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Procedures for Setting Up a Remedial Reading Program in the Secondary Schools

Bradley Richardson

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Abstract

Procedures for Setting Up a Remedial Reading Program
in the Secondary Schools

by Bradley Richardson

The need for a more comprehensive education in the
secondary school is a need which no one will deny; and as
reading is the primary means through which most formal
education takes place, the need for expert readers is
ever-present. The tragedy of so many high school students
graduating without having mastered the skill of reading
reminds us that schools are not succeeding in its task
of educating. One important area where secondary schools
can improve their attempts at reaching the students who
are passing through without learning is to set up a read-
ing program designed to help those students master their
ability to read and learn.

        Setting up a reading program is not an easy task,
however, and quite often it is a task that never gets
done. Administrators push for a program, indeed, they
often clamor for a program; still nothing ever gets done
outside of the English teacher attending a summer workshop
to learn how a reading program should be set up. The re-
turning English teacher, with a handful of notes, a few

addresses of publishers, and some confused notions how to get a reading program started, is content to incorporate more reading into his classes. This is not enough, however. A reading program must be set up separate from other content-area courses.

The demand of creating a new and different class is a challenge that can be met by the hapless English teacher, or by any other teacher who gets "assigned" to this project. The teacher will have to have some imagination, perseverence, and strength; the rest will fall into place if he follows some important steps, steps recommended by the reading researchers, experts, and experienced teachers. Each of the steps provide for the needs of the reading program, administrators, fellow teachers, parents, and ultimately for the students themselves.

The steps include surveying the reading status of the school to determine the type of program that should be set up, whether it should be a developmental, critical, or remedial reading program. The second step is to schedule a reading program into the existing programs of the school's curriculum. The program can take many shapes in order to fit into the school's plan and to meet the needs of the students. Once the program has been slated for the coming term, the teacher can begin to set up a classroom that will serve as the purposes of the program. This does not mean the teacher will need much money, but it does mean he will have to have organization and be very resourceful. As soon

as the physical demands of the class are met, the content of
the course can be decided upon. The teacher may decide among
skills that should be taught, textbooks that will best prepare
the students for the reading skills they must learn, and drills
that best reinforce the skills actually taught. The program,
now ready to begin, must have a standard by which its effec-
tiveness may be judged. The teacher may determine how he will
evaluate his program, either through a series of tests,
through records, through grades, or through the visit of a
reading specialist who may offer helpful suggestions for im-
proving the program. Each of these steps, when followed
methodically and with much thought, will provide the teacher
the greatest amount of success in helping those students who
are now unable to read the simplest assignments.

Each person whose signature appears below certifies that this project in his opinion is adequate, in scope and quality, as a project for the degree Master of Arts.

Marilyn C. Teele ,Chairman
Marilyn C. Teele, Associate
Professor of English

Robert Paul Dunn
Robert P. Dunn, Associate
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Rick Williams
Rick Williams, Assistant
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Procedures for Setting Up a Remedial Reading Program

in the Secondary Schools

by

Bradley Richardson

_____

A Project in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Arts in the Field of English

_____

May 1978

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CHAPTER I

The Problem and the Purpose of the Study

Reading test scores are down, students are not able
to work with their textbooks, their attention span is short,
some students are disruptive in class, discipline worries
are primary concerns on most high school campuses, and the
general feeling is that high school graduates just can't
read or write. These are only some of the real problems
faced by secondary schools. Administrators at these high
schools are faced with pressures from school boards, P.T.A.
groups, and even high school teachers to do something about
the lack of student ability and the increase of discipline-
problem students. This project is designed to add one more
"straw" to the camel's back.

There is yet one more problem demanding the attention
of the high school administrator, and yet its resolution will
in turn tend to resolve many of the other problems described
above. The problem is the lack of a remedial reading pro-
gram at the local high school level. This missing and yet
vital part of every high school program has been keenly felt.
Most administrators have felt the sting, but have not known
how to get those most qualified in the school to begin a
reading program. That is the second problem.

The third problem is that the teacher who, according

to the administrator, is the most qualified to begin a reading program really is unqualified, or at least too hesitant to try. That teacher, ill-fated to begin the reading program has been urged, cajoled, and in some cases hired with the understanding that he would begin a reading program. The teacher is well-meaning, and even attends seminars during the summer to learn how a reading program should be run. Still, nothing ever seems to get started.

This project, however, is more than an added "straw" on the camel's back. It is more than a nasty reminder that reading programs are vital to the success of the students who are so desperately behind, and fall farther and farther behind each day. The purpose of this project is to help the reluctant or inexperienced teacher begin a remedial reading program, help him stay with the program and provide the students with real help, and show the constituency real improvement in the abilities of the students. Another purpose of this project is to explain some of the basic principles important to a remedial reading program and then to suggest practical ways in which any high school can develop its own systematized, well-organized, and enlightened remedial reading program.

With a field so open as reading, some selectivity and limitations must quite naturally be imposed on this project, so that this volume does not become unwieldy. Therefore, the reader will find only the salient points about establishing a remedial reading program.

In the second chapter, the review of the literature,

the reader will find again that a great amount of selectivity and compression was employed in order to present what was most important in describing the remedial reader and what must be done to help him. It is hoped that the reader will continue the study on his own, using the suggestions there presented as guidelines.

Chapter Three presents a theoretical background to the approaches of teaching reading. As unexciting as that may sound, one must keep in mind that only with a theoretical background and an understanding of the current research conducted in these different areas can the prospective reading teacher adopt an approach and materials that will guarantee any success. The discussion in Chapter Three, however, is again highly compressed and touches on only the key elements of each approach to the instruction of reading.

The same is true of Chapter Four, the actual steps one follows in ordering a remedial reading program. The skeletal framework is provided, but the individual teacher must adopt an approach to the teaching of reading, become acquainted with its demands, and then add shape to the outline suggested in Chapter Four.

Other hints that are important for the reader as he begins to use this volume are a glossary of terms to be found following the appendixes, various suggested materials, publishers and addresses listed in the appendixes, and a bibliography for further study.

CHAPTER II

A Review of the Literature

There is a general need for reading programs on the
secondary school level. This need is substantiated by media
reports of falling reading test scores, by teacher complaints
that students are not able to perform simple study tasks re-
quired of them, by parents who complain that students are
not reading any more, and by prospective employers who com-
plain that graduates are not able to fill out job applica-
tions and in some instances, job reports. Students are hav-
ing a more difficult time surviving in high school, let alone
their attempts to survive on their own in society.

The literature in the field of reading and education
reflects these concerns, and it points out generally three
reasons why the high school students are unable to succeed
in their studies: student-related problems, society-related
problems, and school-related problems. These distinctions
are not so separate as one might expect. No one problem
precludes the possibility of another's influence. But for
the purposes of this review, these distinctions have been
made.

The purpose of this chapter is to investigate those
three general areas of concern, the student-, society-, and
school-related problems of the remedial reader, and then to

suggest a rationale for a reading program for the secondary school that takes account of these areas of concern.

The first area of concern found in the literature deals with the remedial reader himself. Questions why he is what he is, what influences hold him back or perpetuate his pattern of failure, and how a teacher might recognize him are important to answer if the local high school is to offer any valuable help.

Riva Reich[1] identifies the characteristics of the remedial reader, and provides the teacher with some basic concepts about poor readers. She describes the poor reader as discouraged, frustrated, and easily bored. The poor reader is discouraged because of strong, anxious fears of failure. The defeatist attitude with which many remedial readers begin their studies limits their ability to reach their potentials.

Riva Reich continues her description of the remedial reader by explaining why the remedial reader is frustrated. Everyone associated with him has tried to teach him to read, but with no success. With a history of defeat, and a prospect of further defeat, he is prematurely frustrated. Because of this frustration, he too soon gets bored. He has developed a short attention span; he gives up quickly with his work and turns to something in which he can succeed.

Reich's description is an accurate one, and it identi-

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[1]Riva Reich, "More Than Remedial Reading," in Readings on Reading Instruction, Albert Harris and Edward Sipay (New York: David McKay, 1972), pp. 409-412.

fies the potential problems in a classroom. What Riva Reich does not do is explain why the reader can't handle the material to begin with. There are deeper problems hinted at here, but not discussed satisfactorily. Ned Marksheffel does go a bit deeper into the remedial reader problem.

Marksheffel defines the remedial reader as one "who is so severely retarded in reading that he is unable to achieve successfully in other academic areas in which reading is required for learning."[2] Through this definition we now begin to go deeper into causes. The poor reader has some mental deficiency. The definition, however, is incomplete or at least too general. It tends to lump the remedial students, those who are not working up to their ability, with the retarded students, those who have little ability.

George Spache discusses the problems of the remedial reader at great length.[3] He lists four general reasons: physical, neurological, social, and intellectual. His description of the causes of remedial reading is perhaps the best known, and is by far the most comprehensive.

In his treatment of the physical problems, Spache discusses the visual and auditory discrimination handicap; he discusses intersensory integration, and related disabilities. The neurological problems of the remedial reader deal with

[2]Ned Marksheffel, "One Viewpoint on Preparing Teachers of Remedial Reading," in Reading Rx:Better Teachers, Better Supervisors, Better Programs, Joseph Nemeth (Delaware: International Reading Assn., 1975), p. 93.

[3]George Spache, Investigating the Issues of Reading Diability,(Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1976).

brain disfunctions, nerves, dyslexic conditions, laterality, dominance, and other related disorders that can only be dealt with by a specialist. The social causes refer to the remedial reader's ability to get along with other students, teachers, parents, and social groups. They include his home environment, and the amount and quality of experiences he grew up with. Finally, Spache discusses the intellectual ability of the student, the inherent ability to grasp concepts and to recall them for future use.

Along with the rather exhaustive treatment by Spache, Wilma Miller's discussion of the causes for remedial readers is equally thorough.[4] Wilma Miller emphasizes the cultural differences and the socio-economic experiental backgrounds of the remedial reader, but she reminds us that often we cannot pinpoint any single cause for remedial conditions. She propounds the multiple causation theory, which states in effect that there are many influences on the reader making him a poor reader. This theory is important for the teacher as he diagnoses the reader's weaknesses. He may not be able to pinpoint them all, but he should deal with the student on the assumption that there are more problems than any one test can identify.

Spache and Miller's discussion of student-related causes for poor reading have dealt with many causes--social, physical, neurological and intellectual. These inherent

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[4]Wilma Miller, Diagnosis and Correction of Reading Difficulties in Secondary School Students, (New York: The Center for Applied Research in Education, 1973).

problems must be taken into account as the reading teacher begins an effective program. However, these are not the only problems causing remedial reading. The literature points out another area that cannot be ignored. There are pressures brought upon the remedial reader by society. The expectation of society is a fearsome thing to the remedial reader.

William Powell makes this assertion, that high school students are under a great deal of pressure as they face demands they are inadequate to meet.[5] According to Powell society demands that each of its members have a basic grasp of communication and mathematics skills. He is correct in his assertion.

In order for the student to make the transition into the world he must be able to work intelligibly with others, and he must do so with a certain amount of proficiency, depending upon his profession.

Powell also suggests that each member of society is able to live with a certain amount of independence. This is another important point. If the poorer students, those unable to read for survival and unable to perform elementary reading and arithmetic tasks, do get jobs in the outside world, they are almost invariably doomed to live as welfare cases.

Albert Harris writes of still more reasons why it is important for students or members of our society to read.[6]

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[5]William Powell, "Levels of Literacy," The Journal of Reading, XX:6, (March, 1977), pp. 488-492.

[6]Albert Harris, How to Increase Reading Ability, 6th ed., (New York: David McKay Co., Inc., 1975), p. 2.

Students who fail to learn to read in elementary school, and who find difficulties in learning to read in high school, will repeat this pattern of failure throughout their adult lives. Many of them will not finish high school, and thus many of the desirable and useful occupations are closed to them.

There are non-economic benefits lost to citizens who do not learn to read, according to Harris. Those students are cut off from cultural activities and find difficulty in mingling with educated people. Reading also fulfills emotional and spiritual needs, another loss to the non-reader.

Both William Powell and Albert Harris implicitly shift the responsibility to the schools. Not enough is being done in the schools to equip the students with the skills needed to survive in our society. Harris cites many tests and surveys made in New York City that indicate fewer than thirteen percent of the adult population failed to complete the forms for such needs as a driver's license, social security, and public assistance.[7] Powell likewise suggests that high schools evaluate their current programs in terms of social functionality, i.e., after the students have graduated they must be able to perform such tasks as described in Harris's report.

The challenge made by Powell and Harris to the secondary schools to evaluate the needs of the students and to reform their programs to meet those needs is taken up by many

[7]Ibid., pp. 2, 3.

others in the literature. Virgie McIntyre, in her article,
"Survival Kits for Stragglers" makes this point well.[8] She
states that students often reject reading within a school con-
text, and hence the school should feel the responsibility to
restore to them the joy of reading, or at least the ability
to cope with reading. She goes into detail as she describes
reasons why students reject reading in high school. She
blames administrative indifference as one big reason. Pro-
motion policies, lack of teacher preparation, and lack of
discipline are among the big reasons why students dislike
reading.

Fortunately, McIntyre goes beyond blaming and attri-
buting fault; she explains what schools might do to recapture
the lost enthusiasm for reading. The school should aim to
captivate the interests of the students by preparing "survi-
vor kits." These kits find out the special interests and
abilities of the students, and that takes care of motivation--
one of the most important aspects to learning.

Virgie McIntyre is but one writer who points to the
school as a cause for remedial reading problems; Naomi Chase
also counts the numbers of high school drop-outs, and those
students in school who are unable to handle the reading demands
made upon them. According to Chase, one solution to the prob-
lem is the establishment of reading and study skills programs.[9]

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[8] In The Journal of Reading, No. 8 (May, 1977), pp.661-668

[9] Naomi Chase, "Special Problems in Reading in the Second-
ary Schools," in Perspectives in Reading, Margaret Early,
(Delaware: International Reading Association, 1969), pp. 31-41.

A second solution she offers deals with teachers as role models. The reading teacher and his colleagues should like to read and be found reading by the students. Chase cites a study done on the effects of a good reading example; it was found that those teachers who liked to read and taught a reading class made ample provision for reading in their class-room activities. It was further discovered that an interest in reading drove the teacher to make adequate preparation for the class and to make more innovative activities that further motivated the students.

Gentile and McMillen, two other authors accusing secondary schools of indifference to remedial reading needs, point out that high schools tend to be too theoretical in an age where practical skills are demanded.[10] They offer a list of ten reasons why students in high school have rejected reading. That students have rejected reading is a serious cry to the secondary schools to do something to change this situation. They emphasize that a past history of failure and stress upon achievement, coupled with boring books and not-too-stimulating ideas have proven counter-productive.

While Gentile and McMillen have a point that remedial teachers are not too interested in ideas and "boring books," the school should not go too far to the other side and ignore the theory. The well-rounded curriculum includes the best of all possible worlds, and will make good use of what is tested

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[10]Gentile & McMillen, "Why Don't Teenagers Read," The Journal of Reading, XX:8 (May, 1977), pp. 649-654.

and proven effective.

The literature deals with the three general groups with which the remedial reading problem is associated. These groups, the student, the society, and the schools are rather all-inclusive. The latter two groups make strict demands on students who are already in some way deficient in native ability, general intelligence, or physical health. These strict demands pushing against ingrained feelings of inadequacy have caused many high school students to quit reading, and thereby cut off their major means of social standing. It is the school who must take the first step in reclaiming those who are left as remedial readers.

Now the high school is left standing with this burden, and how it deals with the problem is also mentioned in the literature. Each high school must develop some rationale for a reading program that takes into account all the needs of its students. Karlin, Miller, Roe, Harris, Ames and Olson all have developed a reading program rationale from which the local high school may borrow. Perhaps the best rationale for a high school reading program is developed by Donald Cushenbery.

Donald Cushenbery's rationale emphasizes a thorough investigation of the needs of each student. It defines the role of each faculty and staff member as they all work to meet the needs of the students; and most importantly, it emphasizes the need for continuity of instruction from the elementary grades through the secondary grades.[11]

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[11]Donald Cushenbery, Remedial Reading in the Secondary School, (New York: Parker Publishing Co., 1972), pp. 19-25.

