A STUDY INTO READING GAIN OF INTERMEDIATE REMEDIAL STUDENTS UTILIZING CERTAIN HOLISTIC LANGUAGE TEACHING TECHNIQUES

PATRICIA FERN (FUDGE) RYAN

A STUDY INTO READING GAIN
OF INTERMEDIATE REMEDIAL STUDENTS
UTILIZING CEPTAIN HOLISTIC LANGUAGE TEACHING TECHNIQUES

BY

PATRICIA FERN (FUDGE) RYAN

A THESIS PREPARED

IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT

OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF

MASTER OF EDUCATION (CURRICULUM)

Department of Curriculum and Instruction

Faculty of Education

Memorial University of Newfoundland

October, 1992

St. John's Newfoundland

ISBN 0-315-78116-5

ABSTRACT

A Study into Reading Gain of Intermediate Students Utilizing Certain Holistic Language Teaching Techniques

by

Patricia Fern (Fudge) Ryan

October, 1992

The objective of the present study was to provide a literature-based reading program for a group of reading-disabled intermediate students as an alternative to the more traditional "skills approach" methodology of teaching reading and writing. According to current research, a holistic approach appears to be effective for teaching young children to read. It was hypothesized by the present researcher that certain strategies used with young children could also be used effectively with older students. The underlying assumption was that, since these older students had not developed efficient reading strategies, they would be, in many ways, similar to younger beginning readers. They were, in fact, in many respects, beginning readers. The study was based on the premise that there is significant educational value in providing for students of all ages learning activities in which they are able to experience some degree of success.

Analysis of the quantitative data collected in this study, corroborated by qualitative information, clearly indicate that the methodologies used, here, can be very effective in teaching older

children to read and write. In every case but one, reading skills increased by at least one year, with a mean gain of almost two years during the course of the study.

When older students, particularly those who have had a history of negative schooling experiences and failure, respond in the manner in which the students in the present study have done, and with such reading gains and attitude change as have been achieved, there appears to be little doubt that methodologies utilized have been effective, not only for the gains made in reading, but also for the intrinsic value to be derived from positive attitudes and enhanced self-concept.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to express most sincere appreciations to my thesis committee members, Dr. Marc Glassman, thesis supervisor, and Dr. Dennis Mulcahey, for their assistance and encouragement during the course of this study. Despite the demands of his own work schedule and the needs of his family, Dr. Glassman always found the time to discuss my work and to give much needed assistance with the organization and development of the thesis. For this I am truly grateful.

To my husband, Dr. Lloyd Ryan, deep appreciation is extended for assistance with the statistical analysis, for typing the manuscript, and for his many valuable suggestions and critiques. I also wish to acknowledge the love and support of my children, Patrick, Rachel, and Justin, who hardly ever complained about the lack of care packages or the empty cookie jar during the period of this study and the preparation of this manuscript.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

APPENDICES

LIST OF TABLES

CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

Introduction

The adolescent who is unable to read continues to present a major concern within today's educational systems. As in the past, many of today's students fail to acquire the basic literacy skills needed to assist them in attaining high school graduation. This may be due, at least partially, to the fact that many of these students drop out of school as soon as they reach post-compulsory age.

The majority of these students, commonly labelled "functional illiterates", have experienced difficulty all the way through school. This may be attributed to their failure to acquire the requisite reading skills at the appropriate times during their reading development.

These children are, in general, neither mentally deficient nor dyslexic. They are simply individuals who failed to get off to a good start in reading. Reasons for this failure may include cultural deprivation, emotional and psychological factors, or simply ineffective teaching strategies (Smith & Barrett, 1974; Farr, 1981; Smith, 1983; Davis, 1990). Some students appear to be more negatively affected by the quality of teaching than are others. Fortunately, many young children learn and make rapid progress in the classroom *in spite of*, rather than *because of*, the quality of teaching. The kinds of questions teachers ask, how they group students for instruction, time in contact with children, and consideration of individual differences and learning styles (Dunn, 1986) all contribute to academic growth of children (Smith & Barrett,

1974). Many teachers appear not to consider children's individual differences. Oral language development, background experiences, as well as visual and auditory discrimination appear to be crucial to the beginning stages of learning to read.

