; MASSIE, DOREEN R.; & DISKIN, MAUREEN T. (1995, Winter). Curriculum bias in standardized tests of reading decoding. *Journal of School Psychology, 33*, 287–296.

Examines the overlap among 4 basal reading programs from commercial publishers and the phonetic analysis subtests of 3 standardized achievement measures (the Word Attack subtest of the WRMT-R, the Word Analysis subtest of the CAT, and 10 of the 12 word analysis and phonics subtests from the Diagnostic Reading Scales (DRS)). Raw scores, percentages, grade equivalents, and percentile scores were computed for a hypothetical pupil who had mas-

tered all grapheme-phoneme correspondences taught at each grade level. Each item was scored according to the criteria, pronunciation guide, and ceiling rules presented in the administration and scoring manuals for each test. Programs differed in the number and sequence of phonics skills taught. Percentiles and grade-equivalent scores differed across programs at each grade level for a given test. In addition, the proportion of grade-equivalent scores occurring at or above expected grade levels varied across tests for a given program (range = 29% to 71%). Findings question the degree of overlap between commercial reading programs and standardized reading tests. The WRMT-R tended to produce the highest grade-equivalent scores regardless of the curriculum. The researchers conclude that lack of curriculum-test overlap in standardized tests of reading decoding may result in biased estimates of children's reading skills and that considerable variability exists among standardized measures for sampling reading decoding skills. They suggest caution in using standardized reading measures to determine level of achievement in a given curriculum.

JOSHI, R. MALATESHA. (1995). Assessing reading and spelling skills. *School Psychology Review, 24*, 361–375.

Discusses various components of the reading process at various stages of development along with ideal ways of assessing these components as indicated by current research. Reviewed and evaluated are a variety of formal and informal reading achievement and diagnostic tests to determine how they assess reading and spelling.

MCKINNEY, MARILYN OHLHAUSEN; PERKINS, PEGGY G.; & JONES, W. PAUL. (1995). Evaluating the use of self-assessment portfolios in a literacy methods class. *Reading Research and Instruction, 35*(1), 19–36.

Evaluates both the process and the use of portfolios as assessment instruments in an undergraduate literacy methods block. As a course requirement, students kept portfolios in which they set goals and looked at themselves as language users, emerging teachers, and learners. The portfolios included student-selected materials such as reflective journal pages, books read, drafts of teaching philosophies, midterm synthesis papers, and samples of children's work. The evaluation comprised 3 phases: development of evaluation criteria, outside reviewers' evaluation of portfolios, and peer evaluation of portfolios and the process. Data sources for the study included 8 student portfolios, audiotapes/transcripts of portfolio conferences, drafts of student and instructor-generated criteria for grades/evaluation, course evaluations, observation notes from the 2 external reviewers, and notes from the group evaluation. Findings were organized into strengths and concerns with the process and strengths and concerns with self-assessment portfolios as a form of evaluation. Strengths included allowing students to take ownership of their learning and to connect learning and assessment, to stimulate thinking, to grow in understanding of the process, to take opportunities for reflection and control over grades, to encourage honesty, and to see the potential use of portfolios with future students. Concerns included the ambiguity and novelty of the process, time factors, deciding when learning occurs, drawing comparisons among portfolios, and seeing the need for multiple measures.

MILLER, KARLA, & HUSTED, BARBARA. (1996, April). Scaffolded instruction in the development of scoring rubrics: Involvement of teachers, students, and parents. *Literacy: Issues and Practices, 13*, 45–55.

Provides a model of how to involve children in the assessment and evaluation processes and describes the program as used in 2 second grade classrooms. Rubrics, defined as a scaled set of criteria that offer pupils a range of acceptable and unacceptable performance at various levels of proficiency, were used to involve children in the assessment and evaluation processes. The teachers began by offering teacher-developed rubrics to pupils and gradually

getting them to develop their own set. At the end of the school year, pupils developed and took home their rubric and work on a unit for parents to score, comment on, and justify their assessments. The author-teachers offer some of the benefits of using rubrics, including an increased awareness by pupils of the connection between grades on the scoring rubric and grades on the report card. It is also felt that the use of rubrics permits pupils to know what the expectations are; affords pupils ownership over their own learning; gets pupils more motivated; and permits pupils, parents, and teachers to work together.

GORDON, CLAIRE M., & HANAUER, DAVID. (1995, Summer). The interaction between task and meaning construction in EFL reading comprehension tests. *Tesol Quarterly, 29*, 299–324.

Investigates the relation between meaning construction and testing tasks on EFL reading comprehension tests. The authors hypothesized that testing tasks (multiple-choice and open-ended questions) influence the construction of meaning in a reading comprehension test. The 28 Israeli tenth graders serving as subjects were selected based on performance on classroom reading comprehension tests and teacher recommendations. Subjects read a short expository text in English followed by 8 comprehension questions. Students received one of four versions of the test questions, with two questions appearing in each of the following formats: multiple-choice in Hebrew, multiple-choice in English, open-ended in Hebrew, and open-ended in English. Following training in the think-aloud technique, students read the text, were asked to verbalize their understanding of it, and were asked to verbalize their thoughts as they answered the 8 questions. Results indicated that testing tasks provide additional clues and support to the construction of the test taker's mental model. Analysis of protocols revealed that the testing tasks were found to interact with the students' think-aloud meaning construction in 4 ways: (1) integrating new information into an existing structure (40% of interactions), (2) constructing a new structure (4%), (3) confirming an existing structure (51%), and (4) newly integrating existing structures (5%). Additionally, it was found that multiple-choice tasks provided more information than open-ended questions, thus influencing even more the construction and modification of the mental model. Responses were based on knowledge sources such as text, world, language, and test tasks.

BISESI, TANJA L. (1996). Upper-elementary students' written responses to text: A holistic scoring rubric for evaluating journal entries. In Donald J. Leu, Charles K. Kinzer, & Kathleen A. Hinchman (Eds.), *Literacies for the 21st century: Research and practice* (pp. 76–87). Chicago, IL: National Reading Conference.

Evaluates a holistic scoring rubric designed to assess upper elementary pupils' journal writing quality. Participants included 1 fourth grade and 1 fifth grade teacher and their 77 pupils. Both had implemented the literature-based curriculum, Book Club, which was designed to integrate the language processes through reding narrative and informational texts, writing in response journals, and talking in small-group and whole-class settings. A performance-based assessment was developed and aligned with Book Club curriculum. Journal-entry data collection took place during the 6-day performance assessment administered at the end of the school year. Children read informational text, novel chapters, and a short story. After reading the selection for the day, and prior to their small group discussions, pupils wrote for 10–15 minutes in their response journals. The use of teacher prompts was counterbalanced so that each child responded to a prompt on 1 of 2 days of each event with an open response on the other day. Supplementary data sources included field notes and teacher interview transcripts. Findings revealed that the rubric's performance criteria and holistic scores provided a reliable and valid means of evaluating the quality of journal writing for this sample. An examination of scores with and without teacher prompts yielded no significant dif-

ferences, suggesting that more teacher support does not lead to better performance. Further evidence is provided to support the validity of the rubric for differentiating between levels of performance quality by grade and genre.