1. Provision must be made for meeting the needs of all pupils through the use of well organized developmental, remedial, and corrective reading programs.

2. Each content area teacher should understand that he has the obligation to take each student where he finds him with regard to reading ability.

3. The respective roles of the administrator, classroom teacher, librarian, and reading specialist in building an effective reading curriculum must be thoroughly understood by all concerned parties.

4. A large amount of reading materials must be collected by all members of the professional staff to meet the needs of the students who are reading at widely varying reading levels.

5. A type of reading ability grouping should be undertaken in some areas to provide appropriate experiences for those pupils with common needs.

6. Continuous as well as periodic evaluation of reading skill development should incorporate the use of commercial and clinical tests as well as careful observation.

7. The philosophy must be established that the development of reading skills is at least a kindergarten through twelfth grade process.

8. In-service training of teachers in the area of reading should be an important part of any well organized reading program.

9. Each student should be given the necessary training which will allow him to study efficiently the textbooks and reference materials which are common to a given subject area.

10. Each teacher should understand the nature of the complete body of reading skills which should be developed and refined at the secondary level.

The literature, when summarized, indicates first that there are those students in every school who may be considered remedial. They may have physical disabilities, such as auditory or visual discrimination problems; they may have speech defects, brain disfunction, undeveloped dominance; they may have neurological problems; and they may have psychological or social problems.

Regardless of the handicaps, the remedial reader is

often easily identified. He is the discouraged student. He is the student who can't seem to work on his material for prolonged periods of time (assuming that the material assigned isn't too complex for his expected level); and he is the student who has a low or negative self-concept. At home he did not have a strong upbringing, and his parents are often uneducated or have depreciated reading.

For whatever reason, he has given up on reading and finds himself unable to cope with the regular curriculum of the school. The remedial reader must have his pattern of failure and illiteracy broken. The cry from the literature in the field of reading is for local schools to find who these students are, set up a program based on an all-needs included rationale, and instruct its teachers on how to equip society's children with the skills they so desperately need to survive.

CHAPTER III

Approaches to the Teaching of Reading

One important aspect of reading instruction discussed
in the literature, but not mentioned in the previous chapter,
is the adequacy of teacher preparation in the theory behind
reading instruction. Often teachers take up the task of
reading instruction without first understanding the theories
and research upon which successful reading instruction is
based. The literature recommends that any teacher preparing
to take up the task of teaching reading must first understand
the approaches to the teaching of reading, subscribe to the
tenets of that philosophy, and order his class upon those.

This chapter, while not directly crucial to the pro-
cedures of actually setting up a reading program, does provide
a service as recommended by the literature; it provides the
prospective reading teacher with a theoretical background
from which he may teach consistently and effectively.

Researchers in the field of reading have experimented
with, classified, and improved upon various types of reading
instruction. No one approach is recommended in all situations,
however, and that leaves the reading teacher to select and
develop that approach which is best suited to the type of pro-
gram to be established at the local school. This chapter will
discuss the different approaches, and what some of the foremost

researchers have to say about the approaches; it will list some of the advantages, and then some of the disadvantages of each of the approaches.

Perhaps the most widely used approach to the teaching or reading is the Basal approach.[1] The Basal program is a highly controlled reading program that includes certain skills approach elements. Phonics, word and sentence structure, concept development, literal recall, and sometimes inferential skills are essential skills used in this approach. Hence it is one possibility of skills approach teaching.

The Basal method is a skills approach, and is used most widely in the elementary grades, but there are some Basal readers that extend into the ninth grade.

William Sheldon describes the rationale of the approach:

> The program rests on the assumption that a set of essential and fundamental skills are generally known and that these are of such a nature that a series of books, workbooks, and murals which present these skills in a sequential order are essential to their development.[2]

The Basal reader is designed to help the beginning reader with the most elementary phonic skills first, and slowly introducing new vocabulary and other reading skills, slowly increase the reading ability of the student. The

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[1]Olson and Ames, Teaching Reading in the Secondary School, (Pennsylvania: International Textbook Company,1972),p. 4.

[2]William Sheldon, "Basal Reading Approaches," in First Grade Reading Programs Perspectives in Reading, James Kerfoot, ed., (Newark, Del.: International Reading Assn., 1965),pp. 28-35.

Basal reader is the source from which the teacher may establish his lessons. Such lessons, used with a Basal Reader, are called "Direct Reading."

This method of instruction follows a regular formula: first the teacher provides motivation for the student to read a certain selection; then the teacher must develop concepts basic to each lesson. He goes over new words, reviews learned words, and teaches certain word-attack skills. The student then reads the selection, looking for the vocabulary, concepts and examples upon which he may use his newly-taught word-attack skills. After the student has read the passage, he joins the teacher for a discussion of what was read. The teacher encourages the students to do some reinforcement activities.

The Basal reading program has several advantages: the teacher is supplied with tests, texts, lessons, different possible uses, manuals, and other supplementary materials. This can be very time-saving for teachers with several other class preparations. Perhaps the most important advantage in using the Basal program is the sequential ordering of skills. The teacher has full control over the vocabulary and skills that will be learned.

The Basal program has several disadvantages as well. The program is time-consuming, often requiring the entire class period. The students are restricted to reading only one book because the vocabulary and skills are controlled. Another disadvantage of the Basal program is that the Basal texts tend to be quite useless as far as content is concerned.

"Dick-and-Jane" stories are among the greatest abuse in the Basal system. For the unambitious teacher, the Basal reader soon becomes the text for all students regardless of ability. Finally, the program assures no transfer of skills in other content-area courses.

The secondary reading teacher who plans on using the Basal program, including a Basal reader and directed reading approach, must be careful that the series he selects is not elementary level in format, i.e., is not geared to the interest level of an elementary student. Both reading ability and reading interest must be taken into consideration when materials are selected for any secondary level reading program. The teacher should review any Basal text before he adopts one.

The skills approach program is generally thought of as a secondary school's answer to the elementary Basal program. Both are operated on the basis of Olson and Ame's definition of reading: "Reading is a sequential development of skills."[3]

Irwin Joffe's Opportunity for Skillful Reading, a text for college reading programs, is based solely on the skills approach premise. In his preface are the remarks, "This book provides information on and practice in the key skills necessary for the successful study and comprehension of college textbooks."[4]

[3]Teaching Reading in the Secondary School, (Pennsylvania: International Textbook Co., 1972), p. 4.
[4](California: Wadsworth Publishing Company, Inc., 1975).

He then itemizes seven general categories or skills that
must be taught. Wilma Miller, in her <u>Diagnosis and Correction</u>
<u>of Reading Difficulties</u>, refers to Bloom's taxonomy of educa-
tional objectives as a source of necessary skills to be taught.[5]
Regardless of the skills adopted for the skills approach read-
ing program, the basic assumption is that there are certain
skills that must be learned in order for a student to be a
successful reader, and not only are there certain skills,
but there is a certain sequence in which they must be learned.
For example, one must learn to recall literal details before
he can learn to make inferential statements about the reading.

Perhaps the most renowned proponents of the skills
approach are William Grey and Helen Robinson. Together they
developed and enlarged upon a skills model, known as the Grey-
Robinson model. Their model is outlined in four steps:

1. Word perception, including pronunciation and
   meaning

2. Comprehension

3. Reaction to and evaluation of ideas presented
   by an author

4. Assimilation of what is read through fusion of
   old ideas and information.

Helen Robinson has further refined this model of read-
ing to give us two possible views of the reading process. One
possibility is to look at the reading process as "a totally

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[5] . . . in <u>Secondary Students</u>, (New York: The Center
for Applied Research in Education, 1973).

unified or global trait which defies analysis," while the other "can also be defined as a long list of independent skills."[6]

Robert Karlin suggests a possible approach to instruction if one chooses to operate within the boundaries of a skills program. It is outlined in his Teaching Reading in the High School:[7]

1. Use selections from materials for which the students are held responsible.

2. Select content material that presents no real meaning difficulties other than those on which the practice was intended.

3. Teach only one study skill in a lesson.

4. When a study skill consists of related smaller skills, teach these in sequence.

5. For best results, teach a study skill when the need to know it arises.

A program based on the Grey-Robinson skills model has several advantages. The teacher will find an organized hierarchy of units or skills that must be taught that have been defined as essential for, as Joffe put it, "successful study of texts and comprehension." The innate organization of the hierarchy will be an invaluable aid for lesson plans and for

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[6]Theodore Clymer, "What is Reading? Some Current Concepts," from Readings on Reading Instruction, Albert Harris and Edward Sipay, eds., (New York: David McKay, 1978), pp.4-7.

[7]Robert Karlin, Teaching Reading in the High School, p. 208.

locating materials for a lab or individual student study.
In the skills model approach, the teacher is left free to
find those teaching aids that will be most beneficial to his
students.

There are some disadvantages to using the skills
model approach. The most important disadvantage is the ques-
tion of the validity of the skills model's assumption. Both
language experience and psycholinguistic researchers suggest
that the skills model is too artificial, that the distinctions
made in the model are only observed enlightened guesses at
best.[8] Though this is seen as a disadvantage by some, one
must remember that these are not some half-thought through
study skills; these are important reading skills that do work
with many students. Just because the taxonomy or hierarchy
is categorized does not mean to imply that the skills model
has been able to perfectly define reading in all its complex-
ity, but it is a sound place to begin.

A logical outgrowth of the skills approach to the
teaching of reading is content-area reading. H. Alan Robinson
extends the four general reading components discussion into
the subject matters usually part of the high school curriculum,
such as English, social studies, history, and science. He
suggests that a reading program be based on the Grey-Robinson
skills model:

> Obviously the elements of a secondary school
> reading program could be organized in a num-

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[8]A more thorough analysis of these distinctions will
follow.

ber of ways. I have chosen the elements that
follow because they cover broadly the signifi-
cant aspects of a reading program.[9]

Content area teaching is performed by every teacher
in the high school. It is perhaps the least expensive way to
begin a reading program geared for the entire school. It is
based on the skills approach, but it assumes that there are
certain skills peculiar to different disciplines, whether
they be reading rate, as described by Helen Robinson, or the
various technical vocabularies, the recall of details, the
generalizing, the reaching of conclusions, or the application
of literature.

In order for teachers in the secondary school to be-
come content-area teachers, they must be willing to suspend
or subordinate the content of the course, or they must at
least use the content as a means to an end rather than the
end itself. This does not imply that content is not impor-
tant, but the content-area teacher's primary job is to help
the students master the peculiar skills of that discipline.
"Reading is one of the means by which learning is reinforced
and extended, thus the teacher must be sure that the student
can effectively apply the reading skills to particular reading
material."[10]

The way in which a teacher is able to do this is

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[9]H. Alan Robinson, Teaching Reading and Study Strate-
gies: the Content Areas, (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1975), p. 6.
[10]Arthur Olson and Wilbur Ames, Teaching Reading in Se-
condary Schools, (New York: Intext Educational Publishers, 1972),
p. 101.

described by Olson and Ames:

1. Make certain that the text materials are
   suited in difficulty to the reading levels
   of the students.
2. At the beginning of the school year, take
   adequate time to introduce the text and
   discuss how to use it effectively.
3. Teach the specialized vocabulary and new
   concepts to the students before they begin
   to read the material in the textbook.
4. Take time to teach the special reading
   skills necessary in the subject area.
5. Make the assignments clearly and concisely
   so that the student will know what he is
   reading for, and how to go about the reading.
6. Help the poor reader to develop adequate
   reading skills to the extent of the teaching
   capabilities of the teacher.
7. Group students within the classroom for
   differentiated instruction.[11]

As described in the passage above, the reading teach-

er and the other teachers on the secondary level are really

the same thing; they are all responsible for the reading

skills of their discipline, and they are responsible for

each student's learning of those skills. The content-area

teacher and the reading teacher work as one to bring about a

systematic program that effectively sharpens each student's

ability to read.

The skills approach, upon which is based many high

school level reading programs, is but one general approach

to reading instruction. A second approach, one not based on

the skills model assumption, is the linguistic approach, which

includes many sub-approaches. The two most important linguis-

tic approaches that will follow are the language experience

and the psycholinguistic approaches, both of which are shaped

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[11]Ibid.

by the results from research done in language acquisition.

The language experience approach, the first that will be discussed, recognizes that reading is dependent on a student's oral language development. It also recognizes the relatedness of the language arts, such as reading, writing, speaking, and listening. With the recognition of these relationships and the importance of oral language development, the teacher places emphasis on all of the communication skills as not only a preparation to reading, but as a means of developing survival and aesthetic appreciation skills.

Jeanne Chall describes the language experience program as an individualized program, because the student selects his own reading material, and he writes about personal experiences, and because it is assumed that any materials chosen by the student will be on his own level. Chall admits that the term "individualized" applies to every kind of program imaginable from straight Basal reader instruction to teachers in a language experience program who use Basal reader to teach skills.[12] But the special application of "individualized" intended by Chall implies that the student makes maximum progress with language and reading skills, because he selects his own materials, writes from personal experiences using his own vocabulary, shares his experiences orally, and listens to students at similar levels share their experiences.

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[12]"Innovations in Beginning Reading," from Readings on Reading Instruction, Albert Harris and Edward Sipay, eds., (New York: David McKay Publishing Co., Inc., 1972), p. 107.

Skills that are emphasized in the language experience program are learning how to share experiences, discussing, listening, dictating, making books, expanding vocabularies, writing, improving style and form, using a variety of resources, reading a variety of symbols and materials, studying words, improving comprehension, outlining, summarizing, integrating and assimilating ideas, and reading critically. All of these are learned as the students further acquire language patterns and habits.

All of the skills mentioned above can be classified into a rationale defending the language experience program:

1. the program continues to give the students experiences that can be expressed orally with words he will soon read;

2. the program studies the English language and develops a form of personal expression, which, according to some rhetoricians, should be the only real rationale for writing and reading; and

3. the program relates the ideas of authors to personal experience.

Because this program tends to be loosely structured, it has come under sharp criticism. There is a pattern to the program, claim the defenders of the program, and in order for the approach to be effective, the teacher must be aware of the pattern. Two important people in the field of language approach reading instruction providing such a pattern to follow are R. Van Allen and James Moffett.

Roach Van Allen developed what is called the Language

Experience in Reading, or the L.E.I.R. His reading program combines many ideas from the individualized reading programs with linguistic and phonic training. From the individualized program the L.E.I.R. borrows the ready-made motivation of reading books and plays, essays and poems of the student's own choosing or writing. From the linguistic and phonics field, the L.E.I.R. program borrows structural principles and teaches them early to the students.

Another important name in the study of language experience reading programs is James Moffett. His fully developed program, A Student-Centered Language Arts Curriculum,[13] is highly structured for teachers to follow with students from kindergarten through the first year of college. He groups the language and communication skills that need to be taught into grade level the first of which are grades kindergarten through three. The skills important to this group are mostly physical: hand and body motion, acting out, and then relating those body skills to communication. The next most important language skill is learning to speak and discuss with others in a group. Most of the early skills are generally thought of as reading readiness skills.

As the student grows older, the demands made upon his communication skills are more complex, and the teacher must equip him with enough resources and methods of communicating for him to meet those demands. By the time the student

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[13](Palo Alto, California: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1973).

reaches the high school level, he is able to handle inter-
pretation, generalization, objective reporting, and invent-
ing arguments for essays and term papers.

Moffett's rationale for his language arts program
may be found in his published book, Teaching a Universe of
Discourse.[14] In the Student-Centered Language Arts Curricu-
lum, however, Moffett explains the heart of his theoretical
framework:

> At the heart of his curriculum lies a paradox:
> language learning must go before and below lan-
> guage itself. The factors that determine how
> people produce and receive discourse are not at
> bottom linguistic, but psychological and social.
> . . . in other words, language was surrounded
> by those contexts, larger than itself, that
> govern or influence its use.[15]

Finally, according to Moffett's rationale, there are
five essential advantages to a language experience approach:

1. it offers social interaction;

2. it is individualized rather than isolated, as
    in programmed instruction;

3. reading skills are really thinking skills, hence
    reading transcends language into the realm of
    logic and conceptualizing;

4. it cures motivational problems; and,

5. it provides experience for the environmentally
    deprived (since experiences form the basis for
    conceptualizing, the students are provided with
    many experiences in the language experience
    approach).