Walberg, Strykowski, Roval & Hung (1984) use the term "Matthew effects" to describe those educational sequences in which early achievement creates faster rates of subsequent achievement. (The term "Matthew effects" comes from the Gospel according to St. Matthew: For unto every one that hath shall be given, and he shall have abundance: but from him that hath not shall be taken away even that which he hath. 25:29).

The effects of reading volume on vocabulary growth and overall reading progress are evident in studies by Allington (1984) and Nagy & Anderson (1984). Results of both studies indicate astonishingly high individual differences in the volume of language experiences, resulting in differences in vocabulary development among young children. Thus, individuals who have had advantageous early educational experiences are more efficient at processing new educational experiences. According to Walberg, et al. (1984), the Matthew effect in reading arises from the fact that it is the better readers who have more developed vocabularies, stemming from reading exposure differences between individuals of different skill levels.

Hall (1970) reports that the beginning stage in reading is crucial since later attitudes and achievement are influenced by the child's progress and reaction to initial instruction.

Elkind (1986) uses the term "miseducation" to describe the harm done to many young children when they are put at risk by their schooling experiences. He says "The risks of miseducating young children are both short- and long-term" (p. 27). Short-term risks develop from school-induced stress. Long-term risks are of at least three kinds: motivational, intellectual, and social. Formal instruction, as it has been traditionally utilized, places excessive demands on young children which "far outweigh any potential educational gain" (p. 27).

Because of the inability of some school programs to meet certain of the needs of individual children, problems that may have been prevented at the beginning, with proper attention, may compound with each passing year.

The purpose of this chapter is to give a statement of the problem of the failure of a large proportion of the student population to become competent readers and writers. It will also define specific terminology used in the text of this report. Also included is a discussion regarding the need for the study. The hypotheses which provided the impetus for the study, and the theoretical framework for the program utilized, will also be presented.

Statement of the Problem

The inability of many students to benefit from traditional programs and teaching strategies have been well documented (Mulligan, 1974; Carter, 1984; Carroll, 1986; Pinnell, 1989; Slavin & Madden, 1989). The results of a study by Carter (1984) reveal that traditional pull-out programs have not worked. At best, these diagnostic/prescriptive programs prevent

students from falling further behind. However, this effect is limited to early grades and is more apparent in Mathematics than in reading (Carter, 1984).

Students have been failing, and continue to do so, because traditional strategies have simply not worked for some students. Two commonly-used practices in dealing with these students have been grade retention and pull-out special education programs.

Documentation, such as that of Goodlad (1954) and Johnson (1984) suggests that retention does not work. In fact, research indicates that long term effects of grade retention are most often negative (Jackson, 1975; Shepard & Smith, 1985).

Research has also shown that traditional remedial programs, in general, are ineffective (Glass & Smith , 1977; Sargent, 1981; Milligan, 1986; Savage, 1987; Gentill & MacMillan, 1988; Pinnell, 1989). Claims have been put forth that many of these programs are ineffective because they consist largely of drills and worksheets which focus on so-called "basic skills" and which are divorced from students' personal experiences (Thorn, 1974; Weiss, 1975; Smith, 1983; Carter, 1984; Savage, 1987). These skills are often taught as ends in themselves, having no meaning for the students because such skills do not relate to real situations, maybe because few remedial programs effectively integrate writing and reading (Smith, 1983). Many programs fail to focus on getting students engaged in actual reading; teaching "skills" becomes the focus of the lessons and receive the bulk of instructional time.