RIDGEWAY, VICTORIA. (1995). The use of cloze as a measure of interactive use of prior knowledge and comprehension strategies. In Wayne M. Linek & Elizabeth G. Sturtevant (Eds.), *Generations of literacy* (pp. 26–34). Harrisonburg, VA: College Reading Association.

Validates an instrument designed to assess the use of prior knowledge and comprehension strategies. Subjects were 8 undergraduate students enrolled in content area reading classes required for secondary education degrees. Participants were given a cloze test based on a natural text passage taken from an introductory-level college biology textbook with the first and last sentences of the passage left intact. A total of 50 words were deleted, every seventh word after a first-word random deletion. Technical terms specific to biology comprised 36% of the deletions. Students were asked to complete the test orally and to think aloud as they did. Transcriptions of subjects' think-aloud sessions were analyzed for use of context clues, syntax, and prior knowledge. Students who primarily used one information source, either context clues or prior knowledge, correctly supplied answers for less than 40% of the deletions, indicating a frustration reading level. In contrast, students who evidenced the use of multiple sources of information scored between 40% and 60%. Students who reported the use of more than one source of knowledge simultaneously scored the highest on the cloze test. It was concluded that, when constructed from naturally occurring expository text, the cloze instrument represents a viable measure of the interactive use of prior knowledge and comprehension strategies.

BEAN, RITA M.; LAZAR, MERYL K.; JOHNSON, RHONDA S.; BURNS, DOROTHY D.; COX, RICHARD C.; LANE, SUZANNE; & ZIGMOND, NAOMIE. (1996). The ALERT: One answer to literacy screening. In Martha D. Collins & Barbara G. Moss (Eds.), *Literacy assessment for today's schools* (pp. 217–226). Harrisonburg, VA: College Reading Association.

Presents a screening device, the Adult Literacy Employment-Related Tasks (ALERT), designed for workplace settings to identify employees needing further testing and possible instruction in reading, math, and writing. The ALERT comprises an expository reading passage with a maze format, a series of math problems requiring basic computational skills, and a work-related writing prompt. The validation and normative samples were adults working in local companies, those involved with service organizations, those enrolled in adult education programs and college, and those in screening and career development programs. The majority of the normative group were employed (56%), were females (61%), and ranged between 22 and 34 years of age. Forty-nine percent were African American. Education levels varied. Demographics for the validity group were similar. Over a 4-month period, the ALERT was administered to the 603 adults in the normative group, and both the ALERT and the CAT were administered to the 98 adults in the validity group. Criterion-related validity was determined by correlating results on the ALERT subtests with performance on 3 subtests of the CAT, Level 18. Correlation coefficients were $r = .79$ for reading, $r = .66$ for math, and $r = .49$ for writing. Recommendations included the use of two reading passages rather than one in order to provide students with more experience with the cloze procedure and opportunity to read different content. Second, the 80-item math test should be administered as two 40-item tests. It was felt that the ALERT format can be used to customize the measure to mirror workplace-related tasks.

V–13 Technology and reading instruction

GUTHRIE, LARRY F., & RICHARDSON, SUSAN. (1995, October). Computer literacy in the primary grades. *Educational Leadership, 53*, 60–63.

Reports the role of educational technology in educational reform in kindergarten through second grade classrooms in 4 schools across the country. In the first year of a 3-year longitudinal study, the researchers offer early findings on the changes that take place for teachers and learners in classrooms that introduce and use technology. Although visits to more than 50 classrooms revealed that no two teachers were using software in exactly the same way, the researchers observed its use to support individual learning and writing, as well as in peer collaborations and communication. All teachers in the study participated in a series of staff development sessions, ranging from 2 to several days of on-site assistance and consultation. Preliminary findings show that children are motivated to use computers, whether to complete assignments or to engage in self-selected activities. Teachers agreed that pupils were more eager to develop their written products and to produce longer efforts at the computer than if they were using only handwriting.

MEDWELL, JANE. (1996, April). Talking books and reading. *Reading, 30*, 41–46.

Investigates the use of electronic books on learning to read. The study involved 4 vertically grouped infant classes in 2 British schools with 8 children from each classroom selected as the sample. Children read 4 books, one with each of the following 4 types of intervention: (1) no support between readings, (2) electronic book of the same text used between readings, (3) teacher support between readings, and (4) electronic book and teacher support between readings. Following each intervention, children read the story orally; increase in word accuracy and understanding were assessed. Although there was some improvement in word accuracy in context under all conditions, a greater percentage of improvement was found with interventions involving the talking books than in the other two. Word recognition out of context showed the greatest percentage improvement when the talking book and teacher support were used together. Boys showed a greater increase in accuracy than did girls.

ALVAREZ, MARINO C. (1996). Explorers of the Universe—students using the world wide web to improve their reading and writing. In Bobbie Neate (Ed.), *Literacy Saves Lives* (pp. 140–145) Herts, UK: United Kingdom Reading Association.

Gives a brief report of the preliminary findings of an action research project, Explorers of the Universe, in which students use Internet connections to gather information and communicate ideas. The project involved astronomy teachers and their high school students. Seven students in grades 9–12, enrolled in an astronomy class, piloted the study. Students worked in 2 teams of 2 and 1 team of 3 in the initial phase of the project. As a result of using the Internet, students became more critical of their written text displayed on the World Wide Web (www). Preliminary findings indicated that the students related new information to their existing world knowledge, analyzed their sources more carefully and attempted to identify new sources of information, broadened their knowledge in specific areas, and began to realize that facts are temporary and answers not absolute. The students used the www to conduct research, publish information, and make inquiries to specific individuals. The Web was used like the library except that students were able to contact authors of Web documents directly in order to clarify questions or obtain additional information. The textbooks became a resource as opposed to the source of science information.

MATTHEW, KATHRYN. (1996, February). What do children think of CD-ROM storybooks? *Texas Reading Report, 18*, 6.

Summarizes the opinions of 47 third grade readers when asked to read and comprehend 6 stories on CD-ROM. Before reading, children were told they would both write answers to questions about the story and write a story retelling. In general, the children favored the CD-ROM stories over the print version. Among the features mentioned favorably were the computer reading aloud, the computer making reading fun, the opportunity to read along with the computer, and the multiple voices in the computer versions. Students also mentioned favorably the word pronunciation feature, the provision of definitions, and the interactive features. They recognized that the animation and sound effects could both enhance and interfere with comprehension.