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[14] (Palo Alto, California: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1968).
[15] pp. 501-511.

The second most important approach to the teaching of reading that is separate from the skills approach, but based on the importance of linguistic training, is the psycholinguistics approach, a combination of two closely related disciplines: psychology and linguistics. Similar to the language acquisition theories of the language exper- ience programs, the psycholinguistics approach provides a more clinical or one-to-one type of reading instruction. Dissimilar to the language experience approach, the psycho- linguistic approach devotes much of the time to oral reading and what the linguistic and semantic guessing performed by the reader tells about the nature of reading.

The theory behind the psycholinguistic approach to teaching of reading is based on some universal generalizations about the nature of languages. There are three, perhaps four, described by Ken Goodman, a very important name in the field of psycholinguistics. They are:

1. Every human society has a spoken language, although other forms of languages and com- munication exist.
2. All "natural" languages that the world pop- ulations speak show the twin aspects of sur- face and deep structure, although this again is not a logical necessity since computer lan- guages and those of formal logic and mathema- tics function with only one level.
3. All the world's natural languages seem to limit their range of significantly different sounds (called phonemes) to between about thirty and fifty, although there is no logical and physiological reason why a language should not have as few as two sounds, like Morse code or the binary language of computers, or many hundreds.

    4. Children acquire all the basic linguistic
       principles about their language by the age of
       five or six.[16]

These basic universals, as Goodman calls them, upon which the research of psycholinguistics is forged, have many implications for the reading program. The first and third universals provide us with the theoretical importance for the study of phonemes and graphemes. The second universal indicates the importance of the study of syntax and both generative and transformational grammar. These components form the core for the psycholinguistic reading process. That core is categorized into three "cue systems" used by the reader: the graphophonic cue system, the syntactic cue system, and the semantic cue system.[17]

The graphophonic cue system is that system in which the reader responds to the grapheme, or the form or configuration of the word, and then makes the sound equivalence. In other words, the reader has come to the place where he is able to make predictions about the sound sequences that occur in certain word formations.

The second cue system as described by Goodman is the syntactic cue system. The reader recognizes patterns of words that appear in his language by using inflectional endings. The deep structure of oral and written language are the

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[16]Kenneth Goodman, "Psycholinguistic Universals in the Reading Process" from <u>Psycholinguistics and Reading</u>, Frank Smith, ed., (San Francisco: Holt Rinehart and Winston, 1973), p. 21.

[17]Ibid., p. 25.

same, and here the reader tries to infer deep structure
in order to arrive at the meaning of the passage.

The third cue system is the semantic cue system.
This system deals largely with the conceptual background of
the reader. Since reading is both a visual and a non-visual
activity--what the eye tells the brain, and what the brain
tells the eye--the more that is already known about the sub-
ject matter being read, the less visual information is re-
quired. Conversely, the less known about the material being
read, the more visual information is required, and the reader
uses any of the three cue systems.

In short, the reader makes use of the structure of
the language to make predictions and thereby derive meaning
from the material. Readers use these systems "simultaneously
and interdependently. What constitutes useful graphic infor-
mation depends on how much syntactic and semantic information
is available."[18] Simply said, the reader spends little time
on a word if the concept or semantic meaning is already under-
stood, and conversely, the reader must apply some graphophonic
guessing if the semantic and syntactic cues fail him.

These three cue systems provide much of the basis for
what is taught in a psycholinguistic reading program. In order
to be effective graphophonic cue users, the reader must learn
word configurations rather than traditional spelling and sound-

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[18]Brian Cambourne, "Getting to Goodman: An Analysis of
the Goodman Model of Reading with Some Suggestions for Evalua-
tion," Reading Research Quarterly, Vol. XII:4 (1976-77), p. 610.

ing out skills. The reader must learn the word shape dif-
ferences between church and crutch, much and chum. (This
skill would not be necessary, however, if in context or in
syntactic sense of the sentence requires a noun--chum, and
not an adverb--much.) The decoding skills taught by elemen-
tary teachers who use the spell-it-and-sound-it-out method
is called the "Great Fallacy" by Goodman.

Goodman's model is an inside-out process. A great
deal of information is already inside the head, and the read-
er uses that information to lead him to the meaning on the
page. This also extends from the fourth generalization of
languages as described above: the acquisition of language
by children. According to Goodman, the child has already
learned how to receive information through oral language.

Children come to school equipped with this ability
with oral language, and now the teacher needs only to help
the children do the same with written language. The same
skills are involved in both processes, "provided that the
same principles of relevance, meaningfulness, and motivation
for communication which characterized the development of oral
language have been adhered to."[19]

There are implications for the reading teacher who
would adopt the psycholinguistic approach to the teaching of
reading. The first one, a controversial point, is the nega-
tion of the importance of the hierarchy of skills as developed

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[19]Ibid., p. 610.

by Grey and Robinson. Goodman insists that, as in learning to sepak, the child must use all the good skills at once, the reader must likewise use all the good skills at once. One skill does not need to be the prerequisite for learning another more complex skill.

The second implication for the reading teacher has to do with the reading process' de-emphasis of decoding skills. According to Goodman, decoding, a preoccupation with phoneme-grapheme relationships, only takes a message from one code into another code and has little to do with getting to the meaning. This to Goodman is a most inefficient process, hence teaching phonics is an unnecessary activity.

The third implication for the reading teacher is the use of what is called the "Miscue analysis." Once the teacher understands the cue systems, he must understand how to identify which of the systems is not being used efficiently by the reader. The teacher listens to the reader as he reads orally, and marks all the irregularities made by the reader. He notices all the differences in the expected responses (what is actually printed on the page), and the observed response (what was actually read by the reader). The difference tells the researchers and the teacher quite a bit about the reader's facility for handling language, and more specifically, how the reader handles the different cue systems.

For example, if the printed page, or the expected response were, "But I remember the cameras moving close to the crib and Mr. Barnaby bending over and saying soothing things

to Andrew--but not too loudly."[20] And the observed response

sounded like, "But I remember that the camera moving close

to the crib and Mr. Barny bending over saying some words to

Andrew--but not too loud." The researcher or teacher could

tell that the changes and additions made by the reader did

not substantially alter the meaning or deep structure of the

passage. On the basis of the mis-cue analysis the researcher

or teacher could also tell that the reader had made several

predictions about the sentences--syntactic cues--in order to

get to the deep structure.

There are some questions the teacher has to ask if he

is to evaluate the reader on the basis of his miscues.

Goodman lists them:

> Was the meaning acceptable after the miscue?
> Did the reader correct the miscue if it was
> not acceptable? If a word was substituted
> for another word, was it the same part of
> speech? How close was it in sound and
> shape to the printed word? Was the reader's
> dialect involved?[21]

To use the miscue analysis effectively, or in order

to judge how proficiently the reader is using language, the

teacher might use a procedure as listed below:

1. Count all the reader's miscues.
2. Subtract all those which are shifts to the
    reader's own dialect; these are not really
    miscues since they are what we should expect
    the reader to say in response to the print.
3. Count all the miscues which result in accep-
    table meaning (even if changed) before correc-
    tion.

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[20]Ken Goodman, "Miscues, Windows on the Reading Process," from Miscue Analysis: Applications to Reading Instruction, Ken Goodman, ed., (Illinois: ERIC, 1973), p. 5.

[21]Ibid.

4. Count all miscues which result in unaccep-
table meaning but which are successfully
corrected.
5. Add the miscues in steps three and four.
the result is the total number of miscues
semantically acceptable or corrected.[22]

(This last score is called the comprehending score,
or the score that measures the reader's ability to focus on
the meaning of the passage.[23]).

Strictly speaking, the psycholinguistic method of
reading and the miscue analysis is not a program, but rather
plays a part in evaluating the effectiveness of readers and
the reading process. One could, however, create a program
using the psycholinguistics method, but that program would
only include instruction to enhance the reader's use of the
cue systems. A broad spectrum of reading could be given to
the reader to enlarge his conceptual background and to give
plenty of reading experience. This is perhaps all that can
be effectively done with a psycholinguistic approach. The
greatest advantage that can be said for the approach is that
it commands new respect for language and new respect for the
reading teacher. Perhaps just as important, this approach
focuses on the individual. The teacher must have time to
spend alone with the reader for this program to be effective.
The rapport that comes from such close contact is of inestim-
able value for establishing self-confidence and an increased
desire to learn.

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[22]Ibid.
[23]Ibid.

Another method of teaching reading is individualized

reading, an important program for successful readers. The

close contact with and rapport with the teacher is vital for

most students. This great advantage is difficult, if not

impossible, for most to attain in a large classroom. An

individualized program, a program that allows maximum student-

teacher conferences requires either a few students per period,

or a high degree of organization.

Most teachers who have worked in an individualized

program find that the students have learned at about the same

rate as if they had been grouped in small groups, hence they

have returned to Basel programs and combined small groups

into the program.[24] Perhaps this is the most convenient

method of instruction that offers the best of large and

small group and independent instruction. The students learn

from each other, and they learn from the teacher; they learn

by themselves.

Harry Sartain provides helpful suggestions for the

teacher who would include an individualized program to the

framework of an existing program:

    1. Divide the class into several small groups
        for instruction in the basic skills. (3-5
        groups should be sufficient.)
    2. Use fresh materials whenever possible, as
        this keeps up the student interest, and
        offsets the major disadvantage of the Basal

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[24]Harry W. Sartain, "The Place of Individualized
Reading Program in a Well Planned Program," from Reading on
Reading Instruction, Albert Harris and Edward Sipay, eds.,
(New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1972), pp. 193-4.

program, i.e., useless and thoughtless material. Reading then becomes a "thought-getting process."

3. Cover the skills to be taught in the program thoroughly, not piece-meal; hence, the teacher using a Basal program should not try to race through a series.

4. Cover the material thoroughly, but not to death. Let the student try to develop and practice the skill taught on his own during an independent reading period.

5. Use worksheet and workbooks wisely and in moderation. If the student has learned a skill, let him go on to another. Forcing the student to work on ditto sheets and exercises covering skills already learned is inefficient.

6. Supply the room with an abundance of reading materials either Basal readers or similarly graded materials that the student can go to for reinforcement or independent reading.

7. Engage the student in individual reading when he has finished his assignments or skills, enjoying books of his own selection. The teacher is freed from the anxiety of keeping the fastest student in supply of work, while forcing the slower students along.

8. Have the students share their reading from time to time, and not always in the form of a book report. Some suggestions are (the teacher should select from those most appropriate for the grade level):
   conferences between two students over favorite stories
   storytelling to the class
   oral reading for the book
   dramatization of the story
   telling the most exciting or captivating part of the book.

9. Have the students keep record of their reading activities on cards. Keep a box with book titles, and have the students write on the card with the title of the book. In this way students can see what other students thought of the book.

10. The teacher should keep record of the special learning problems of each student. As the

student masters a skill, this card can be
checked. Continuums can be made and kept.[25]

Edward Sipay suggests several limitations with the
individualized reading program.[26] One limitation is with
the amount of reading material that is available for the stu-
dents. Since the individualized reading program is dependent
upon the student's selection of reading material, the amount
available to him would seriously affect the reading program.
This is not, as Sipay points out, a fault inherent with the
program, but a problem of the school and its finances and
resources.

A second criticism with the individualized program
is perhaps a valid criticism since it is inherent in the pro-
gram. The individualized program, as Barbe points out,
"assumes that children have within themselves the ability to
select those reading materials which, sometimes for very ap-
parent reasons and other times not so apparent reasons, meet
his patricular interests and needs."[27] The critics maintain
that children do not understand their own needs enough to
remedy them. (There is, however, little evidence to support
either view.)

A similar criticism of the individualized program is
in regards to the self-pacing of the student in his progress.

[25]Ibid., pp. 194-5.

[26]Edward Sipay, "Individualized Reading: Theory and
Practice," From Readings on Reading Instruction, Albert Harris
and Edward Sipay, eds., (New York: David McKay Company, Inc.,
1972), p. 200.

[27]Walter D. Barbe, Personalized Reading Instruction,
(Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1961).

Many supporters say that the teachers should allow their students to progress at their own pace, even though it should take years. Critics remind the teachers that as arbitrary and harsh as it sounds, society does have standards and time limits that, like it or not, must be maintained. Some students, they claim, are not going to benefit from any reading instruction, and, hence, waiting is useless.

There are two important criticisms that deal with the student-teacher conferences, an important component of the individualized reading program. The first criticism is a question of validity of the length and frequency of those meetings versus the goals of those meetings: can the teacher sufficiently determine the mastery or level of the student?

The second criticism is related to teacher competence. Can the teacher keep accurate enough records on top of student conferencing? Can the teacher adequately develop the skills so vital to reading if the student is left on his own? The assumption is that the teacher does not know enough about the reading materials that students will have read for the conferences so that they can determine the student's level of mastery.

The individualized reading program is based on the idea that students do know what they need; they will, if left alone, turn to those sources for help; they will make growth in small groups or with student-teacher conferencing. These suppositions tend to look at ideal circumstances, but might present difficulties in planning and record-keeping and conferencing.

A type of program that is not teacher-oriented is the programmed reading instruction. In this category fall all the plans and classrooms that match the student with self-tutorial books and machines. The teacher plays little more a part than technician and guide, a resource person for the student to turn to when a set of lessons is complete.

> The programmed instruction has three characteristics: each (each kind of programmed material) provides assistance and then withdraws it when the student no longer needs it; each permits the student to respond to many different relevant questions in an attempt to lead him to an understanding of the subject at hand; and each requires active student response to every question and then immediately reinforces his answer by letting him see the correct answer.[28]

These three characteristics of a good programmed reading approach also typify the type of materials that are used; indeed, the type of material used is the programmed approach. The material comes divided into small frames, developing small amounts of information, piecing the whole subject together so that the student is able to follow one step at a time. This kind of programmed material is to be found in many disciplines as diverse as grammar, mathematics, and biology; the success of the programs challenges all teachers, no less the reading teacher, who must find the right material for the right student, and he must create the right learning environment for the program to be a success.

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[28]Kenneth Komoski, "Teaching Machines and Programmed Instruction," Controversial Issues in Reading and Promising Solutions, Helen Robinson, ed., (Illinois: University of Chicago Press, 1961), pp. 110-112.

The programmer who develops the materials makes use of behavioral theories and applies them to education, and more specifically to reading. Behaviorists feel that a student will alter his behavior if there is enough positive reinforcement to encourage the desired behavior. The student receives positive reinforcement by correctly answering a simple question posed to him in the small frames. Programmers generally guarantee that the students will answer each question correctly 90-95% of the time.

Programs that have been reported upon by Kenneth Komoski show that with a group of below average students, programmed instruction solved problems of retention--they were to remember quite a bit of information after a lapse of two weeks. He also found that with the programmed approach students' attention span increased from about ten minutes to forty minutes at a time. And most importantly, he discovered that the students showed a real enthusiasm for working with programmed texts.

There are also criticisms against the programmed approach. They range from the complaint that texts and machines are taking over the teacher's job to the complaint that teachers are too dependent upon the materials, and they know very little about their own subjects as a result.

To combat those criticisms, H. Alan Robinson offers three pieces of advice for those who plan to adopt a programmed approach. First, the teacher must remember that teacher-oriented reading instruction is concerned with student independence, not printed material dependence. The second bit of advice is that

teachers must choose materials carefully. He must think
through the skill that is to be taught, determine what sub-
skills make up the larger skill to be taught, and then find
materials that agree with his reasoning. The final bit of
advice offered by Robinson is concerned with planning. The
teacher must set up a schedule of skills that are to be learned
within an amount of time; sequencing the skills in some agenda
is another way of phrasing Robinson's advice.[29]

Allen Calvin offers further advice for the teacher
who is about to establish a program based on programmed mater-
ials. He suggests the following:

1. The teacher should explain the program
   thoroughly.
2. The teacher should remember that a steady diet
   of programmed materials is tedious, and should
   therefore schedule programmed material for
   certain times during the week, and then balance
   the program with other activities.
3. The teacher should never assign a minimum amount
   of work from the student per class period,because
   if the student cannot read fast enough to com-
   plete the assignment, he will just turn the pages,
   and then he will report that he has finished.
4. The teacher should give constant encouragement.[30]

The skills model, the language centered approach, the
individualized and the programmed approach are all possibilities
for the prospective reading teacher. Each of these approaches
has its basis in a good deal of research and has results that
recommends it to the teacher. Each approach varies slightly

[29]H. Alan Robinson, "Teacher-Oriented Reading Instruc-
tion," Controversial Issues in Reading and Promising Solutions,
Helen Robinson, Ed., (Illinois: University of Chicago Press,
1961), p. 131.