According to Gentill & MacMillan (1988), one reason why most remedial programs focus mainly on skills deficits is due to the fact that results of standardized tests have been used to determine reading ability. Programs have been developed primarily to develop skills where deficiencies occur, according to the standardized test results. These authors also contend that focusing on skills deficits is inadequate as a means of helping students deal with their problems in reading because it does not address the emotional aspect. Because students have failed in the past, many of them perceive reading as a threat and it becomes, for them, a stressful situation. In addition to skills deficits, they face additional problems, one of which is erosion of self-concept (Gentile & MacMillan, 1988; Coley & Hoffman, 1990). If students at risk of reading failure are to overcome their learned helplessness, they must learn "to see themselves as capable of learning and succeeding" (Coley & Hoffman, 1990, p. 501). Related to this, Wehlage, Rutter & Turnbaugh (1987) say that school can influence students' beliefs and attitudes; it begins with the establishment of a positive social bond between students and teachers.

In relation to this theme, Glowacki (1990) describes a remedial reading program involving mentally handicapped students "study buddy" system and suggests that as the years progress and reading disability increases, remedial readers' self-esteem, interest, and enthusiasm often decrease so that by the time they become teens, they often "go from being poor readers to being nonreaders" (p. 650).

Coley & Hoffman (1990) suggest that, as a result of being caught in the "failure cycle", at-risk readers develop their own coping strategies.

Many of these are student behaviours which result in learned helplessness. It seems clear, then, that what is needed is instructional strategies specifically designed to help at-risk students to view themselves in a more positive light and to help them enhance their self-concepts.

If a child is considered to be "low-functioning" in a specific skill, what do we normally do? We force upon the child large doses of activities in which we already know she cannot successfully perform. Due to a dearth of appropriate materials, and due to the absence of a specified program for students of remedial reading classes, teachers have been forced to make use of whatever happens to be available. Too often, programs have consisted of workbooks and basal texts which may not only be beyond the reading capabilities of many students, but also consists of content to which many students have difficulty relating. It has been determined that long-term effects of special education classes have, generally, not been positive. The results of most of these programs have had a stultifying effect on children's reading progress and have affected negatively their attitudes and self-concepts.

The objective of the present study was to develop and evaluate a program designed to teach reading and writing competencies to a group of intermediate "low-performing" students.

Definition of Terms

Throughout this study, specific "reading-related" terminology has been used. So that professional communication may be strengthened and enhanced, definitions for some of these concepts follow.

1. Reading disabled: Students who have had considerable difficulty in learning to read from average instruction, both within the regular classroom setting and by remediation. Newman (1969) contends that reading disability is not an entity. It is a symptom, and not all students demonstrate the same type of impairments. However, there is always a basic cause, such as "neurological dysfunction, emotional interference, or confusion from missed or erroneous learning" (p. 81). The majority of these students are from two to five years behind their age-peers in reading ability.

2. Reading fluency: The flow of speech while reading. Good fluency may be characterized by a lack of meaningless miscues. Fluency involves two components: reading speed and word accuracy (Rashotte & Torgesen, 1985).

3. Low performing: Students whose academic levels are at least two years behind age-level.

4. Attitude: The predisposition or tendency to react specifically towards an object, situation, or clue, usually accompanied by feelings and emotions (Good, 1973).

5. Successful learning experiences: Reading and writing experiences with which the student feels a degree of competency.

6. Quality literature: Literature which helps to broaden the intellect and imagination of children through the author's use of language and style, rather than that writing considered to be "commodity", such as books based on cartoon characters or toys. Good quality literature contains the power to instill in the reader an insight into the human

condition, an invasive tool which improves the capacity to "read between and beyond the lines" (Pagett, 1990, p. 66).

7. Decoding: Making the sound-symbol relationship so as to unlock written text and translate it into language.

Significance of the Study

Intermediate "low performing" students typically perceive themselves as failures. They make virtually no effort to succeed because they have had so few successful or personally-satisfying school experiences. Most of them have expressed feelings of inferiority and defeat. Success, for them, is something that has become less and less a reality with each passing year, and less worth the effort of trying.