GREENLEE-MOORE, MARILYN E., & SMITH, LAWRENCE L. (1996, January/March). Interactive computer software: The effects on young children's reading achievement. *Reading Psychology, 17*, 43–64.

Investigates whether reading narratives from interactive CD-ROM technology displayed on the computer affects children's abilities to answer comprehension questions about the texts. The subjects were 31 above-average fourth graders selected from 2 intact classrooms. Each classroom comprised a study group. Scores on the ITBS were used to identify above-average readers; *t* tests confirmed that the abilities of the 2 classroom groups were not different. One group of 14 read narratives from the printed pages of actual books, while the other group of 17 read the same narratives from CD-ROM software displayed on the computer screen. Seven narratives were selected for this study. Five were categorized as shorter and easier, with mean readability grade equivalent scores of 3, 5, and 6; two were categorized as longer and more difficult, with a mean readability score of grade seven. The dependent variable was scores on paper-administered comprehension tests comprised of 6 multiple-choice questions for each book. Both groups participated in 7 sessions, and one book and test was completed in each. A 3-way ANOVA on comprehension scores revealed that reading from computers increased comprehension scores when subjects were reading longer and more difficult narratives. Results indicated no difference when the 2 treatment groups were reading shorter and easier narratives.

CHU, MEEI-LING LIAW. (1995, Summer). Reader response to interactive computer books: Examining literary responses in a non-traditional reading setting. *Reading Research and Instruction, 34*, 352–366.

Investigates the types of literary response and the reader behaviors of 3 first grade boys as they responded to interactive computer books. The boys were advanced readers in their classes, all reading at or above grade level. Five interactive computer books, all versions of well-known children's literature, were read on 5 consecutive days. When all had finished a book, all participated in a group discussion, responding freely to what they had read. Literary responses, which included verbal and nonverbal behaviors exhibited by the boys while reading and during group responses after reading, were recorded by video camera. Field notes were taken while subjects were reading. Discussions were transcribed verbatim. All children demonstrated high interest in the books, with response patterns differing for each child and for different texts. Transcriptions indicated that children retold parts of the story; compared details, pictures, characters, and events; judged character actions; and made inferences and rationalizations to resolve the fantasies in the stories, suggesting that transactional reading experiences can take place in electronic reading environments.

MCCULLOUGH, C. SUE. (1995). Using computer technology to monitor student progress and remediate reading problems. *School Psychology Review, 24*(3), 426–439.

Reports research on assistive technology applications demonstrated to be effective in monitoring student progress and remediating reading and learning disabilities. Among the applications reviewed were computer assistive tools; speech recognition systems such as speech synthesizers or digitizers; optical character recognition systems; hypermedia, hypertext, and responsive text; and software for word recognition, spelling and vocabulary knowledge, and reading comprehension. Overall benefits of technology and areas of concern are cited.

BARKER, THEODORE ALLEN, & TORGESEN, JOSEPH K. (1995). An evaluation of computer-assisted instruction in phonological awareness with below average readers. *Journal of Educational Computing Research, 13*(1), 89–103.

Evaluates the use of computer-assisted instruction (CAI) to enhance the phonological awareness skills of 54 at-risk first graders, ranging in ages from 6.2 to 7.8 years. Children who scored in the 40th percentile or lower on the Word Identification subtest and below the 50th percentile on the Sound Categorization subtest from the Woodcock Reading Mastery Test were included in the study. A battery of pretests administered to all participants included tests of segmenting, blending, deleting, and categorizing sounds, as well as tests of word analysis, word identification, nonword reading, and general vocabulary. The first of 3 experimental groups received training with 2 phonological awareness computer programs approximately 25 minutes a day, 4 days a week, over an 8-week period. The second group received the same amount of training with a program designed to teach alphabetic decoding skills. The third group spent equal time on the computer with several programs designed to provide practice on basic math skills. The children exposed to phonological awareness training programs made significantly greater improvements on several measures of phonological awareness and on a measure of word recognition when compared with children in the other 2 groups. Tentative conclusions are drawn about the use of CAI as a means of training phonological awareness skills with at-risk students.

MONTALI, JULIE, & LEWANDOWSKI, LAWRENCE. (1996, May). Bimodal reading: Benefits of a talking computer for average and less skilled readers. *Journal of Learning Disabilities, 29*, 271–279.

Examines the effects of reading prose bimodally on comprehension of average and less skilled readers. Participating in the study were two groups of 18 students with average ability, one consisting of readers with average skills and the other of readers who were less skilled. All students were in sixth, eighth, or ninth grade in a central New York school district. Students were presented science and social studies passages displayed on a computer monitor in three conditions: visually (on the screen), auditorially (read by a digitized voice), and bimodally (highlighted on screen while being voiced). After each passage presentation, students were asked to respond to 10 short answer comprehension questions. Findings of a 2(Group: average, less skilled readers) × 3(Level: Grades 6, 8, 9) × 3(Condition: auditory, visual, bimodal) ANOVA revealed that less skilled readers benefited most from bimodal presentations. Bimodal reading enabled less skilled readers to perform at a level commensurate with average readers in the visual condition. Additionally, less skilled readers reported feeling more successful with reading comprehension when information was presented bimodally.

KRASHEN, STEPHEN. (1996, Winter). Computerized reading management systems: More effective than what? *The California Reader, 29*, 7–8.

Compares the costs of computerized management systems that evaluate and reward children's wide reading performance with the costs of programs that foster wide reading by expanding classroom libraries and providing for free reading time. Much of the research cited demonstrates that, regardless of grade level, accessibility to books and provision of time promote extensive reading. In addition, such programs are less expensive, although comput-

ers and software directed at encouraging wide reading are attractive to children and encourage reading as well.

SHEN, VICTOR TIEN-CHENG. (1996). The role of hypertext as an interactional medium among fifth-grade students. In Donald J. Leu, Charles K. Kinzer, & Kathleen A. Hinchman (Eds.), *Literacies for the 21st century: Research and practice* (pp. 484–499). Chicago, IL: National Reading Conference.