[30]Allen D. Calvin, "How to Teach with Programmed Text-
books," Readings on Reading Instruction, Albert Harris and
Edward Sipay, Eds., (New York: David McKay Co., Inc., 1972),
pp. 351-355.

in its emphasis, yet some of the approaches are antagonistic
to each other, denying the validity of the premise upon which
the other's theory is based. No one approach has been proven
to be the ultimate answer in reading; the experiments and
studies were performed on groups of students whose background
and mental ability may differ substantially from other groups.
In other words, no one approach can work successfully with
every student. Reading teachers should rather rejoice that
there are so many options, for if one does not work well with
a particular student, the teacher may select another one, and
so on until he finds one that seems to help.

Because no one approach works best with every student
under every situation, a final "approach" is recommended. It
is called the "Eclectic" approach. This approach was described
more than seventy years ago by William James, and in so doing
he explained the rationale of such a program:

> The art of teaching grew up in the classroom, out
> of inventiveness and sympathetic concrete obser-
> vation. Even where . . . the advancer of the art
> was also a psychologist, the pedagogics and the
> psychology ran side by side, and the former was
> not derived in any sense from the latter. The two
> were congruent, but neither was subordinate. And
> so everywhere the teaching must agree with the
> psychology, but not necessarily be the only kind
> of teaching that would so agree; for many diverse
> methods of teaching may equally agree with psycholo-
> gical laws.[31]

Here Will James explains the importance of careful
student evaluation and observation. The teacher must not only

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[31]William James, <u>Talks to Teachers</u>, (New York: Henry
Holt, 1904).

gauge the student's general abilities, but he must also gauge the student's learning abilities, and by observing learning patterns, prescribe an approach that will complement his approach to learning. This "homespun" psychology implies that the teacher is familiar with the number of approaches to the teaching of reading. Wayne Otto explains the eclectic approach in much the same way.

Otto defines eclectic instruction as not following any one system, but selecting and using what is considered the best elements of all systems.[32] This approach recognizes the great learning diversities possible from student to student; it allows for large group, small group, and individual instruction; it allows for programmed learning, machine learning. It involves the totality of language, in both psycholinguistic theory and language experience theory; it involves thoughtful analysis of reading skills that need to be taught.

In the eclectic approach, the teacher must be able to evaluate what is best of all approaches as well as the implications for instruction. The reading teacher will learn all he can about each theory, and understanding each theory, he will incorporate the best aspects into one enlightened and systematic reading program. The reading teacher must take the best from all possible worlds and adapt to meet the needs of the students in his class.

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[32]Wayne Otto, "An Eclectic Approach to Training," *Reading Rx: Better Teachers, Better Supervisors, Better Programs*, Joseph Nemeth, ed., (Delaware: International Reading Associatioq, 1975), p. 118.

CHAPTER IV

Procedures for Setting up a Reading Program

Before a program can be inaugurated, the reading teacher must survey the present reading status of the students in the school. If there is no need, then the teacher has no reason for a program. This is seldom the case, however, and surveying the reading status of the students is more than a perfunctory occupation. The information gathered from these tests is invaluable as the teacher looks for ways to meet the needs of each of the students.

Once a survey has been taken, and the information has been gathered, the reading teacher must begin to establish some kind of program that will best promote the scholastic growth of the students. The program might be a remedial program, should the test or survey indicate consistently low reading scores; the program may take the form of a developmental reading program, should the reading test scores indicate that the students are reading at grade level, but need to improve their rate, or study habits; the reading program might take the shape of a reading clinic, should the tests indicate only a few trouble spots in reading. Regardless what shape the program takes, the teacher should keep in mind that he is trying to help the students with their reading difficulties.

Once the kind of program is decided upon, and the survey has been taken, the reading teacher can begin to include the reading program in the school's curriculum, and then include the reading program on the poor reader's program. Scheduling the reading program into the school's curriculum is often a big problem for most schools and often the cause for previous aborted reading programs. Scheduling a reading program into the school curriculum is not as difficult a task as some might imagine. The teacher and administrator will find that there are a number of ways to introduce the reading program. It can fit into the program as another class that must be taken by poor readers. In such a program, the reading class would run for two semesters, emphasizing those reading skills found important to the needs of the student body. The reading class could become a study center for referral students or those students who need extra-tutorial help. The students could be required to attend upon the request of the teacher. The reading class could be introduced as an extra-curricular activity, meeting in the afternoons or evenings. In such instances the reading teacher must be sure to have extra-motivational devices on hand, as most students will be unable to tolerate afternoon or evening classes easily. The reading program could be introduced as a summer activity offered by the school. Again, the problem of motivation must be taken into consideration. However, the school is run, whatever imagination the teachers and administrators have, the reading program can fit into the scheme of things.

Once the class has been listed for opening in the fall, the reading teacher must then gather together a classroom adequate for the reading program's format. The size and shape and location of the room is important and must be chosen with great consideration. Often, however, choice is not up to the teacher and so he must be resourceful and create an atmosphere inside the classroom that will enhance learning.

After the classroom is selected and arranged, the teacher can begin to select materials fit for the skills to be taught. Big budgets are a nice way to begin any program, but a reading program just starting will not get the budget it deserves. Again, the teacher must become a master of resources, gathering together what materials he can find, and often what materials he can scrape together. Gathering materials together assumes that the teacher has identified what skills he must teach. This is perhaps the second largest stumbling block to most well-meaning reading teachers.

Once the program has begun, the teacher should be certain he provides for two things: a varying method of instruction, one that accommodates large and small group instruction, and individual instruction; and the second important provision is that the teacher provides for a continual evaluation of his reading program. Administrators understand too well the pressures they face with school boards, accreditation committees, parent-teacher conferences, and other groups who all demand some sort of quantified evaluation of the school's program, and often they look most rigorously at the beginning reading programs. Administrators need to face

these groups and report that the reading program is a great
asset to the school's curriculum. This can be done if the
reading teacher arms himself with information on student
scores that indicate growth.

A second important reason for an on-going evaluation
of the reading program is for the reading teacher's own wel-
fare. The reading teacher needs the information an evalua-
tion offers. The evaluation will indicate where the instruc-
tion can be improved; it will indicate what techniques are
met with the most success, and what techniques should be
dropped; it will indicate what students need more intensive
help, and what students are not benefitting from instruction.
The reading teacher should be changing materials, methods
and techniques until he finds those which provide the most
growth in the students.

The reading teacher is not the lowest man-on-the-
totem-pole. He realizes the challenge that attends his job;
He challenges himself to meet the needs of each student, so
that the student is equipped to handle the demands that
society and future studies will make on him. The reading
teacher also challenges himself to meet the needs of each
faculty member, within whose classes students cannot function.
The other faculty members do not have the training that the
reading teacher has, and they also are carefully instructed
in ways to help the slower students in the class.

The discussion above, procedures for setting up a
high school reading program, provides the framework from
which this chapter is developed. These are the most important

points that must be followed to insure a successful program.
The reading teacher remembers that the ultimate purpose for
the reading program is to insure success; this chapter will
help to insure that success. The chapter will provide the
reading teacher with the basic steps he needs to follow in
setting up his own reading program.

I. Survey Reading Status

The first step in setting up a reading program is
to survey the reading status of the student population within
a high school. It is assumed that the reading teacher has
read journals in the field of reading crying about the lament-
able state of high school readers, or that the reading
teacher has heard many grumblings from the other faculty
members about the sloppy and often elementary work done for
their classes by high school students. Perhaps the reading
teacher has attended a summer workshop and learned that high
school students do not read or study as they ought. Regard-
less of the impetus for giving reading status survey, the
reading teacher should find out if there are reading difficul-
ties at the local school. If there are, and there probably
will be, a survey will quickly uncover those needs.

There are a number of general survey tests. The
reading teacher can write the publishers for sample copies
and a manual, then he may study the significance of the test
for himself, and choose one for his school. Several are
listed below:

1. <u>California Reading Tests</u>

    This test is available from the California Test
    Bureau. Subtests include vocabulary and compre-
    hension. It is geared for the junior high
    school level (grades 7-9) and for the senior
    high school level (grades 9-college).

2. <u>Nelson Denny Reading Test</u>

    This test measures vocabulary and comprehension
    and reading rate. The test requires about forty
    minutes to administer, and it is easy to score.
    The test is geared for grades seven through
    college.

3. <u>Gates-MacGinnitie Survey & Reading Test</u>

    This test measures vocabulary, comprehension,
    speed, and accuracy. It is available in three
    forms. It can be used in grades seven through
    nine.

The reading test should be carefully examined to
see if it covers those areas deemed pertinent by the reading
teacher and by the school's reading committee, should one
exist. Then the test should be administered school-wide.
All the students should be evaluated for there are those
seniors who may end up as college drop-outs in the next year
if the reading teacher does not help them in the senior year.

Once a survey has been made, a reading committee
ought to be formed to investigate the possibility of a school-
wide reading program. Goals will have to be formed that
reflect the academic standards of the school, and then,
based on the results of the survey tests, skills will have
to be identified as needing attention. Finally, a budget
needs to be allotted for a part-time or full-time reading
teacher. Too often the English teacher is selected as the
obvious candidate. He is burdened with too many duties in

such instances. A reading program really deserves someone
who has training in the field. An English teacher is only
trained to teach the content of literature rather than how
to read literature, a non-content course.

The school-wide survey is an important beginning.
It includes the initial stages of planning, the school-formed
committees, faculty involvement, and the participation that
usually gets any program off to a fine start. The school-
wide survey also provides another service, besides the en-
thusiasm it stirs; it provides the committee or reading
teacher with a ground work from which he may build the pro-
gram that is needed, be it a remedial program, a develop-
mental program, a reading clinic, or a study center. It
helps the reading teacher identify the skills that need to
be taught, the students that special instruction, and the
approaches that should be adopted.

II. Schedule the Reading Program

The second step in establishing a reading program,
after a reading needs survey has been made and it has been
determined that a reading program is needed, is to schedule
a reading program into the school's program. Having passed
this step, the teachers have demonstrated their sincerity
and commitment to the reading program, hence this step is
considered a major hurdle.

Just how a reading program can fit into the school's
schedule and still retain its effectiveness will have to be
considered by the reading committee and the school administra-

tors. To answer the question, the committee must again return to their academic standards and policies, and more importantly, to their goals for the program. Just what goals they have established for the program should indicate its proper place among the other school programs. However,the committee has imagined the reading program's function, they must keep in mind that the reading program may be scheduled in a variety of ways; the reading program is flexible.

The most often implemented reading program fits into the school's curriculum, with students enrolled into the course just as they would be in any other class, only this class is a requirement. This reading program runs throughout the school year, both semesters. The class would then meet for a regularly allotted class period, but instead of meeting four days a week as most other classes, this reading class, should it be a remedial program, should meet up to six hours a week. This is important consideration, because remedial students often require up to six hours a week of intensive practice for any significant growth to occur during the semester. Where a school's program makes this impossible, then the class may be adjusted to fit more gracefully into the program. In any event, the teacher should understand that time is important for the success of the students, and four to six hours a week for one-hour time blocks is ideal.

Another way of scheduling a reading program is for the reading teacher to establish a study center for students to come in on a referral or tutorial basis. This schedule implies two things: the survey made of the reading status of

the school indicated that generally the reading and study habits of the students were fine, but there were a few problems and a few students who needed extra help; or the school cannot afford to hire a full-time reading teacher or finance a complete reading program.

A study center is a valid option in either situation and can be used very effectively. The center could be filled with programmed study packets, covering as many study skills and reading materials as possible; a curriculum coordinator could be hired for part-time salary to organize and check out materials to the students who come in during study periods, library periods, an elective period, or after school.

An important part of the study center is a method of assessing the needs of the student and assigning appropriate materials for the student to work on, a responsibility of some qualified reading teacher presumably. Other staffing for the study center could include volunteer community workers (the reading teacher could hold workshops for these volunteers to learn what is required of them), or the school could hire honor students to work part time as cross-age tutors, an experience that would add prestige to the honor student's work record and could help enforce important skills in the honor student's academic life.

The study center could create an important learning environment in the school, where students know they can turn when they come to rough spots in their studies. This also helps to create in the student a desire to find answers to questions, rather than give up on frustrating problems.

The reading committee might decide that a reading program could not fit into the normal routine of school life, and so the reading teacher might then propose to teach a reading class after school hours. Any student who needed extra help could be asked, if not required, to attend an after-school or evening reading class. This program might come under attack if the students live quite a distance from the school, but if the reading program were inaugurated in a boarding school, an evening schedule would present no special problem.

Besides the student's ability to attend an evening class because of transportation, another disadvantage is the extra concentration demanded of the students. Too much school might have a detrimental effect rather than prove helpful.

Should an after-school schedule prove the most advantageous for teachers and students, the reading teacher would find that he had a free hand in using the school's resources. He would not be disturbing any other classes, and there would be no pressure from class bells. The special evening setting, an extra-curricular activity might help to create a special learning atmosphere. There may be more cooperation from the students as a result.

In some special cases a summer reading program may be scheduled as an extra help for those who could not attend a reading program during the regular school term, or the summer reading program may be the only option open to the high school at the time. In any event, a summer reading program catches the students as they are free from other class pressures; they

are able to devote full-time to the reading class. For the teacher, the summer reading schedule is an easier time as well; released from his other teaching responsibilties, the teacher can devote more time to develop his reading class.

There are some disadvantages for a summer reading schedule. Students and their parents tend to vacation at different times during the summer, and gathering a class of reading students for a particular time during the summer may prove more difficult than one would imagine. This is not a serious hardship; if the class is scheduled far enough in advance of the summer, both teachers and parents can make the appropriate arrangements.

A second disadvantage for a summer reading program is that schools tend to compress summer programs into a few weeks. This works fine for content courses, because the students need only work a little harder in mastering the material. Reading is a non-content course; it is a skill, and like all skills, reading requires time and practice to master. A snappy two- or three-week reading program may not help very much. If the program were offered during the summer, the teacher should plan on shorter hours during the day, and plan on increasing the frequency of class meetings; or he might plan a follow-up session before or as school starts to review the progress made.

The scheduling of a reading program is not as difficult a task as the reading committee might think; there are only a few things that they must keep in mind as they decide on the schedule: what class conflicts will the program create? What

students would be able to take the class and what will their
schedules be like? What kind of schedule is most consistent
with the educational goals of the school? The reading program
can tolerate any demands made upon it because it is very flex-
ible. The important thing is that the school does actually
schedule a program.

III. Set Up the Classroom

Once the reading program has been added to the schedule,
and the reading teacher knows what kind of program he is to
develop, he can then look to the physical demands of the class;
he can begin to set up the classroom. Since the beginning
reading program will rarely have a large budget to begin with
and since the reading teacher will not be able to equip his
classroom with all the newest materials and tapes, books and
study carrels, the reading teacher thus organizes himself.

The demand for organization is as strong as the demand
for perseverance and resourcefulness. All three qualities
are essentials for the teacher to meet the task before him.
The task is described by Jack Kriege's article, "You Can
Systematize Your Reading Program."[1] He lists the steps to
take in order to organize a classroom in preparation for the
new reading program. He suggests first that the teacher
take inventory of what he has already on hand, and then inves-
tigate the possibility of discovering new sources (here

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[1]In Readings on Reading Instruction, Albert Harris and
Edward Sippay, eds., 2nd ed., (New York: David McKay Company,
Inc., 1972), p. 164-171.

resourcefulness and perseverance pays). Second he expects the reading teacher to organize the materials into a useable sequence. The teacher can color code them or he might separate them by skills that each material emphasizes. The teacher then designs an efficient room, a room that will accomodate the different group and individual activities planned by the reading teacher. All of these steps are important in order to set up a classroom that enhances and complements the goals of the reading program.[2]

The first step in Kriege's article, taking inventory, is an important first step. The reading teacher must often begin a program on a slight budget, and he must therefore need to use all available sources before he can purchase anything. Very often the teacher has to take old or sample textbooks and work books, Xerox some of the drills and reading materials, then mount them on colored poster board. These homemade cards are just as effective as any that are bought from expensive publishing houses. The only caution in constructing these exercises must be made by the teacher who ought to know something about readability levels. Each of the Xeroxed materials ought to be gauged in terms of sentence complexity, vocabulary difficulty, and subject material. There would be no profit in Xeroxing materials that are too difficult for the remedial readers to deal with.