Reports on how a hypertext system can serve as a medium of reader interaction through the exchange of questions, responses, and comments. Data for the study came from the Hypertext Literacy Project set up for the purpose of dissertation research on the role of hypertext links and social interaction in using hypertexts. The subjects were 10 children recruited from a fifth grade classroom. Project pupils met with the researcher individually and in pairs 1 to 2 times a week in their classroom or the school library. During this time, children used a researcher-provided multimedia computer system to interact with hypermedia applications and learn a hypertext authoring tool in order to develop a hypertext system centered around Native Americans. Throughout the study, children's work from the classroom (posters, homework assignments, and reports) were imported into the hypertext system. The project ran for 17 weeks with an average of 15 hours of computer use for each child. Sources of data included participant observation in the classroom, interviews, and pupils' work and records audiotaped and videotaped. Findings indicated that the hypertext environment proved flexible and permeable. It allowed children to add topics to the hypertext easily, topics which normally would not be found together in a traditional book. Eventually the hypertext environment in the computer became an electronic interaction space for users. The interactional process was served mainly by 3 functions: writability, juxtaposition, and electronic linking. Limitations inherent in the use of hypertext as an interaction medium included slowness of keyboarding and the amount of time between posting a question or an opinion and obtaining a response.

VI Reading of atypical learners

VI–1 Visually impaired

SAMPAIO, ELIANA, & PHILIP, JEAN. (1995, August). Influences of age at onset of blindness on Braille reading performances with left and right hands. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, *81*, 131–141.

Compares the effects of early and late total blindness on a Braille reading task. Two groups of totally blind individuals were compared, a group of blind at birth subjects ($n = 21$) and a group of subjects who became blind during childhood before learning to read and write ($n = 17$). All subjects were right-handed and had learned Braille bimanually. Two practice lists and two experimental lists of words were prepared, with each experimental list consisting of 10 five-letter words printed in unabbreviated Braille. Subjects were asked to read the first list with the preferred hand and the second list with the nonpreferred hand. Reading time was analyzed. Five subjects showed no hand preference when asked to read with only one hand; the remaining subjects were grouped by hand preference for reading. The blind-during-childhood group was quicker than the blind-at-birth group. Among the blind-at-birth, a significant hand superiority was found for the preferred hand in unimanual reading; among those who had become blind during childhood, no manual superiority was found. The au-

thors concluded that early visual experience influenced later performance in reading Braille both in terms of speed and in the determination of manual asymmetries.

BAKER, C.P.; KOENIG, A.J.; & SOWELL, V.M. (1995, September/October). Relationship of the Blind Learning Aptitude Test to Braille reading skills. *Journal of Visual Impairment & Blindness, 89*, 440–447.

Reports results of a study exploring the relation between scores on the Blind Learning Aptitude Test (BLAT) and Braille reading skills. Subjects were 30 children, ages 8 to 15, who were educationally blind and were primary Braille readers. Brailled transcriptions of the Gilmore Oral Reading Test were used to assess reading rate and comprehension. The BLAT is composed of 49 embossed geometric figures with 12 training items. Subjects examine the items tactiley and indicate their response by pointing. School records were used to obtain scores on the WISC-R and on a variety of achievement tests. Children were given passages from the Gilmore to read and were then administered the BLAT. Braille oral reading speed on the Gilmore averaged 51 words per minute (WPM) with a range of 12–102 WPM. A positive, significant relation was found between Braille oral reading speed and BLAT score ($r = .38$). Raw scores for comprehension ranged from 13 to 47, with a mean of 30; grade equivalent scores ranged from 1.4 to 9.8+, with a mean of 6.0. A correlation coefficient of .56 was found between oral reading comprehension and BLAT raw scores. Significant coefficients were also noted between BLAT raw scores and age (.41), grade placement (.66), and IQ (.60). A coefficient of .35 was found between WISC-R scores and oral reading comprehension.

AHN, SONIA J., & LEGGE, GORDON E. (1995, July). Psychophysics of reading–XIII. Predictors of magnifier-aided reading speed in low vision. *Vision Research, 35*, 1931–1938.

Proposes to determine whether a set of clinical variables could predict how well low-vision subjects read with their magnifiers. Included were 40 low-vision subjects, ages 23 to 84. Variables were Snellen acuity; presence or absence of central scotomas; clear or cloudy ocular media; age; magnifier type; and score on the Minnesota Low-Vision Reading Test (MNREAD), a measure of reading speed. In intake interviews, subjects were asked to tell about their magnifier use at home or at work and the magnifier they most preferred. Seven subjects used no magnifier, whereas the others used at least one. Magnifiers used were classified as (1) handheld, (2) stand, (3) spectacle mounted, and (4) closed-circuit TV. After the intake interview and acuity testing, subjects were administered the MNREAD, which was taken using only refractive correction when necessary. Subjects then used their preferred magnifiers to read aloud passages from the Standard Test Lessons in Reading. Results showed that the MNREAD score, magnifier type, and age predict the magnifier-aided reading rate, whereas acuity and status of central field and media do not. Scores on the MNREAD accounted for 79.7% of the variance in magnifier-aided reading rate; age accounted for 43.7%; and magnifier type accounted for 42.3%. Prediction was best for patients with reading rates below 110 words per minute.

AHN, SONIA J.; LEGGE, GORDON E.; & LUEBKER, ANDREW. (1995, July). Printed cards for measuring low-vision reading speed. *Vision Research, 35*, 1939–1944.

Describes the development of a printed-card low-vision test designed to be a simple, quick, and accurate test of low-vision reading speed. The printed-card version is a simplified version of the computer-based Minnesota Low-Vision Reading Test (MNREAD), which uses simple sentences and common vocabulary presented at high magnification and provides a realistic estimate of the best reading speed of low-vision persons. The reading test described in the article requires only printed cards and a stopwatch, and therefore is more portable, less expensive, and easier to set up and maintain than the computerized version of the MNREAD. The test includes 28 sentences, each consisting of 4 rows of 13 characters. Sentences are present-

ed on cards, each containing one sentence printed black-on-white on one side and white-on-black on the other. Three presentation methods were evaluated in finding the simplest procedure: hand-held, mounted on a board, or inserted into a self-supporting stand. In each condition, subjects were to read aloud the sentence on the card as rapidly as possible. Reading speed was determined by the number of words read correctly divided by the time measured with a stopwatch. For each of the 23 low-vision subjects (mean age about 45), reading speeds measured with the printed cards were compared to speeds measured with the MNREAD computer test. ANOVA procedures indicated no significant difference in reading speed among the 3 presentation conditions. The printed cards gave estimates of reading speeds that correlated .887 with the computerized test speeds. An estimate of reading speed from a single card presentation was found to be stable and accurate.

RUBIN, GARY S., & LEGGE, GORDON E. (1989). Psychophysics of reading. VI–The role of contrast in low vision. *Vision Research, 29*(1), 79–91.