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[2]Kriege's discussion extends into tests, determining reading levels, student grouping and class scheduling, all of which will be discussed later in the chapter.

Reader's Digest, National Geographics, and other popular trade magazines provide a wealth of reading materials that include a broad range of interests. The teacher should try to collect old editions from parents, friends, fellow teachers, and other members of the community. Exercises and study guides as adjuncts to articles in these magazines can be developed by the reading teacher and in cases of trade magazines, such as Popular Mechanics, American History Illustrated, and Auto Mechanics Digest, content-area teachers can help develop comprehension questions.

The teacher might begin to collect paperback books of general literature and build them into a classroom library. Again, the teacher will have to turn to his own library to supplement the classroom's library; he can also turn to his friends, parents of the students, fellow teachers, and other members of the community. The effort made in this endeavor will be repaid many times over. The availability of reading materials in the classroom often ignites the interest of the students. The teacher needs only to create a corner of the room that looks inviting, and there display the books, all representing various levels of readability and interest.

Once the teacher has gathered together available resources and reading materials, and has looked about for other sources, he should then organize the materials into a useable sequence. This step is applicable to reading materials that have been adapted to emphasize different skills, and have been grouped according to readability levels. All of these materials need some kind of logical sequencing or grouping

and then indexing so the teacher knows what sources he has, and when the time comes, he can assign students to work with appropriate materials.

Many published materials have a special code for each level of difficulty and for the emphasized skill. This is the most popular feature of many of the published drills, and it is precisely because of this organizational feature that teachers buy them. The teacher will find the same convenience with his own materials if he takes the time and effort to organize and then index them.

The final step in organizing and setting up a classroom that will accommodate the new reading program, according to Kriege, is the spatial arrangement of the classroom. Most reading classes are equipped to seat about twenty students. This is really about all that a reading program can effectively manage at a time. Most classrooms can be arranged to handle twenty students and still allow the teacher to vary his instruction from large group to small and individual instruction. However the teacher plans to vary his instruction, the division of the classroom and its arrangment should reflect the educational standards of the school and the goals of the reading program.

IV. Identify the Reading Skills

That Need to be Taught

Almost all sources agree that there are skills that need to be taught in order for the remedial reader to improve his reading ability. These skills are often found in the

reading literature in taxonomies, a special classification of components that make up a subject, or they may appear in extended discussions in textbooks. One of the most popular taxonomies from which reading skills are extrapolated and enlarged upon is Barrett's "Taxonomy of Cognative and Affective Dimensions of Reading Comprehension" (see Appendix C for the taxonomy).

From this taxonomy, many textbook authors have developed discussions and lesson plans to cover the reading skills. These skills are word recognition, word meaning, comprehension, and study skills, each of which are composed of sub-skills.[3] The reading teacher must identify what skills are important to the needs of the school as was determined in the survey previously given. Each of these skills is briefly discussed here for the benefit of the reading teacher.

The first reading skill to be discussed is the word recognition skill. this skill deals mainly with word analysis, or the ability to identify a word, to guess word meanings from context, point of view, or the dictionary. Word identification is a very fundamental skill, one that most of the high school students have mastered to a fairly complex level. Unless the student is severely remedial, or is a non-reader, not much time will have to be devoted to this skill.

For the non-reader, or for the severely remedial student, this skill is an important building block; it is step one for him. Betty Roe suggests three important ways

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[3]Robert Karlin, Teaching Reading in High School, (Indiana: Bobbs-Merrill Education Co., Inc., 1977), p. 20.

in which students increase their vocabularies: "through direct vocabulary instruction, incidental attention to building word meaning, and wide reading."[4] The first method of direct vocabulary instruction is perhaps the weakest, for the words are usually presented in an illogical sequence, and because the words thus presented have little relevance, they are soon forgotten.

In order for words to become a working part of the student's vocabulary, they must be introduced in a more natural way, as an outgrowth of the reading. The meanings of the words then become important to the student, and the context clues, the syntactic clues, and the semantic clues all work together to offer a real definition of the word. The student is not likely to forget the word as he would if the isolated word were presented on one day, and then given again as part of a test. The second two methods of vocabulary development mentioned by Roe are a more important way of learning words.

Phonetic analysis also plays an important part of this reading skill, and the reading teacher must know the English language phonetic generalizations. Leo Schell's Fundamentals of Decoding for Teachers is an excellent book that handles the phonetic analysis of the English language in a programmed approach.[5] It is geared for the teacher who is not acquainted with phonics. The book handles vowels and consonants,

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[4] Betty Roe, Reading Instruction in the Secondary School, (Chicago: Rand McNally Publishing Co., 1978), p. 118.

[5] (Chicago: Rand McNally College Publishing Company, 1975).

phonemes and graphemes, vowel phonemes, vowel phoneme-graphemes, consonant phonemes, consonant phoneme-graphemes, inflectional endings, and syllabication.

Word meaning skills include sub-skills in structural analysis, use of the dictionary recognition of multiple meanings, and recognition of figurative language. This general skill builds directly from the word recognition skill, but its emphasis is slightly different; in the first skill, the emphasis was on identifying the word, a mechancial process, and the second skill, word meaning, the emphasis is on denotation and connotation.

Structural analysis and use of the dictionary skills are two sub-skills that encourage learning in denotative word meanings. Structural analysis is the study of prefixes, suffixes, roots and etymologies. The student is taught to take a word apart by its components. For example, when he comes across the word "untenable," the student separates the word into parts: un + ten + able. He then applies meaning to each of the parts in order to come to the meaning of the word. "Un" signifies "not," "ten" signifies "to hold," and "able" signifies "the ability to." Hence the student derives a simple definition for untenable--not able to hold. Obviously this is a very rude definition, but it is at least a beginning point for the student as he learns to handle words.[6]

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[6]Most textbooks include special chapters on prefixes, suffixes and roots. In appendix C the teacher will find a sample structural analysis chart.

Students are taught to look up words in the diction-
ary when they are uncertain about a definition, and they are
taught to recognize the different kinds of word meanings they
will find. Most dictionaries deal with several entries for a
word, and this tends to confuse students to the "real" mean-
ing of the word. The teacher must explain such terms as
archaic, obsolete, preferred, dialectic, slang, and deriva-
tions. As the students see these clues before an entry, they
will know which entry to look for.

Connotative word meaning is also an important sub-
skill to the word meaning skill. Often students do not
realize that the words they use from day to day are words
with connotative meanings, indeed they seldom realize that
there is another meaning, denotative meaning. In order to
help the student recognize connotative and dennotative mean-
ings, the teacher should discuss such terms as pejoration,
amelioration, generalization, specialization, euphemism,
hyperbole, acronyms (words composed of the first letters or
syllables of longer terms, such as SCUBA, Self-Contained
Undersea Breathing Apparatus), oxymorons, homonyms, antonyms,
and synonyms. In this way the teacher gives the student a
means whereby he may categorize and organize his expanding
vocabulary.

Comprehension skills, the third category of general
skills listed by Robert Karlin, include that part of the read-
ing process that internalizes the information gained. This
category takes the reader beyond the words written on the
page to the meaning. These general skills include three

sub-skills, understanding literal meaning, recognizing inferred meaning, and evaluating information and ideas. Each step progresses farther from the page into the mind of the reader. Many remedial reading programs are able only to teach literal meaning and inferential conclusions; the critical reading and evaluating is usually left for the developmental reading program.

In order to help the students understand the literal meaning of a reading passage, the teacher must deal first with phrases, then with words, and finally with paragraphs. This sequence tends to emphasize the idea that there is a kernel of essential information within a written piece of discourse, and all the material that surrounds that kernel serves to develop that "thesis" or kernel. The thesis or kernel is developed in a number of ways, through comparison, contrast, time or spatial sequence, example, explanation, cause and effect, restatement, or definition.

The teacher might have the students look for key words, or key phrases, or key sentences in order to find the thesis of the material. The teacher could then discuss the function of the sentences or phrases that surround the thesis.[7]

In order to find literal meaning, the reader must answer the question, "What did the author say?" Irwin Joffe has a series of three questions he thinks the reader must answer in order for him to find the literal meaning of any

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[7]H. Alan Robinson, _Teaching Reading and Study Strategies_, (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1975), p. 111.

passage:

1. Who or what is the passage about?

2. What aspect of the who or what is the author concerned with?

3. What does the author really want his readers to understand about this aspect of the who or what?[8]

Thinking and understanding on the literal level is only a prelude to recognizing inferred meaning and final evaluation of information and ideas, both of which are vital to thorough comprehension. The reader must then take the literal meaning with him as he reaches conclusions and draws inferences about the passage. In order to infer meaning, the reader must be able to generalize, interpret, and conclude. In a sense this level ceases to be mechanical reading and becomes a thinking process.

To generalize, the student needs to have certain understandings about the nature of things, things like human nature, animal instinct, mechanical operations, and natural phenomena. These understandings come from experience (a good argument for the language-experience approach), from observation, from keen insight, and from reading. The teacher can enhance the experiences of his student and give him opportunity to do wide reading, but he can only depend on the native ability of his student to perceive the nature of things. Formal logic may not be much help to the remedial reading student.[9]

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[8]*Opportunity for Skillful Reading*, 2nd ed., (California: Wadsworth Publishing Company, Inc., 1975), p. 42.

[9]Both deductive and inductive reasoning implies a facility to organize information and to generalize, process too complex for most remedial reading students to master.

Interpreting facts and drawing conclusions are also two important processes in recognizing inferred meaning. Facts are presented in a passage, and presumably the author has an explicit meaning, which he creates by the sequencing and use of those facts. Quite often, however, the author infers a meaning, and he leaves it up to the reader to determine what that meaning may be. The reader's task is to select the important facts or details in the story and, ignoring the significant information, draw conclusions on the basis of the significant facts.

Irwin Joffe stresses the importance of distinguishing insignificant from significant details in effective reading:

> You must recognize that all details are not of equal importance and that, if you are to become an efficient reader, you will pay less attention to the less important details and read the more important details carefully and attentively. In other words, knowing the difference between more important and less important details allows you to adjust your rate of reading and your intensity of concentration.[10]

This slightly different approach to the importance of details implies that efficient reading is selective reading, reading that concentrates on significant details and pays less attention to insignificant details. Both inferential understanding and efficient reading are to be gained by the ability to select important details.

The final step in thorough reading comprehension takes the literal meaning and inferred meaning and all the ideas presented in a passage and requires the reader to assimilate the information and eventually to make an evaluation. Evaluations can only be made effectively if they are based on accurate

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[10]Irwin Joffe, p. 98.

literal understanding and on the recall of significant facts. Once an evaluation of a passage has been made, the reader is ready to communicate this new synthesis of ideas in other forms, be it writing, speaking, acting, or some other medium.

The final group of skills as described by Robert Karlin's taxonomy is the study skills. Important sub-skills in this group are location of information, organization and retention of information, and flexibility of reading rates. These skills tend to be less reading skills and more the application of reading skills in various areas of study. If the administrator of the local high school has encouraged content-area reading instruction, then every teacher at the high school is engaged in teaching these skills as they pertain to the various disciplines. Indeed, in the various disciplines is where these skills are best learned because the motivation is so much better in the classroom than in a separate reading class where the teacher dredges up some Chapter X from a biology book and has the students practice study skills. If content-area reading instruction is not encouraged at the local high school, then the task of teaching study skills falls to the reading teacher.

Learning to locate information, the first study skill mentioned by Karlin, is an invaluable study skill. The students need to know where they can go if they need to find some piece of information or if they have some problem that needs to be solved. It has been said that education is really knowing where one can go to find information when one is in need. The teacher can help the student in this "education" very

effectively by working with the school librarian. Together they can develop exercises, treasure hunts, and other activities that get the remedial reading student acquainted with the uses of the library.

Learning how to use a dictionary, an encyclopedia, index, as well as learning the parts of a book are all important skills that many teachers overlook, assuming that the students "already know that stuff." The truth is, many students do not know "that stuff," and so go through high school and sometimes college without ever learning how to use books.

Once the information has been located, the student must learn how to organize the information and his time in order to get the most from his study. Several study guide outlines have been developed to help the student make the most of his time. The SQ3R plan developed by Francis Robinson is such a study guide, and it has many variations and "improvements" as it is adapted to different disciplines.[11] The SQ3R outline for study calls for a general survey of the reading material before actual reading takes place. During that survey the reader pays close attention to the italicized phrases, bold-face print, charts, graphs and other highlights of the chapter; he asks himself, for example, "What should I know about 'Art in Medieval English Cathedrals'?" In that way he sets a purpose for his reading. He knows what to look for, what information is important, what details are significant.

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[11]Effective Study, rev. ed., (New York: Harper and Row, 1961), Chapter 2.

After the general survey and questioning of the material to be read, the reader begins to read the material, looking for the answers to the questions he has posed during the survey stage (the "S" and the "Q" of the SQ3R). After he has finished reading the material and believes he has understood what he has read, the reader then closes the material and recites the answers to the questions he has asked. If he can answer the questions to his own satisfaction, then he needs only to review the material later on. If he was unable to answer all of the questions, then he needs to go back and reread the passage with which he had the trouble.

Using an organized method of study, like the SQ3R, or its variations (PQ3R, OARWET, EVOKER, SQRQCQ), is perhaps the most efficient approach for organizing study materials and students' study time.[12] The reader is taught a certain amount of independence when he studies; he makes his own purpose for reading and he quizzes himself after he finishes. The amount of information he retains weeks after he has finished his study of the subject is much improved as compared to the amount remembered if the student merely plods through the reading with no organization. Because the student's learning is improved as a result of acquiring this skill, the teacher should emphasize its instruction.

The final sub-skill under the study skills category is reading rate. The speed with which a student is able to

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[12]Each of these letters has a special meaning, as the SQ3R, and they do serve a useful purpose beyond their "gimmicky" sound. A sample SQ3R study sheet and explanation is found in Appendix C.

get through a reading assignment is not so important as one would think. There are not just two reading speeds, fast and slow; there are purposes to reading, and the purpose sets the rate. The ability to move from one purpose to another purpose, and therefore from one speed to another is not as easy a task for remedial students as one might have thought.

Lyle Miller indicates that a major problem with poor readers is that they have not learned to set a purpose for their reading, and they have not learned to adjust their reading rates to meet those different purposes.[13] In other words, a poor reader will read a newspaper article with the same speed and the same manner as he would read a telephone directory, or study for a chemistry test in the same way he reads a comic book.

The teacher needs to teach his students to identify the purpose for their reading, i.e., are they to know only ideas, are they to find names, are they to trace the steps leading to some event, are they to memorize dates, or are they to understand the process for performing some function? Each of these purposes has a reading rate all its own. Miller suggests generally seven different rates in all: scanning, skimming, idea reading, exploratory reading, recreational reading, study reading, and analytical reading.[14] The first two rates are used for locating bits of information, such as

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[13] Increasing Reading Efficiency, (San Francisco: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., 1977), pp. 7-22.

[14] Ibid.

names or dates. The third and the fourth rates are used for discovering main ideas, arguments, or the gist of an article. The fifth rate, recreational reading, is done at the reader's own discretion and ability, but it is for pleasure in reading. The final two rates are used for serious study, or material that requires analysis, such as a political speech, should the teacher be asking for the logic of the speech, or with materials that present a condensed amount of information with little prose, such as chemistry texts or music.

The identification of reading skills that need to be taught is actually begun as the reading teacher first receives test results from the original survey of the reading status in the local high school. From that point he begins to see what the needs are in the school, and then more specifically, he learns what the particular weaknesses of each student are. When he has given diagnostic tests, and he has that information on a profile, a chart that plots the reading abilities and weaknesses of a student, the reading teacher must then begin to plot out a course of instruction best suited to enhance the growth of each student.

The instruction in a remedial reading program will, for the most part, include those skills discussed here. They all fall under four general categories, according to Robert Karlin, whose model has been expanded above. They include: word recognition, the ability to identify words and sound them out; word meaning, the ability to understand what the word represents; comprehension, the ability to understand literal meaning, to recognize inferred meaning, and to

evaluate the ideas presented by an author; and study skills, the ability to locate information, to organize and retain the information, and flexibility of reading rate. Each of these skills is important to the success of independent and mature readers, hence they must be taught to the poor readers.

V. Select Materials and Methods for Instruction

Now the reading program is almost ready to begin. The teacher has made an identification of skills that need to be taught, and the lesson plans are beginning to take shape. The classroom is in order, and things look promising. The only question the teacher might have at this point concerns what kinds of assignments and materials to use, and what is the most effective way of presenting instruction. This section discusses both the materials that are appropriate for instruction, and how the teacher may organize his time to make instruction the most profitable.

The problem of materials seems to be a confusing one, one that many beginning reading teachers don't quite know how to deal with. The selection of the materials, however, must be based on one important thing: what goals the reading teacher has set for the class, what reading skills he has identified that need to be presented, and whatever standards the school has adopted will serve as the best guide for selection of the most appropriate materials. All the teacher needs to do is write to publishing houses for information or catalogues that list materials available for reading programs. This will not be difficult, because publishing houses will go

out of their way to show the teacher the best they have to offer. If the teacher is still hesitant to choose, he could take the problem before the reading committee, and they could select, but there are few teachers who aren't sure enough of themselves to choose basic materials.

Some teachers, after they have made a selection and have the order in the mail have second thoughts. Those teachers should keep in mind that for every published material designed to cover a reading skill, there are perhaps twenty others that might have been used just as easily and with just as much success as the one ordered. A teacher is not bound forever by the decision made for a school year.

There are a few things the teacher should be aware of as he searches for materials for his reading program. With these in mind, the reading teacher will find that his program will run much smoother and seem more organized. The first hint is that in looking for a textbook, the teacher should look for one that covers a variety of skills in some organized and easy-to-understand manner. A textbook that is too complicated will confuse the remedial reading students, and that is not the teacher's purpose. It certainly is not the purpose of the program. A second important feature of the textbook is its variety of reading matter. The teacher should avoid textbooks that tend to discuss only one subject. The reading tastes in the class are varied, and that should be reflected in the textbook. A third consideration when selecting a textbook is the inclusion of many reinforcing activities for the skills presented. The textbook should spend some time with

each skill, developing it fully, and then present reinforce-
ment drills or activities.

When selecting materials for individualized instruc-
tion, there are also a few considerations the teacher must
keep in mind. The first consideration deals with economy and
simplicity. The teacher should shy away from materials that
appear too complex or time consuming for the remedial reader
to handle within a class period. Remember that most remedial
readers have a history of failure with complex assignments,
and they have developed short attention spans as a result.
If they are faced with a card that asks for more than they
are able to do, the class may degenerate into chaos. The for-
mat of the material should be neat, organized, and interesting.

The second feature to look for in selecting materials
for individual instruction is grade level or difficulty level
coding. In order to assign appropriate materials for the
students' reading level, and to assign materials that develop
desired skills, the teacher should be certain that the mate-
rials he selects are coded in some way. This is not a unique
or hard to find feature. Most published materials have some
type of code in order to help the teacher coordinate the dif-
ferent activities he plans. For example, if the student is
working on the seventh-grade level, he would be assigned to
work in one activity, level blue, and in another activity,
level green or tan, and still in another activity he would
work in levels eight through ten. This type of organization
is efficient, and the students don't feel threatened because
they are working at a lower level than someone else; everyone

is working in different colors and numbers.

The third consideration when selecting materials for individual instruction is to look for different activities. Many different materials often cover the same skills in different ways. To avoid such expensive duplications, the reading teacher should know what skills are covered by the material, and knowing that, the teacher can purchase kits and materials that will round out the program and cover each skill the teacher has identified as important.

As the teacher plans the content of the course and structures the periods during the week, he will get a more accurate picture of what materials he will want to purchase. Often the structure of the program limits the range of materials from which to choose. There are "pontoon" programs, for example, in which the reading teacher works directly with a content teacher to help the remedial students develop skills important to that discipline. A history "pontoon" would out of necessity limit the choice of reading done to the area of history. The teacher would want to select materials that work with history content, such as the "Dimensions Series" by Science Research Associates, which has published two kits, "An American Album" and "As America Grew." Another reading program might emphasize survival skills, or those reading and writing skills needed to survive in society. For such a program, the teacher would no doubt select from newspapers, news weeklies, want ads, and phone directories.

Most generalized reading programs will want a variety of subject matter to cover the varied reading interests of

the students and will want activities that include as many skills as possible. For the teacher on a limited budget, he will want to get as much mileage as possible from the kits he orders. He should then check to see the variety of ways he could use the same kit. Some kits include a number of alternative programs that can be devised from one kit. For a list that suggests some materials and sources, see Appendix A.

Once the teacher has ordered materials for the program, he must then turn his attention to the problem of organizing class-time instruction. A reading program is somehow different from other courses in high school. In a content course, such as history or biology, the division of class time does not seem to be a problem. There is a certain amount of information that must be given to the students, and so they sit for some fifty minutes and write all the information down. The reading teacher, on the other hand, is dealing primarily with habits, motivational problems, interest levels, and different learning styles.

Patricia Cross, in her book, Accent on Learning, indicates that not all students learn in the same way.[15] This may sound elementary, but not many understand the implication this has for the teacher. Some students work well in small groups, others in large groups, and still others work well individually. For some students, programmed materials work best. Grades aren't rewards for these students.

For the teacher who is faced with a great diversity of

[15] (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1976).

reading abilities and learning styles, a division of class time must be made to accommodate these students. The best division makes good use of large group instruction, small group instruction, and individual activities. Large group instruction implies that all the students, or most of them, sit together for lectures, orientations, announcements, and discussions. This kind of instruction is what most teachers are used to, and hence should prove no problem.

Small group instruction creates the real problems for the reading teacher. Since all the students in the class are at different levels, how does a teacher divide them and then group them so that each group is able to perform the required task? The first thing to remember is that homogenous grouping is valuable. Although all the students are at different reading levels, they are not all different in every skill. The grade level result from a reading test with many sub-skills tends to be an average grade level. Many of the students are working about the same in comprehension activities, and some are closely scored on vocabulary skills. The teacher can group these similar students into small groups. If the teacher is working on literal recall skills one period, he can then group those students who are about the same level on literal recall. These small groups are obviously not permanent, for if the teacher needs to have the students work on vocabulary skills, she would have to group those students together who perform about the same on vocabulary activities. For purposes of grouping, diagnostic test results are inval-

uable to the teacher.

Independent instruction requires no grouping, but
it does require the teacher to have a correct analysis of
the student's abilities and reading level. The diagnostic
tests given should provide the teacher with enough informa-
tion so that he can assign materials to the student that will
provide him with enough challenge and motivation to succeed
at his task. The independent activity periods give the stu-
dents a chance to practice the skills learned in the large and
small group periods. That reinforcing quality of the indi-
vidual activities period is beneficial to the slow learner.
For the teacher, individual instruction frees the teacher to
conference with some students or help other students with
assignments.

Now that the materials have been assigned, the groups
have been formed, and the activities for the week have been
planned, the teacher must now break down the five fifty-minute
periods he has for the week. Here is a sample weekly schedule.
The skill for this particular week is learning to locate the
main idea in a written passage.

Monday: Large group instruction--25 minutes

During this time the teacher introduces the skill to
be taught and fields the students' questions. The
teacher then demonstrates how a student should find
main ideas.

Small group instruction--25 minutes

During this time, the students have arranged them-
selves with students of similar ability, and, with
exercises given to them by the teacher, they work
together finding the main ideas. During this time,
the faster students will not need teacher supervision,
freeing the teacher for those groups who need the
extra help.

Tuesday: Large group instruction--30 minutes

During this time, the teacher is able to provide a
five-minute review of yesterday's work and spend
another five minutes preparing the students for the
next day's assignment, which will reinforce the skill
to be learned, i.e., finding main ideas.

The next twenty minutes is used to enlarge upon the
skill of finding main ideas. The teacher begins
looking at different paragraphs and the way the
author constructs them. The teacher should be care-
ful not to present more than the student can handle
at one time.

Individual reading--20 minutes

During this time the teacher can let some students
who understand the skill of main ideas do some in-
dependent reading. The teacher might suggest that
the students begin reading their books looking for
main ideas.

Those students who have not caught on to the skill
should be assigned some appropriate lab activities
to help them find main ideas. Skills like "Reading
for Meaning" are excellent individual activities.

The teacher is free during this time for individual
conferences.

Wednesday: Individual reading and small group instruction--
            35 minutes.

Those students who did not get to do independent
reading on Tuesday should now do so. Those students
who did read independently should now gather into

small groups and meet with the teacher or aids or other cross-age tutors for advanced work with main ideas. The teacher could have students read essays from magazines or news articles and spot the main ideas, and using the main ideas of the author, construct their own news story.

Large group instruction--15 minutes

During this time the teacher can make the announcements important to the students, go over homework to be handed back, and discuss the next day's work. Perhaps the teacher could read a humorous short story, and then ask the students to identify the main idea of the story. In this way the teacher may have the students apply what they are learning, and apply it in a fun way.

Thursday: Large group instruction--15 minutes

During this time the teacher could have some timed reading drills for the students to do. The drills could be either to reinforce the learning of the unit, or they may be for word identification.

Small group instruction--35 minutes

Again, with the help of aids or cross-age teachers, the teacher might have every group staffed for a review of the unit on main ideas. The students could work first independently within the group on some activity, and then compare answers with other members of the group.

Friday: Individual reading--35 minutes

During this time all the students could be reading or working on some type of project as assigned by the teacher. The teacher is free to conference, check folders, update charts, or correct papers.

Large group activity--15 minutes

As the group gathers together, the teacher can prepare them for the coming week, discuss the past week, evaluate the week in terms of the progress they have made. Quizzes can be given at this time should the teacher desire.

The most important thing a teacher can do for his

reading class is to prepare for the class. The reading teacher

should take the time, often months, before the beginning of

the term to locate the materials that best suit the educational goals of the school and the reading program. The materials ought to be clear, neat, organized, and easy to complete within the confines of the class period.

Once the reading materials have been selected, and lesson plans developed, the teacher should turn his attention to the organization of the weekly schedule. He must determine how best to reach all the different learners that compose his reading class. He can plan how to divide the class into large, small, and individual instruction, thus making provision for the learning differences.

These steps, decided long before the class begins, insure that the teacher will not face a last minute panic of no textbooks, no activities for the next day, no provision for the three students who are always finished ten minutes before the end of the period, or no time to update student records and profiles. Besides the confusion this careful planning avoids, there is another benefit; the students will have respect for the program and for the teacher because it is so organized. The students will feel more comfortable in the class, an important first step in enhancing a learning atmosphere.

VI. Evaluate the Program

Ultimately the success of the reading program will be determined by the success of the students who take the course. One must be cautious, however, that a program is con-doned or condemned after one or two semesters, for eventually

the returns will show themselves to the faculty, administration, and student body.

To insure continual success of the reading program, and to assure the faculty that the reading program is meeting the needs of the students, the reading teacher must be constantly evaluating the program. One important way of doing this is by gathering the test scores of the students who complete the course, compare the gains made by each student, and then average all the gains. If there is an average of one to two years growth, the teacher can say that the reading program is instrumental in student development and has a place in the school among all the other programs.

George Spache recommends that an evaluation of a reading program be "comprehensive, continuous, and articulated through the school system, as well as functional and practical."[16] In other words, any evaluation must be continual, not just a check every other semester. The evaluation must be thorough. This implies more than standardized tests; it implies that averages of gains made should be reported, student health records be kept, anacdotal records be made, student work samples be kept on file, cumulative records be updated, follow-up studies be made, and case histories be written.[17] This sort of evaluation responds well to Spache's recommendations of a "practical and functional" evaluation.

Inviting Reading Specialists to the reading program

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[16]Investigating the Issues of Reading Disabilities, (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1975), p. 262.

[17]Ibid.

is a convenient and important evaluatory step. The specialist

can, by observation, discover the weaknesses of the program,

and offer some help in improving the deficiencies. Betty Roe

lists some of the more important roles served by the special-

ist:

1. He studies the population to be served
2. He assists the principal, supervisor, or ad-
   ministrator in setting up a comprehensive reading
   program.
3. He orients the beginning teacher to the philoso-
   phy, procedures, and materials for school read-
   ing programs.
4. He evaluates the program through supervisory
   activities and research, making recommendations
   for changes as needed.
5. He works as a resource person with special cases
   where a high degree of professional competence
   is required.[18]

These are some of the ways in which a reading teacher

can keep a cross-check on the current status of the reading

program and on each student. A continual evaluation is the

most important purpose for using standardized tests on the

students. The teacher will see what has been learned, what

still needs to be learned. As long as the results of the tests

are used for these evaluatory purposes, then tests have a valid

place in the reading program.

Beyond the use of tests, other methods of evaluation

are possible. More personal records of each student can be

kept, along with work samples. Reading specialists are inval-

uable resources to turn for evaluation. Not only can they

spot trouble areas, they can offer suggestions to improve them.

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[18]Reading Instruction in the Secondary School,
(Chicago: Rand McNally Publishing Company, 1978), p. 388.

Improving the reading program is what evaluation is all about.

VII. Tests and Measurements

As a part of the evaluatory process, tests are important. They help the teacher decide who should be in the reading program, tell the teacher what skills he should emphasize, and tell him what skills have been learned by the students, as well as what skills could bear repeating. Tests help the teacher plan for future drills and activities, and they tell him what direction the program should take.

With so much valuable information to be gained by testing, the temptation is to continually administer tests. Too often over-testing has adverse effects. The teacher will cease to get valuable information, but have only a record of the students' endurance. If the teacher spends too much time testing, he will have too little time to spend in teaching. The ideal is to select a few tests that cover all the skills the teacher has identified as important to teach and administer them over a week, one every other day or so.

Olson and Ames describe an excellent rationale for testing: it emphasizes the fact that too many tests do more harm than good.

> The testing should go no further than necessary,
> but it must provide enough information upon which
> to operate. If this is carried out to its logical
> conclusion, one would:
>
> 1. start with a group test for screening
>   purposes.
> 2. evaluate in a group setting specific
>   skills found to be weak for certain
>   students on the survey test.

3. evaluate the students who manifested
severe reading difficulties on the
survey test with an individual diagnostic
test.[19]

Care must be used in making hasty conclusions about
students who have performed poorly on reading tests. Perhaps
the test selected for the school was a timed test. His score
will show only that he is a slow reader rather than a poor
reader. To make sure this doesn't happen, the reading teacher
should be certain to include both timed and untimed tests.
The slow reader, whose averaged grade level was low because
he was not a fast reader, is a candidate for developmental
reading, and not remedial reading, but only a power test, or
an untimed one, would have demonstrated that. The point is
that a variety of different kinds of tests will give the read-
ing teacher a more accurate profile of the students than any
single test.

To insure that accurate profiles are made, and that
the teacher look for an appropriate set of tests, outlined
below are criteria upon which tests ought to be evaluated.
The reading teacher will find a more thorough evaluation of
every test published printed in Buro's Mental Measurement Year-
book.

1. Be sure the test selected is a recent test.

A. Updated tests reflect technological change
whereas older tests contain items unfamiliar
to modern students.

B. Updated tests contain items for minority

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[19]Teaching Reading Skills in Secondary Schools, (Penn-
sylvania: Internation Textbook Co., 1972), p. 23.

students, whereas older tests tend to be "WASP" in appeal.