Studies the effects of contrast on reading speed with low-vision subjects and measures contrast thresholds for letter recognition, contrast sensitivity functions for sine-wave gratings, and near and distance acuities of the low-vision subjects. Data are reported for 19 eyes of 17 low-vision subjects. Subjects' acuities were measured first, followed by contrast sensitivity functions, reading performance, and contrast thresholds for individual letters. Subjects read text composed of 6 deg letters, ranging in contrast from 0.96 down to contrast threshold for reading. Two parameters of reading performance were assessed: peak reading rate (rate at maximum contrast), and critical contrast (contrast at which reading rate drops to half its maximum value). Peak reading rates were lower in observers with central field loss than in observers with intact central vision. In most cases (16 of 19), critical contrasts were higher for low-vision subjects than for normal subjects, suggesting a decreased tolerance to contrast reduction. Values of critical contrast were closely linked to contrast sensitivity for letters but did not vary systematically with type of vision loss. Five subjects read white-on-black text faster than black-on-white at both high and low contrasts; 4 of the 5 had cloudy ocular media. It was felt that contrast attenuation may result from such optical factors as intraocular scatter in eyes with cloudy media or from a reduction in effective contrast in eyes with field loss.

VI–2 Hearing impaired

LARTZ, MARIBETH NELSON, & LESTINA, L. JILL. (1995, October). Strategies deaf mothers use when reading to their young deaf or hard of hearing children. *American Annals of the Deaf, 140*, 358–362.

Examines behaviors used by deaf mothers when reading to their deaf or hard of hearing children. Subjects were 6 Caucasian mother-child dyads. All mothers were profoundly deaf and used American Sign Language and some English-like signing. Children ranged in age from 3.0 to 5.3 and had moderate to profound hearing loss. Dyads were videotaped in their homes as they read a storybook. Instances of vocalization were noted and a skilled signer transcribed the signed portions of the videotapes. Six categories of strategies were derived from the tapes, and frequency of strategy type used by each mother was documented: (1) sign placement, (2) text paired with signed demonstration, (3) real world connection between text and child's experience, (4) attention maintenance, (5) physical demonstrations of character changes, and (6) nonmanual signals as questions. Vocalizations were not counted as a strategy because they occurred only in conjunction with other strategies. The sign placement strategy, which permitted the child to see the picture in the book and the mother's signing at the same

time, was used by all 6 mothers. Real world connections between the text and the child's experience were used only infrequently. All except 1 mother had to use the attention maintenance strategy. Four of the mothers used facial expressions and body posture to illustrate different characters. Five of the mothers used nonmanual signals as questions and facial expressions without sign to ask questions about pictures. Mothers varied markedly in the total number of combined strategies used.

SERRANO PAU, CARRASUMADA. (1995, July). The deaf child and solving problems of arithmetic. *American Annals of the Deaf, 140*, 287–290.

Examines the influence of reading comprehension level on the ability of deaf children to solve arithmetic problems. Subjects were 12 prelingually and profoundly deaf children, ages 8 to 12, studying for the Spanish primary certificate in state schools in two provinces of Spain. All were being educated in mainstream schools using no signs in the classroom; scores on the WISC performance scales were average. To determine reading comprehension levels, subjects were administered the Psychopedagogic Instrumental Learning Test. A series of 8 arithmetic problems were to be solved by children. In only two children did reading comprehension level and grade level coincide; in the other children, reading comprehension was 2–5 years below grade level. Mean score on the problem solving was 5.5 with a range from 3 to 8 correct. Children found it easier to solve problems in which the data, the unknown factor, and the conditions were presented in the same manner in which the operation was to be carried out. Comparative linguistic terms tended to be ignored. The 3 children who passed the greatest number of levels in the comprehension test also correctly solved the greatest number of problems. An analysis of the miscomprehensions and error types indicated that reading comprehension influenced the problem-solving level.

RUIZ, NADEEN T. (1995, November). A young deaf child learns to write: Implications for literacy development. *The Reading Teacher, 49*, 206–217.

Describes and analyzes the author's deaf daughter's written products done in the home between the ages of 3 to 7. The child had a profound hearing loss as a result of illness at 13 months of age. She was enrolled in a deaf infant program at 18 months of age and remained there for 3 years. Partial mainstreaming in a preschool was then begun. The parents used signed English rather than American Sign Language in interacting with their daughter. The girl was read to at least once daily until she began to read independently at age 6 ½ years. The author describes her daughter's development in writing. She notes that, given multiple opportunities, young deaf children begin to write early. Differences and similarities between the literacy process for hearing and deaf children are noted. Whereas phonics has played a role in the child's hypotheses about writing, the role is felt to be limited. It is contended that the girl did not need a well-developed internal phonemic system or phonemic awareness activities and direct phonics instruction, which many consider indispensable.

MILLER, KEVIN J., & ROSENTHAL, LORE LYON. (1995, November). Seeing the big picture: Deaf adults' development of summarization through book discussion in American Sign Language. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy, 39*, 200–206.

Initiates a classroom-based project to determine if deaf adults can use American Sign Language (ASL) to access English and improve their literacy skills. Participants were 3 profoundly deaf adults, ages 30 to 55, enrolled in an adult literacy program at a school for the deaf. All had earned a high school diploma from a school for the deaf, but their reading and writing abilities ranged from fourth to sixth grade as determined by an IRI. The 3 were selected because they made up the top reading group for instructional purposes. An observer took field notes during the 8 weeks of lessons as subjects read a short novel. A summary of each lesson was then written. Notes on meetings between the observer-researcher and the classroom teacher

were recorded, and artifacts such as entries in students' reading journals were collected. A major part of instruction was helping students summarize pages and paragraphs in the text using a 3-step procedure. Group discussions were conducted in ASL. The author notes that reading and discussing the books through ASL permitted the subjects to see how the pieces of a story fit together to form a larger picture that prompted recall of events from their own lives.

VI–3 Mentally impaired

WORTHY, JO, & INVERNIZZI, MARCIA A. (1995, December). Linking reading with meaning: A case study of a hyperlexic reader. *Journal of Reading Behavior, 27,* 585–603.

Offers a case study of a 14-year-old mentally impaired girl who is hyperlexic (able to decode printed words, but with great difficulty comprehending). As a young child, she had begun reading early and compulsively but did not show more developmentally appropriate activities. She was placed in self-contained special education classes through elementary and middle school. She was tested at a university-based reading center. Her full-scale WISC-R score fell below the 1st percentile. She scored at or below the 2nd percentile on all measures of receptive and expressive language. On the McCarthy Story Retelling subtest, her score was at the 3½-year level. To assess reading and writing, she was given the WRMT, the Qualitative Reading Inventory, and various informal assessments including an IRI. On the WRMT Word Attack subtest, she scored at the level of a high school graduate and was able to read multisyllabic words. On the Word Identification subtest, she scored at the 22nd percentile (6.0 grade level). She scored at the sixth grade level on a graded list of spelling words, again indicating that she was skilled in grapheme-phoneme correspondence rules. She read connected text up to the ninth grade level with 90% accuracy or better; however, her miscues were neither syntactically nor semantically acceptable. On the WRMT, she scored at 2.6 grade level (3rd percentile) on the Word Comprehension subtest and 3.1 (2nd percentile) on the Passage Comprehension subtest. Instruction was given for 50 minutes, 4 days a week over three 12-week sessions spanning 3 academic semesters. A literature-based approach was used, with an emphasis on making meaning from her reading. Reading and writing competency and attitudes showed a steady improvement as noted by work samples and various assessment procedures.