II. Be sure the test selected is reasonable in length and time allotment.

    A. Too long a test really tests endurance rather than abilities.

    B. Too many tests tire the students and take up class time.

III. Be sure the test selected is uncomplicated

    A. The test should be easy to take, with an uncomplicated format.

    B. The test should be easy to correct, with an easily understood diagnosis.

IV. Be sure the test selected covers many skills.

    A. Administering one test with many skills saves time.

    B. Administering one test with many skills saves money.

V. Be sure the test selected is valid and reliable.

    A. The test should do what it is described as doing.

    B. The test should yield the same results from a student were he to take the test twice.

VI. Be sure the test selected has norms.

    A. Check to see if the test has been standardized.

    B. Check to see if the standardization has been against a group of students to those who will take this test.

VII. Be sure the test selected has a manual.

    A. Check to see that the manual is complete and easy to understand.

    B. Check to see that the manual describes the possible uses for the test.

Whatever test the teacher decides to use, he will want to use a

general survey test to determine the needs of the school population, and then perhaps two or three diagnostic tests, both timed and untimed. Below are a few tests, presented in categories, that the reading teacher might want to consider.[20]

    I. Group Survey Reading Tests

        A. Gates-MacGiqnitie Survey E Reading Test

           1. Measures vocabulary comprehension, speed, and accuracy
           2. Is available in three forms
           3. Use for grades seven through nine

        B. California Reading Test

           1. Measures vocabulary and comprehension
           2. Is available from California Test Bureau
           3. Use for grades seven through nine, and grade nine through college

        C. Nelson-Denny Reading Test

           1. Measures vocabulary, comprehension, and rate
           2. Is available in four forms
           3. Use for grades seven through college

   II. Diagnostic Reading Tests--timed

        A. Diagnostic Reading Tests

           1. Measures vocabulary, silent comprehension, auditory comprehension, rate, rate in content-areas, oral and silent word attack
           2. Is available in two forms from the Committee on Diagnostic Reading Tests
           3. Use for grades seven through college

        B. Botel Reading Inventory

           1. Measures phonetic analysis, word recognition, and word opposites
           2. Is available from Follett Educational Corporation
           3. Use for grades one through twelve

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[20]Wilma Miller, Diagnosis and Correction of Reading Difficulties, (New York: The Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc., 1973), Appendixes II and IV.

III. Diagnostic Reading Tests--untimed

    A. Reading for Understanding

        1. Measures comprehension, drawing conclu-
sions, and making inferences
        2. Is available from Science Research
Associates
        3. Use for grade seven through college
with either junior or senior forms

    B. Durrell Analysis of Reading Difficulty

        1. Measures oral and silent reading, listen-
ing comprehension word analysis, phonics,
writing, and spelling
        2. Is available in either individual or
small group tests
        3. Use for grades one through eight

IV. Individual Reading Tests and Inventories

    A. Gilmore Oral Reading Test

        1. Measures oral reading ability, accuracy
and comprehension
        2. Is available from Harcourt Brace and
Jovanovich
        3. Use for grades one through eight

    B. Gray Oral Reading Test

        1. Measures comprehension, accuracy, and
rate of oral reading
        2. Is available from the Bobbs-Merril
Company
        3. Use for grades one through ten

    C. Ball State University Reading Inventory

        1. Measures composite reading level: Inde-
pendent, Instructional and Frustration
level score
        2. Is available from Ball State University,
Indiana--most universities develop their
own reading informal inventories
        3. Use for grades one through eight.

A good idea is to have the series of tests followed
by an interest inventory. An interest inventory tells the
reading teacher much about the personal lives and interests

of the students. As the teacher assembles materials, it is
a good idea to have some indication of the interests of the
class. Quite often the students will use the interest inven-
tory to tell you about their personal fears. And, since many
remedial readers have poor self-concepts, an interest inven-
tory will help the teacher know what some of the hardships
are. Some sample interest inventories are included in
Appendix D.

VIII. Summary

The reading teacher is a unique creature. He knows
about the needs of poor students in high schools, and he must
do something to help them. He must know how to approach the
administration and faculty to get a reading program together;
almost out of nothing he is able to create a program that
he is sure will meet the needs of those poor students.

In order to create a successful program out of noth-
ing, the reading teacher has had to go through a number of
steps. His first step was to survey the reading status of the
local high school. This confirmed his fears about the poor
students, but then he had some data with which he was able to
approach the administration and faculty to have them consider
the possibility of a reading program to remediate the needs as
illustrated by the low test scores.

Once the reading teacher surveyed the needs of the
students, and then approached the faculty and administration,
who then established a reading committee to assist him in his
endeavors, the reading teacher suggested ways to schedule a

reading program into the school's program. This was an important part of his successful program, for he knew when the teachers and administration okayed his schedule, they were then committed to the program.

With the prospects of a new reading program for the next term, the reading teacher went to work setting up a classroom, gathering materials he would need, and arranging the classroom in a comfortable and interesting way. As he gathered materials together, the reading teacher began to identify skills that he would have to teach. Many of the needs pointed out on the survey test he had given to a large degree helped him decide what skills he would have to teach.

The administration gave him a modest budget to begin with, and the reading teacher needed to look for materials as well as for a textbook that would enhance the learning he was expecting to take place. Once he selected the needed materials, he then sat down and divided up the work week and drew up lesson plans well in advance of the beginning of the term. In fact, the reading teacher was so organized, he had scheduled a reading specialist to visit the program once before the term began, and then twice during the semester. The reading teacher was ready to catch any signs of weakness in the program before they developed into catastrophes.

Because the reading teacher worked hard to get the program started, and because he followed the important steps he found in textbooks about reading, and because he took the time to inform himself about what a successful reading program

involved, the reading teacher will be successful. The read-
ing teacher is a unique creature, ready to enlarge, improve,
and evaluate his program each term.

Appendix A

Resources for the Reading Program

BOOKS FOR THE REMEDIAL READING PROGRAM[*]

TITLE	Reading Grade Level	Interest Grade Level	Publisher
Checkered Flag Series	2	6-12	Field Enterprises
Interesting Reading Series	2-3	4-11	Follett
Deep Sea Adventure Series	2-4	3-9	Field Enterprises
Morgan Bay Series	2-4	4-9	Field Enterprises
World of Adventure Series	2-5	3-9	Benefic Press
American Adventure Series	2-6	4-9	Harper and Row
Frontiers of America Series	3	3-8	Childrens Press
The First Books	3-8	3-8	Watts Press
Stories for Teen-agers	3-4	6-12	Globe
Stories for Teen-agers	5-6	6-12	Globe
Signal Books	4	5-9	Doubleday
Pacemaker Story Books	4-6	6-10	Fearon
Everyreader Series	4-5	4-10	Webster
Teen-Age Tales	4-6	6-11	Heath
Vocational Reading Series	4-6	7-12	Follet
Stories for Today's Youth	4-5	7-11	Globe
The Reading-Motivated Series	4-5	4-10	Field
Simplified Classics	4-6	4-10	Globe
We Were There Books	4-5	5-9	Hale
Modern Adventure Stories	4-6	4-11	Harper and Row
Strange Teen-Age Tales Books	5-6	5-11	Heath
Turner-Livingston Reading Series	5-6	7-12	Follett

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[*]From Appendix VIII, Wilma Miller, Diagnosis and Correction of Reading Difficulties in Secondary School Students, (New York: The Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc., 1973).

Resources for the Reading Program

Miscellaneous Materials for Individual and Small Group
   Instruction*

1.*   Miller, Lyle, Developing Reading Efficiency, (Burgess
       Publishing Co.), designed for students from grades
       seven through twelve, and emphasizes vocabulary and
       comprehension.

2.   Miller, Lyle E., Maintaining Reading Efficiency,
       (Burgess Publishing Co.), consists of standardized
       developmental reading materials which are designed for
       application of reading skills and for evaluation of
       developing reading growth.

3.   The Rateometer (Audio-Visual Research), pacing device
       is available for use by any student during his activity
       periods. Controls regressions and improves rate.

4.   The Controlled Reader, (Educational Developmental Lab-
       oratories) is used with the K-L series and M-N film-
       strip series. Each student reads one filmstrip per day
       or week, depending upon the program. Improves smoothe
       eye return sweep, cuts down on regression, increases
       rate (similar in idea to the Rateometer). Exercises
       in comprehension are included.

5.   The Reading Rate Builders (Science Research Associates)
       is a component of the SRA Reading Lab series and is
       used as a pacing device in some classes.

6.*   The McCall-Crabbs Standard Test Lessons in Reading,
       (Teachers College Press), students are asked to read
       the selection and answer the questions in three minutes.

7.   Basic Reading Skills for High School Use (Scott Fores-
       man, and Company), is used with students who have at
       least 6th grade reading ability.

8.   Scholastic Scope (Scholastic Magazines), can be dis-
       tributed weekly for additional reading experiences.

9.*   Dimensions (Scott Foresman, and Company), are timed
       reading cards that ask the students to read them
       and then answer the questions while being timed.

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*From Donald C. Cushenberry, Remedial Reading in the
Secondary School, (New York: Parker Publishing Company, Inc.,
1972).

10.*   <u>Reading for Understanding</u> (Science Research Associate), contains 400 cards--four per number--that help the student with comprehension, making predictions, drawing conclusions, making inferences.

11.*   <u>Reading for Meaning</u> (   ), are coded cards that ask the student to read a small selection, and then work on vocabulary, comprehension, outlining, and drawing conclusions.

12.*   <u>Flash-X</u> (Educational Developmental Laboratories),works in companion with the Controlled Reader Series. The vocabulary is taken from the Controlled Reader Filmstrips, and placed on a card-disk, which is placed in a special hand-held machine that flashes one word at a time. It is similar in idea to the tachistiscope. The Flash-X develops visual perception and increases sight vocabulary.

13.*   <u>An American Album</u> (Science Research Association), offers graded cards (from gl. 3.0-8.9) with historical selections for reading.

14.   <u>Multi-Read 2</u> (SRA), designed for English students. It has eight levels of difficulty from gl. 3.0-adult.

15.*   <u>Developing Your Vocabulary</u> (SRA), techniques are presented for learning new words, and for using the dictionary and thesaurus. Grade levels extend from 9.0-12.

Appendix B

<u>Addresses of Publishers</u>*   <u>List of Book Publishers</u>

Abelard-Schuman, 6 West 57th Street, New York, N.Y. 10019
Thomas Allen, Ltd., 266 King Street, Toronto 2B, Ontario
American Book-Van Nostrand Company, 55 Fifth Ave., New York, N.Y.
American Library Assn., 50 East Huron Street, Chicago, Ill. 60611
Audio-Visual Research Company, 1509 8th St., S.E., Waseca, Minn.
Barnell Loft, Ltd., 111 South Centre Ave., Rockville Centre,
        New York 11570
Basic Books, Inc., 404 Park Avenue South, New York, N.Y. 10016
Bausch and Lomb Optical Company, Rochester, N.Y. 14602
Beckley-Cardy Company, 1900 No. Narragansett Avenue, Chicago,
        Illinois 60639
Benefic Press, 10300 West Roosevelt Rd., Westchester, Illinois
        60153
        Bobbs-Merrill Company, 4300 West 62nd Street, Indianapolis,
        Indiana 46268
Book Society of Canada, 4386 Shepard Ave., East Agincourt,
        Ontario
Milton Bradley Company, Springfield, Mass. 01101
British Book Service, 1068 Broadview Ave., Toronto, Ontario
Burgess Publishing Company, 428 South 6th St., Minneapolis
        Minnesota 55415
The Center for Applied Research in Education, Incorporated,
        521 Fifth Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10017
Children's Press, 1224 West Van Buren Street, Chicago Illinois
        60607
Continental Press, Inc., Elizabethtown, Pennsylvania 17022
Coward-McCann, 200 Madison Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10016
Crowell, Collier, and Macmillan, 866 Third Avenue, New York,
        N.Y. 10022
John Day Company, 62 West 45th Street, New York, N.Y. 10036
Dell Publishing Company, 750 Third Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10017
The Dial Press, 750 Third Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10017
Dodd, Mead and Company, 79 Madison Avenue, New York, N.Y.
        10016
Doubleday and Company, 277 Park Avenue South, New York, N.Y.
        10017
E. P. Dutton and Company, 201 Park Avenue, New York, N.Y.
        10003
The Economy Company, P.O. Box 25308 Oklahoma City, Oklahoma
        73125
Educators Publishing Service, 75 Moulten Street, Cambridge,
        Massachusetts 02138
The Essay Press, Box 5, Planetarium Station, New York, N.Y.
        10024
Fearon Publishers, 2165 Park Boulevard, Palo Alto, California
        94306
Field Enterprises, Merchandise Mart Plaza, Chicago, Illinois 60654

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*
        Wilma Miller, <u>Diagnosis and Correction</u>, pp. 274-75.

Addresses of Publishers

Follett Educational Corporation, 1010 Washington Boulevard,
        Chicago, Illinois 60607
Garrard Publishing Company, Champaign, Illinois 61820
Ginn and Company, Waltham, Massachusetts 02154
Ginn and Company, 1331 Yonge Street, Toronto 7, Ontario
Globe Book Company, 175 Fifth Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10010
Grossett and Dunlap, 51 Madison Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10010
E. M. Hale and Company, 1201 South Hastings Way, Eau Claire,
        Wisconsin 54701
Harcourt, Brace, and Jovanovich, 757 Third Avenue, New York
        N.Y. 10017
Harper and Row Publishers 49 East 33rd Street, New York,
        N.Y. 10016
Hastings House, Publishers, 151 East 50th Street, New York,
        N.Y. 10022
D. C. Heath and Company, 285 Columbus Avenue, Boston,
        Massachusetts 02116
Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 383 Madison Avenue, New York,
        N.Y. 10017
Houghton-Mifflin Company, 2 Park Street, Boston, Massachusetts
        02107
International Reading Association, 6 Tyre Avenue, Newark,
        Delaware 19711
Alfred A. Knopf, 825 Third Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10017
Lantern Press, 257 Park Avenue South, New York, N.Y. 10010
J. B. Lippincott Company, East Washington Square,
        Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19105
Little, Brown and Company, 34 Beacon Street, Boston,
        Massachusetts 02106
Longmans, Green and Company, 20 Cranfield Road, Toronto
        16, Ontario
Lothrop, Lee and Shepard Company, 419 Park Avenue, New York,
        N.Y. 10016
Lyons and Carnahan, 307 East 25th Street, Chicago, Illinois
        60616
McGraw-Hill Book Company, 330 West 42nd Street, New York,
        N.Y. 10036
David McKay Company, 750 Third Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10017
The Macmillan Company, 866 Third Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10022
Meredith Corporation, 440 Park Avenue South, New York, N.Y.
        10016
Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1300 Alum Creek Drive,
        Columbis, Ohio 43216
NCTE, 508 South Sixth STreet, Champaign, Illinois 61820
Thomas Nelson and Son, 91 Wellington Street West, Toronto 1,
        Ontario
Noble and Noble, 750 Third Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10017
Parker Publishing Company, Inc., West Nyack, New York 10994
Prentice-Hall, Inc. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey 07632
G. P. Putnam's Sons, 200 Madison Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10016
Random House, 457 Madison Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10022

Addresses of Publishers

The Ronald Press, 79 Madison Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10016
Ryerson Press, 299 Queen Street West, Toronto 2B, Ontario
Scholastic Book Service, 50 West 44th Street, New York,
        N.Y. 10036
Scott, Foresman and Company, Glenview, Illinois 60025
Scribner's Sons, 597 Fifth Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10017
Simon and Schuster, 1 West 39th Street, New York, N.Y. 10018
L. W. Singer, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10022
Science Research Associates, Inc. 259 East Erie Street,
        Chicago, Illinois 60611
Steck-Vaughn Company, Box 2028, Austin, Texas 78767
The Viking Press, 625 Madison Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10022
Webster Division of McGraw-Hill Book Company, Manchester
        Road, Manchester, Missouri 63011
Albert Whitman and Company, 560 West Lake Street, Chicago,
        Illinois 60606
John C. Winston Company, 130 Evan Street, Toronto 2B, Ontario
World Publishing Company, 119 West 57th Street, New York,
        N.Y. 10019

List of Test Publishers

American Guidance Service, Circle Pines, Minnesota 55014
Bobbs-Merrill Publishing Company, 4300 West 62nd Street,
        Indianapolis, Indiana 46268
Bureau Of Publications, Teachers College Press, Columbia
        University, 525 West 120th Street, New York, N.Y.
        10027
Bureau of Educational Research and Service, University of
        Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa 52240
California Test Bureau, Del Monte Research Park, Monterey,
        California 93940
Committee on Diagnostic Reading Tests, Mountain Home, North
        Carolina 28758
Consulting Psychologists Press, 577 College Avenue, Palo
        Alto, California 94306
Educational Test Bureau (see American Guidance Service)
Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey 08540
Follett Educational Corporation, 1010 West Washington
        Boulevard, Chicago, Illinois 60607
Ginn and Company, Waltham, Massachusetts 02154
Guidance Testing Associates, 6516 Shirley Avenue, Austin,
        Texas 78752
Harcourt, Brace, and Jovanovich, 757 Third Avenue, New York,
        N.Y. 10017
Houghton-Mifflin Company, 2 Park Street, Boston, Massachusetts
        02107
Language Research Associates, 950 East 59th Street, Chicago,
        Illinois 60630
Lyon and Carnahan, 307 East 25th Street, Chicago, Illinois
        60616

The Mills Center, 1512 East Broward Boulevard, Fort Lauderdale,
    Florida 33301
The Psychological Corporation, 304 East 45th Street, New York,
    N.Y. 10017
Scholastic Testing Service, 480 Meyer Road, Bensenville,
    Illinois 60611
Science Research Associates, 259 East Erie Street, Chicago,
    Illinois 60611
Western Psychological Services, 12035 Wilshire Boulevard,
    Los Angeles, California 90025
Winter Haven Lions Research Foundation, Box 112, Winter Haven,
    Florida 33880

THE 14 WORDS THAT MAKE ALL THE DIFFERENCE
KEY TO 100,000 WORDS

PREFIX	ITS OTHER SPELLING	ITS MEANING	MASTER WORDS	ROOT	ITS OTHER SPELLINGS	ITS MEANING
1.de-	---	down or away	detain	tain	ten, tin	to have or hold
2.inter-	---	between	inter-mittent	mitt	miss,mit mis	to send
3.per-	---	before	precept	cept	cap,capt. ceiv, ceit cip	to take or seize
4.ob-	oc-of-op	to,toward against	offer	fer	lat,lay	to bear or carry
5.in-	il-im-ir	into-not	insist	sist	stat,sta stan	to stand endure or persist
6.mono-	---	one or alone	monograph	graph	gram	to write
7.eip-	ep	over,upon beside	eiplogue	log	ology	speech or science
8. ad-	a-ab-ac-af ag-al-am-an ap-ar-as-at	at,to or towards	aspect	spect	spec,spi spy	to look
un-	---	not				to fold, bend, twist, interweave
9.com-	co-col- con-corp	with or together	uncompli-cated	plic	play-plex ploy-ply	
non	---	not				
10.ex-	e-ef	out or formerly	nonextended	tend	tens, tent	to stretch
re-	---	again,back				to lead, make, shape, fashion
11.pro-	---	forward or in favor of	reproduction	duct	duc,duit, duk	
12.dis-	di-dif	apart from	indisposed	pos	pon, post, pound	to put or place
over	---	above				
13.sub-	suc-suf sug-sup sur-sus	under, supporting	over-sufficient	fic	fac,fact flash,feat	to make or do
mis-	---	wrong or wrongly				
14.trans-	tra-tran	across or beyond	mis-transcribe	scribe	scrip scriv	to write

Source: Cornet, August 1956, Stevens, Leonard A.

THE BARRETT TAXONOMY *
COGNITIVE AND AFFECTIVE DIMENSIONS
of
READING COMPREHENSION

1.0 <u>Literal Comprehension</u>. Literal comprehension focuses on ideas and information which are <u>explicitly</u> stated in the selection. Purposes for reading and teacher's questions designed to elicit responses at this level may range from simple to complex. A simple task in literal comprehension may be the recognition or recall of a single fact or incident. A more complex task might be the recognition or recall of a series of facts or the sequencing of incidents in a reading selection. Purposes and questions at this level may have the following characteristics.

   1.1 <u>Recognition</u> requires the student to locate or identify ideas or information <u>explicitly</u> stated in the reading selection itself or in exercises which use the explicit ideas and information presented in the reading selection. Recognition tasks are:

      1.11 <u>Recognition of Details</u>. The student is required to locate or identify facts such as the names of characters, the time of the story, or the place of the story.

      1.12 <u>Recognition of main Ideas</u>. The student is asked to locate or identify an explicit statement in or from a selection which is a main idea of a paragraph or a larger portion of the selection.

      1.13 <u>Recognition of a Sequence</u>. The student is required to locate or identify the order of incidents or actions explicitly stated in the selection.

      1.14 <u>Recognition of Comparison</u>. The student is requested to locate or identify likenesses and differences in characters, times, and places that are explicitly stated in the selection.

      1.15 <u>Recognition of Cause and Effect Relationships</u>. The student in this instance may be required to locate or identify the explicitly stated reasons for certain happenings or actions in the selection.

      1.16 <u>Recognition of Character Traits</u>. The student is required to identify or locate explicit statements about a character which helps to point up

the type of person he is.

1.2 <u>Recall</u> requires the student to produce from memory ideas and information <u>explicitly</u> stated in the reading selection. Recall tasks are:

   1.21 <u>Recall of Details</u>. The student is asked to produce from memory facts such as the names of characters, the time of the story, or the place of the story.

   1.22 <u>Recall of Main Ideas</u>. The student is required to stat-a main idea of a paragraph or a larger portion of the selection from memory, when the main idea is explicit-ly stated in the selection.

   1.23 <u>Recall of a Sequence</u>. The student is asked to provide from memory the order of incidents or actions explicit-ly stated in the selection.

   1.24 <u>Recall of Comparisons</u>. The student is required to call up from memory the likenesses and differences in characters, times, and places that are explicitly stated in the selection.

   1.25 <u>Recall of Cause and Effect Relationships</u>. The student is requested to produce from memory explicitly stated reasons for certain happenings or actions in the selection.

   1.26 <u>Recall of Character Traits</u>. The student is asked to call up from memory explicit statements about charac-ters which illustrate the type of persons they are.

2.0 <u>Reorganization</u>. Reorganization requires the student to analyze, synthesize, and/or organize ideas or information explicitly stated in the selection. To produce the desired thought product, the reader may utilize the statements of the author verbatim or he may paraphrase or translate the author's statements. Reorganization tasks are:

   2.1 <u>Classifying</u>. In this instance the student is required to place people, things, places, and/or events into categories.

   2.2 <u>Outlining</u>. The student is requested to organize the selection into outline form using direct statement or paraphrased statements from the selection.

   2.3 <u>Summarizing</u>. The student is asked to condense the selection using direct or paraphrased statement from the selection.

2.4 <u>Synthesizing</u>. In this instance, the student is requested to consolidate explicit ideas or information from more than one source.

3.0 <u>Inferential Comprehension</u>. Inferential comprehension is demonstrated by the student when he uses the ideas and information explicitly stated in the selection, his intuition, and his personal experience as a basis for conjectures and hypotheses. Inferences drawn by the student may be either convergent or divergent in nature and the student may or may not be asked to verbalize the rationale underlying his inferences. In general, then, inferential comprehension is stimulated by purposes for reading and teachers' questions which demand thinking and imagination that go beyond the printed page.

3.1 <u>Inferring Supporting Details</u>. In this instance, the student is asked to conjecture about additional facts the author might have included in the selection which would have made it more informative, interesting, or appealing.

3.2 <u>Inferring Main Ideas</u>. The student is required to provide the main idea, general significance, theme, or moral which is not explicitly stated in the selection.

3.3 <u>Inferring Sequence</u>. The student, in this case, may be requested to conjecture as to what action or incident might have taken place between two explicitly stated actions or incidents, or he may be asked to hypothesize about what would happen next if the selection had not ended as it did but had been extended.

3.4 <u>Inferring Comparisons</u>. The student is required to infer likenesses and differences in characters, times, or places. Such inferential comparisons revolve around ideas such as: "Here and there," "then and now," "he and he," "he and she," and "she and she."

3.5 <u>Inferring Cause and Effect Relationships</u>. The student is required to hypothesize about the motivations of characters and their interactions with time and place. He may also be required to conjecture as to what caused the author to include certain ideas, words, characterizations, and actions in his writing.

3.6 <u>Inferring Character Traits</u>. In this case, the student is asked to hypothesize about the nature of characters on the basis of explicit clues presented in the selection.

3.7 <u>Predicting Outcomes</u>. The student is requested to read an initial portion of the selections and on the basis of this reading he is required to conjecture about the outcome of the selection.

3.8 <u>Interpreting Figurative Language</u>. The student, in this instance, is asked to infer literal meanings from the author's figurative use of language.

4.0 <u>Evaluation</u>. Purposes for reading and teacher's questions, in this instance, require responses by the student which indicate that he has made an evaluative judgment by comparing ideas presented in the selection with external criteria provided by the teacher, other authorities, or other written sources, or with internal criteria provided by the reader's experiences, knowledge, or values. In essence evaluation deals with judgment and focuses on qualities of accuracy, acceptability, desirability, worth, or probability of occurrence. Evaluative thinking may be demonstrated by asking the student to make the following judgments.

4.1 <u>Judgments of Reality or Fantasy</u>. Could this really happen? Such a question calls for a judgment by the reader based on his experience.

4.2 <u>Judgments of Fact or Opinion</u>. Does the author provide adequate support for his conclusions? Is the author attempting to sway your thinking? Questions of this type require the student to analyze and evaluate the writing on the basis of the knowledge he has on the subject as well as to analyze and evaluate the intent of the author.

4.3 <u>Judgments of Adequacy and Validity</u>. Is the information presented here in keeping with what you have read on the subject in other sources? Questions of this nature call for the reader to compare written sources of information, with an eye toward agreement and disagreement or completeness and incompleteness.

4.4 <u>Judgments of Appropriateness</u>. What part of the story best describes the main character? Such a question requires the reader to make a judgment about the relative adequacy of different parts of the selection to answer the question.

4.5 <u>Judgments of Worth, Desirability and Acceptability</u>. Was the character right or wrong in what he did? Was his behavior good or bad? Questions of this nature call for judgments based on the reader's moral code or his value system.

5.0 <u>Appreciation</u>. Appreciation involves all the previously cited cognitive dimensions of reading, for it deals with the psychological and aesthetic impact of the selection on the reader. Appreciation calls for the student to be emotionally and aesthetically sensitive to the work and to have a reaction to the worth of its psychological and artistic elements. Appreciation includes both the knowledge of and the emotional response to literary techniques, forms, styles, and structures.

5.1 <u>Emotional Response to the Content</u>. The student is required to verbalize his feelings about the selection in terms of interest, excitement, boredom, fear, hate, amusement, etc. It is concerned with the emotional impact of the total work on the reader.

5.2 <u>Identification with Characters or Incidents</u>. Teachers' questions of this nature will elicit responses from the reader which demonstrate his sensitivity to, sympathy for, and empathy with characters and happenings portrayed by the author.

5.3 <u>Reactions to the Author's Use of Language</u>. In this instance the student is required to respond to the author's craftsmanship in terms of the semantic dimensions of the selection, namely, connotations and denotations of words.

5.4 <u>Imagery</u>. In this instance, the reader is required to verbalize his feelings with regard to the author's artistic ability to paint word pictures which cause the reader to visualize, smell, taste, hear, or feel.

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*The Barrett Taxonomy, <u>Innovation and Change in Reading Instruction</u>, 67th Yearbook of the N.S.S.E., pp. 19-23.

SQ3R STUDY PLAN

The SQ3R study plan (survey, question, read, recite, review) is presented below as a recommended strategy for improving study habits. Teachers should assist students in applying this method to the study of various content materials.

SURVEY
An overview of the material to be studied should be gained by examining chapter titles and carefully observing headings and subheads. This will provide a general outline of the assignment.

QUESTION
After completing the survey of headings, each should be restated as a question. These questions should be recorded in a notebook.

READ
The next step is to read the section indicated by each question, identifying answers while reading.

RECITE
After the first section has been read, an attempt should be made to answer the question without referring to any helps. If the question cannot be answered, the student should re-read the material, taking brief notes in outline form. The student should then try again to answer the question. When one section is mastered, the process should be repeated with the remaining sections of the assignment.

REVIEW
As a final step, the student should examine carefully all the questions and notes written. Then without referring to any helps, as much of the outline as possible should be recalled.

Appendix D

INTEREST INVENTORY RECORD

Name_____Boy_____Girl_____

School attended last year_____Grade last year_____

Summer School_____Teacher_____

1. When you have an hour or two to spend as you please, what do you like best to do?_____

   _____

   _____

2. What do you usually do?

   After school?_____

   In the evening?_____

   On Saturday?_____

   On Sunday?_____

3. What activity do you like best:

   In the summer?_____

   In the spring?_____

   In the winter?_____

   In the fall?_____

4. Do you play a musical instrument? Yes_____No_____

   If yes, name the instrument(s):_____

5. Do you have any pets? Yes_____No_____

   If yes, what are they?_____

   _____

   _____

6. Do you have any hobbies? Yes_____No_____

   If yes, what are they?_____

Interest Inventory Record

7. If you could have three wishes which might come true, what
    would be your

    First wish?_____

    Second wish?_____

    Third wish?_____

8. What was the happiest event in your life?_____

    _____

    _____

9. Do you have a TV set at home? Yes_____No_____

10. Do you have a color TV set?   Yes_____No_____

11. Where do you watch TV?_____

12. How much time do you spend viewing TV?

    Each weekday_____hours.

    Saturday_____hours.

    Sunday_____hours.

13. What are your favorite TV programs?

    1. _____

    2. _____

    3. _____

14. List some TV programs you do not like:

    _____

    _____

    _____

Interest Inventory Record

15. How much time do you spend listening to the radio?

     Each day?_____hours.

16. What are your favorite radio programs?

     1. _____

     2. _____

     3. _____

17. How often do you go to the movies?_____

18. Name a movie you have seen recently that you have liked
     very much:

     _____

19. What kind of work do you want to do when you finish school?

     _____

20. What school subject do you like best (during regular school
     year)?

     _____

     _____

21. What school subject do you like the least?

     _____

Directions: "I am going to begin certain sentences for you.
I want you to finish each sentence with the first
idea that comes to your mind."

1. My idea of a good time _____

2. When I have to read, I _____

3. I wish my parents knew _____

4. I can't understand why _____

5. I feel bad when _____

6. I wish teachers _____

7. I wish my mother _____

8. Going to college _____

9. People think I _____

10. I like to read about _____

11. To me, homework _____

12. I hope I'll never _____

13. I wish people wouldn't _____

14. When I finish high school _____

15. When I take my report card home _____

16. Most brothers and sisters _____

17. I'd rather read than _____

18. I feel proud when _____

19. When I read math (arith.) problems _____

20. I wish my father _____

21. I like to read when _____

22. I would like to be _____

23. I often worry about _____

24. Reading science _____

25. I wish someone would help me _____

Glossary of Terms

This glossary of terms is included to help the reader who is yet unfamiliar with specialized terms used throughout the project. The terms as I have used them may have slight variations in meaning if compared from one author's text to another; as they are found here is how I have meant them.

Remedial Reading Program

A reading program that is designed to help those students who are reading approximately two or more grade levels below where they ought to be for their age. The remedial reading program also includes special study skills that improve the students' ability to cope with their high school work.

Grade Level

A measurement that indicates the performance of a student when compared with groups of students at different levels.

Levels of Reading

Free, or Independent Reading Level

The level at which a student is able to benefit from reading without the aid of a teacher. At this level the student comprehends 97-99% of what he reads.

Instructional Reading Level

The level at which a student can function adequately with the aid of a teacher. The student usually comprehends 75% of what is being read, and word recognition is about 95%.

Frustration Reading Level

The level at which a student cannot function adequately with the aid of a teacher. The student usually comprehends less than 75% of what he reads. At this level the student is tense and often becomes a distraction in the classroom.

Disabled Readers

Those students who are unable to read for one of many reasons, usually due to a physical, emotional, mental, neurological, or a combination of any of these causes.

Diagnosis

An investigation by some means, usually through testing, into the cause for a remedial reader in order to determine how best to encourage reading growth in that reader.

Reliability

"The extent to which a test measures anything consistently."[1] In other words, a test is said to be reliable when the examinee scores a consistent score if he were to take the test at different times.

Validity

"The extent to which a test measures what it is designed to measure."[2] A test is said to be valid when it actually measures what it was meant to measure.

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[1]Lewis Aiken, Psychological Testing and Assessment, (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1976), p. 329.

[2]Ibid., p. 333.

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