VI–4 Neurologically impaired and brain injured

MIKE, DENNIS G. (1995, December). Literacy and cerebral palsy: Factors influencing literacy learning in a self-contained setting. *Journal of Reading Behavior, 27,* 627–642.

Conducts an ethnographic study of a self-contained classroom at a school for children with cerebral palsy with the purpose of describing the factors affecting literacy learning in the classroom setting. The 5 subjects, ages 12 to 14, were severely and multiply disabled and exhibited varying degrees and combinations of impairments: physical, visual, speech, hearing, and perceptual. All had severe reading disabilities. The primary data source was field notes collected from nonparticipant observation over a 6-month period. Also, videotape and interview data and pupil records were collected and analyzed. A teacher and an assistant were in the classroom. Four major factors were identified as providing support for literacy development of children in the classroom: (1) providing a text-rich environment, (2) allowing pupils to determine their own literate behavior, (3) conducting storyreading sessions reg-

ularly, and (4) using computers. Three factors appeared to inhibit literacy learning: (1) restriction of instructional time, (2) overreliance on individual instruction, and (3) lack of student literate interaction.

COSSU, GIUSEPPE; DA PRATI, ELENA; & MARSHALL, JOHN C. (1995). Deep dyslexia and right hemisphere hypothesis: Spoken and written language after extensive left hemisphere lesion in a 12-year-old boy. *Cognitive Neuropsychology, 12*(4), 391–407

Cites the case study of a right-handed Italian boy who sustained extensive left hemisphere damage after a massive subarachnoid hemorrhage at age 12; the right hemisphere was intact. Evaluation 2 years later indicated that his speech was good, despite an apparent anomia on naming to confrontation. It was felt that the control of speech may have been switched to the right hemisphere. However, his reading gave all the characteristics of deep dyslexia, with accuracy in individual word reading dependent on the syntactic class of the stimulus; there was also an effect of concreteness and a minimal ability to read pseudowords. Writing and spelling were severely impaired, but there were no clear qualitative signs of deep dysgraphia. Performance is discussed with regard to the written language capacity of the nondominant right hemisphere and its contribution to reading. The authors conclude that reading and writing in the case of this child may be mediated by a combination of left and right hemisphere sites.

ZIHL, J. (1995, August). Eye movement patterns in hemianopic dyslexia. *Brain, 118*, 891–912.

Records eye movement patterns of 50 patients referred to a clinic for homonymous hemianopia; a comparison group of 25 normal subjects acted as controls. The 50 patients had suffered stroke in the region of the posterior or medial cerebral arteries; half demonstrated left-sided hemianopia (LH) and half demonstrated right-sided hemianopia (RH). Patients were matched for age, time since lesion, and visual field sparing. Twenty patients had eye movements recorded before and after treatment. For reading performance, horizontal and vertical number-word reading and horizontal text reading were tested. Text reading showed the most difficulties. The 180-word text was presented in 20 lines. Normal subjects completed the oral reading of text in an average of 1.5 minutes. For the LH group, the mean reading time was 3.28 minutes, whereas the mean oral reading time was 6.33 minutes for the RH group. LH group errors consisted primarily of omissions of small words or prefixes, particularly at the beginning of lines. For the RH patients, errors were primarily omissions of small words and suffixes and of syllables within longer words. Difficulties in all patients were related to the side of the parafoveal field loss and depended on its severity. Eye movement patterns of normal subjects showed the regular pattern with fixations followed by saccadic jumps and with incidental regressive saccades to the right or left. LH patients' eye movements were characterized by the interruption of saccadic jumps from the end of a line to the beginning of the next line. Both patient groups showed poorer results than normals for reading time, words per minute, and number and duration of fixations, with the RH group having the poorest results. Analysis of the reading eye movements of treated patients revealed, in part, a normalization of the eye movement pattern after treatment.

PRICE, CATHY J., & HUMPHREYS, GLYN W. (1995, August). Contrasting effects of letter-spacing in alexia: Further evidence that different strategies generate word length effects in reading. *The Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology, 48A*, 573–597.

Describes the reading behavior of 2 adult alexic patients, a male and a female. Both demonstrated difficulty in reading single words and showed strong effects of word length when reading, symptoms characteristic of letter-by-letter reading. The report appears as 3

experiments. In Experiment 1, the types of errors made in naming words are contrasted when reading large and small words. Experiment 2 examines the effect of inter-letter spacing on reading single words, and Experiment 3 assesses the effect of the same variable on identifying letters in letter strings. In Experiment 1, patients were given 2 sets of 50 words to read, 1 set of 4-letter and 1 of 5-letter words. Both patients were faster in identifying shorter words than longer ones, although the pattern of errors varied markedly between the two. Both patients were better at letter identification in widely spaced letters in letter strings, an effect that was most pronounced for the central letters of the strings. Inter-letter spacing affected word reading behavior in different ways in the two patients. For the female, word reading improved with widely spaced letters, but the male's word reading was disrupted in the same condition. In reading words, one made errors primarily at the ends of the words, whereas the other's errors appeared to be unrelated to letter position. Both tended to be better at reading words and letter strings presented in small print rather than those presented in large print. The evidence indicates that the two patients adopted differing strategies when reading words. The authors discuss the implications for understanding alexia and for models of normal word identification.

SASANUMA, SUMIKO; SAKUMA, NAOKO; & KITANO, KUNITAKA. (1992). Reading kanji without semantics: Evidence from a longitudinal study of dementia. *Cognitive Neuropsychology, 9*(6), 465–486.

Investigates the effects of probable dementia of the Alzheimer type on patterns of oral reading and reading comprehension of Japanese kanji words over a 3-year period. Subjects were 3 Japanese patients ranging in age from 54 to 74. The patients were administered the 50-item Kanji Pronunciation-Comprehension Test (KPCT) and a battery of tests assessing a variety of cognitive abilities including semantic memory. Tests were given every 6 months in the early stages of the disease process when subjects showed borderline to mild cognitive deficits. As the speed of deterioration increased, the tests were given every 3 months. All 3 patients demonstrated progressive dissociation in performance on the KPCT between word pronunciation and comprehension. At the final testing, pronunciation remained at a high level (78% to 96%), whereas comprehension declined, as was indicated by their ability to match the words to a corresponding set of pictures. Analysis of the comprehension errors revealed that the selection of a semantically related foil instead of the target was the most frequent error type in the early stages of the disease process. As the disease progressed, irrelevant or no response became the most prevalent patterns in all 3 individuals. Both word frequency and concreteness levels were weak predictors of comprehension performance in the word-to-picture matching paradigm. Although the processing of kana words was not a major focus of the study, the 3 patients showed the same pattern for 5 kana words in the oral reading subtest of one of the cognitive ability measures. The results indicated a near normal ability to pronounce kanji words orally until the very advanced stage of the disease process, but a progressive deterioration of the subjects' ability to comprehend the same set of words. The findings suggest the existence of an independent orthography-to-phonology transcoding procedure for kanji words and are consistent with some interpretations of lexical nonsemantic reading in English-speaking neurological patients.

CUETOS, FERNANDO; VALLE-ARROYO, FRANCISCO; & SUÁREZ, MARÍA-PAZ. (1996). A case of phonological dyslexia in Spanish. *Cognitive Neuropsychology, 13*, 1–24.

Studies a Spanish dyslexic man's reading ability at word and sentence levels. The 70-year-old subject had a stroke resulting in an acquired dyslexia. The man was asked to read a total of 386 words and 141 nonwords in a series of lexical tests. Results indicated a significant difference between the reading of words and nonwords; that is, the subject read words (89.12% accuracy) much better than nonwords (34.75% accuracy). Other tests evaluated phonological, grammatical, morphological, pseudomorphological, image, frequency, and

blending factors of words. All tests except blending presented nonsignificant main effects of reading words and nonwords. The subject was unable to integrate the phonological units into a whole phonological form, displaying the features of a phonological dyslexic. It is concluded that assembled phonological recoding is not essential for reading Spanish words and that reading in Spanish is not always mediated through phonology. The authors discuss the implications relative to current models of oral reading.

PATTERSON, KARALYN, & HODGES, JOHN R. (1992, December). Deterioration of word meaning: Implications for reading. *Neuropsychologia, 30*, 1025–1040.

Provides neuropsychological data on the relation between semantic memory and reading in individuals with focal dementia or progressive aphasia. Participants were 6 adults ages 54 to 70 years. Each had a demonstrable deterioration of word meaning, ranging from moderate to profound, as a consequence of progressive brain disease. Two of the subjects demonstrated a profound loss of comprehension (WAIS, PPVT, the Snodgrass and Vanderwart picture test); 4 demonstrated a more moderate loss of comprehension. The 6 patients were asked to read aloud a list of 252 monosyllabic words composed of 126 pairs of regular and exception words matched for length, frequency, and initial phoneme. Analysis focused on the differential effects of the 2 independent variables, word frequency and patient severity, on regular and exception word performance. Results demonstrated there was preserved reading of words with regular spelling-to-sound correspondences but impaired reading of words with atypical correspondences. The level of success on the exception words was significantly related to word frequency, and the most common error was the assignment of a more typical spelling-sound correspondence.

VI–5 Other atypical learners

JAVORSKY, JAMES. (1996, May). An examination of youth with attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder and language learning disabilities: A clinical study. *Journal of Learning Disabilities, 29*, 247–258.

Administers a battery of language measures in examining the performance of 96 youth hospitalized at an acute-care psychiatric hospital. Participants ranged in ages from 6 to 17; about 25% had been receiving special education services prior to admission. Subjects were divided into 4 groups: (1) those with language learning disabilities (LLD; $n = 14$), (2) those with attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD; $n = 26$), (3) those with both ADHD and LLD (ADHD/LLD; $n = 18$), and (4) those with neither ADHD nor LLD ($n = 38$). Approximately 75% were diagnosed with an affective disorder, and about 25% were diagnosed with a disruptive disorder. Included in the tests administered were the following: the Kaufman Brief Intelligence Test (K-BIT); the Test of Language Competence–Expanded Edition (TLC-EE); the WRAT-R Spelling subtest; the Kaufman Tests of Educational Achievement–Brief Form (K-TEA) reading and spelling; the WJ-R Broad Reading Cluster, Basic Reading Skills, Broad Written Language Cluster, Basic Written Language Cluster, and Listening Comprehension subtests; the PPVT-R; and the Lindamood Auditory Conceptualization Test (LAC). Group mean comparisons among the four groups were significant on the WJ-R broad and basic cluster scores. Participants with ADHD/LLD scored significantly lower than participants with ADHD or participants with neither on all 4 cluster scores. Results supported the differentiation of the ADHD/LLD group from the ADHD group on measures of phonology and syntax but not on measures of semantics. ADHD/LLD subjects did not differ significantly from LLD subjects on a majority of the language-based measures. Results suggest that subjects with ADHD/LLD have profiles more similar to those of LLD subjects than to those of participants with ADHD.

STACKHOUSE, JOY, & SNOWLING, MAGGIE. (1992). Barriers to literacy development in two cases of developmental verbal dyspraxia. *Cognitive Neuropsychology*, *9*(4), 273–299.

Presents two cases of children with developmental verbal dyspraxia with dyslexic difficulties in an effort to clarify the relation between speech and reading and spelling difficulties. The two children, a boy and a girl, were first tested when they were each about 11 years old. Both had serious and persisting difficulties with speech production that were not associated with any structural abnormality or known neurological cause; both also had problems with phonological awareness. The children attended a London, England, comprehensive school where they were integrated into mainstream classes and received daily remedial instruction and twice weekly speech therapy. The two children were of average intelligence as determined by scores on the British Ability Scales. During preschool, their speech had been unintelligible, and they still showed speech difficulties typical of developmental verbal dyspraxia (clumsiness, incoordination of the vocal tract, groping for articulatory postures, and inconsistent articulatory output). Hearing was within normal limits. The two children were tested during 2 time periods, when originally seen (age 11) and in follow up 4 years later. A battery of standardized speech and language tests were administered at the 2 points in time. At the time of the preliminary testing, the reading errors were mostly visual in nature and the children were unable to read nonwords. Spelling was primarily nonphonetic. Auditory processing and segmentation skills indicated pervasive deficits in the auditory modality. They had difficulties discriminating sequences of phonemes, categorizing sounds, and rhyming; there was significant difficulty discriminating between words and nonwords in lexical decision tasks. Although the follow-up testing showed some progress had been made, the pattern of errors was similar to that found earlier. Their speech showed some improvement and both showed some improvement on tests of phonological awareness but continued to have difficulty with rhyme production and on a test of sound blending. There were only marginal improvements in reading and spelling on standardized tests. The authors contend that the children's difficulties with phonological processing worked against the successful development of segmentation and blending skills and phonological reading and spelling strategies.

ROVET, JOANNE; NETLEY, CHARLES; KEENAN, MAUREEN; BAILEY, JOHN; & STEWART, DONALD. (1996, March). The psychoeducational profile of boys with Klinefelter syndrome. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, *29*, 180–196.

Presents findings from a 20-year study of 41 boys with Klinefelter syndrome (KS), individuals born with an extra chromosome. KS occurs in about 1 in 900 males and many demonstrate a cognitive deficit in verbal processing. Identified were 36 boys with KS, 29 of whom were followed until completion of the study. A control group consisted of 24 siblings (males and females) of the KS boys plus 9 others. Tests administered included the WISC-R or the WAIS-R, the WRAT or WRAT-R, the WJPEB, and the Test of Written Language. KS boys had consistently higher performance IQ than verbal IQ scores at every age interval. Controls scored higher on performance than verbal IQ scales also, but the difference between scales did not reach statistical significance. KS boys scored consistently lower in reading, spelling, and arithmetic on the WRAT than did controls. Scores on the 3 subtests declined consistently with age for the KS group, whereas this was not observed in the scores of controls. KS boys were more likely than controls to have failed a grade or to have received special education. By late adolescence, boys with KS were 4 to 5 grade levels behind placement in reading, spelling, and arithmetic. They tended to have a generalized type of LD and showed deficits in written language skills and in acquisition of knowledge-based subject matter.

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Adult Education Quarterly
Adult Learning
Alberta Journal of Educational Research
American Annals of the Deaf
American Educational Research Journal
American Journal of Education
American Journal of Psychology
American Journal of Sociology
American Journal on Mental Retardation
American Quarterly
American Sociological Review
Applied Psycholinguistics
ARA Today
Archives of Neurology
Arizona Reading Journal
Arkansas State Reading Council
Augmentative and Alternative Communication
Australian Journal of Language and Literacy
Balanced Reading Instruction
Book Collector
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Brain: A Journal of Neurology
British Journal of Educational Psychology
British Journal of Educational Technology
British Journal of Psychology
British Journal of Special Education
California Reader, The
Canadian and International Education
Canadian Journal of Psychology
Canadian Modern Language Review
Canadian Psychology
Cartographic Journal
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Childhood Education
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Clearing House, The
Cognition and Instruction
Cognition International Journal of Cognitive Science
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Contemporary Issues in Reading
Contemporary Psychology
Cortex
Council Chronicle
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Developmental Medicine and Child Neurology
Developmental Psychology
Discourse Processes
Early Childhood Research Quarterly
Education
Education and Society
Education and Training in Mental Retardation
Education Libraries Journal
Educational and Psychological Measurement
Educational Gerontology: An International Quarterly
Educational Horizons
Educational Leadership
Educational Psychologist
Educational Psychology
Educational Research
Educational Research Quarterly
Educational Researcher
Educational Technology
Educational Technology Research and Development
Elementary School Journal
ELT Journal
English Education
English in Australia
English Journal
English Quarterly
ETS Developments
European Journal of Disorders of Communication
Exceptional Children
Florida Reading Quarterly
Focus
Foreign Language Annals
Forum
Forum for Reading

Gazette: International Journal of Mass Communication Studies
Gifted Child Quarterly
Harvard Educational Review
High School Journal
History of Education Quarterly
Human Communication Research
Human Development
Human Factors
Illinois Reading Council Journal
Imagination, Cognition, & Personality
Imprint
Indiana Reading Journal
Interchange
International Journal of Disability, Development, & Education
International Information and Library Review
International Research in Reading
International Review of Education
Intervention in School and Clinic
Iowa Reading Journal
Irish Journal of Education
Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology
Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy
Journal of Advertising
Journal of Advertising Research
Journal of Aesthetic Education
Journal of American Optometric Association
Journal of Applied Behavioral Science
Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology
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Journal of College Reading & Learning
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Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition
Journal of General Psychology
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Journal of Learning Disabilities
Journal of Literacy Research
Journal of Marketing
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Journal of Memory and Language
Journal of Mental Imagery
Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development
Journal of Negro Education
Journal of Psycholinguistic Research
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Journal of Reading
Journal of Reading Behavior
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Journal of Reading, Writing, and Learning Disabilities International
Journal of Research and Development in Education
Journal of Research in Childhood Education
Journal of Research in Personality
Journal of Research in Reading
Journal of Research in Science Teaching
Journal of Research on Computing in Education
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Journal of Speech and Hearing Research
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Journal of the New York State Reading Association
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Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly
Journalism Quarterly
Kansas Journal of Reading
Language and Literacy Spectrum
Language and Speech
Language Arts
Language in Society
Language Learning
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Learning Disabilities Research and Practice
Library and Information Science Research
Library Association Record
Library Journal
Library Quarterly
Library Resources and Technical Services
Library Review
Library Trends
Lines–ARA Newsletter
Linguistic Inquiry
Linguistics: An Interdisciplinary Journal of the Language Sciences
Literacy: Issues and Practices
Literacy Learning: Secondary Thoughts
Literacy, Teaching and Learning
Mass Communication Review
Measurement and Evaluation in Counseling and Development
Memory and Cognition
Merrill-Palmer Quarterly
Minnesota Reading Association Highlights
Mississippi Reading Journal
Modern Language Journal
Monographs in Language and Reading Studies
Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development

National Association for Secondary School Principals Bulletin
Neuropsychologia
Newsletter, The
New Mexico Journal of Reading
Northstar Reading Journal
Northwest Reading Journal
NRRC News
Oklahoma Reader, The
Optometry & Vision Science
Peabody Journal of Education
Perception and Psychophysics
Perceptual and Motor Skills
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Professional Psychology: Research and Practice
Prospects: Quarterly Review of Education
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Psychological Reports
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Psychology in the Schools
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Public Opinion Quarterly
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Reading Teacher, The
Reading Today
Reading: Exploration & Discovery
RELC Journal
Remedial and Special Education
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Research in the Teaching of English
Review of Education, The
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School Library Journal
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Science Education
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State of Reading, The
Studies in Second Language Acquisition
Teachers College Record
Teaching Exceptional Children
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Technological Horizons in Education Journal
TESOL Quarterly
Texas Reading Report
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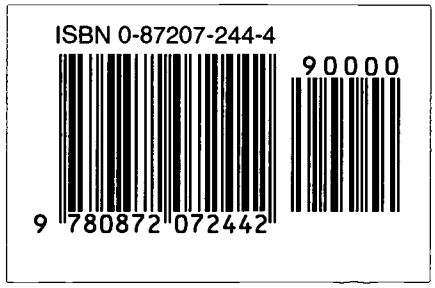

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