Rogers (1969) states that "Human beings have a natural potential for learning" (p. 157), a sentiment echoed by Caine & Caine (1991). Goodman & Goodman (1979), contend that efficiency in reading depends on the reader's ability to maintain focus on meaning. For that to be true, the material must be meaningful, comprehensible, and functional to readers. Related to this, Smith (1988) states that not only do they [students] want to learn, but they HAVE to learn; it is the state of being human. If students find themselves in a situation not conducive to learning they will struggle to escape (i.e. fight or flight). Other authors make similar statements. For example, Baskwell and Whitman (1988) say that human beings have been created with a natural drive to learn, and if that drive isn't thwarted, they'll continue to learn all their lives (p. 35). If what is being taught is relevant to the student, learning will take

place. They learn most easily materials they have an interest in, what's meaningful to them. The present study is based on the premise that learning occurs best through personal involvement, and that the elements of success, motivation and attitudes, all have a direct effect on the learning process.

It has been hypothesized that, regardless of age, the reading process is the same for everyone (Sherman, 1979; Baskwell & Whitman, 1988) and that the differences among readers can be accounted for by the level of prior knowledge and experiences brought to the task. In the teaching of unfamiliar concepts, it is important that the teacher activate students' prior knowledge and use familiar concepts as a bridge to the unknown (Allington, 1984; Nagy & Anderson, 1984; Walberg, et al, 1984; Stanovich, 1986). Making use of what is familiar minimizes the need for the reader to rely on graphophonic cues in decoding, and more on semantic and syntactic rules of language (Pearson, 1976).

One of the premises underlying the present study is that there is significant educational value in giving children successful schooling experiences. Another premise is that students learn to read by engaging in meaningful reading-related activities. That is, that people learn to read by reading (Goodman & Goodman, 1979; Cullinan, 1987; Smith, 1988); that reading and writing are reciprocal processes (Ashton-Warner, 1963; Smith, 1973, 1983; Allen, 1976; Smith, J., 1983; Tierney & Pearson, 1983; Fillion, 1985; Goodman, 1986; Goodman, Goodman & Hood, 1989); and that the learner needs to be provided with many related activities by which to experience these processes.

A basic assumption is that older remedial students can be provided with successful learning experiences; that negative attitudes can be changed to more positive ones; and, as a result, progress will be achieved in reading and writing. Another foundation assumption is that these results can be achieved through the use of strategies similar to those used to teach beginning readers. That is, many of the strategies used to teach literacy skills to beginning readers can be modified and used to teach intermediate reading-disabled students.

Hypotheses

A review of the literature resulted in the following hypotheses being proposed:

Hypothesis 1: (a) Students will develop more positive attitudes towards reading, (b) resulting in behaviours described more specifically in Hypotheses 2 - 4.

Hypothesis 2: Students will demonstrate increased general reading achievement.

Hypothesis 3: Students will demonstrate their ability to read more fluently.

Hypothesis 4: Students will demonstrate their ability to read with greater understanding.

Theoretical Framework: The Nature of the Proposed Program

In an attempt to improve student attitudes, the program utilized in this study was based on a philosophy about how children best learn. This philosophy includes the following principles:

1. Quality literature and student-generated materials should be used as a basis for reading and writing.

2. It is important to use materials with a reading level at which the learners can be successful.

3. It is important to use materials related to interests and needs of students.

4. It is essential to have a classroom atmosphere which is rich in print materials.

5. It is essential to have a classroom where there are numerous literacy examples.

6. It is important to provide time for real reading and writing experiences, rather than emphasis placed only on "skills work" and drills.

7. It is essential to create a non-threatening environment where students are encouraged to contribute and to share ideas.

Smith (1988) and Caine & Caine (1991) contend that people naturally have a desire to make sense of the world around them and that most people are stimulated by novelty. That is, people have an intrinsic predisposition to learn. Students respond to their global experiences and need to be in a non-threatening environment, one of "relaxed alertness" (Caine & Caine, 1991, p. 134). An atmosphere that helps the child to

survive is one of support and acceptance, acceptance of the student as a learner, and of his contribution to the class.

Caine & Caine (1991) also contend that there naturally exists a certain "childlike state", a sort of "creative playfulness" among children that educators should capitalize upon. This may be in a context of having children develop puppet plays, for example, of using picture books in writing activities, or of using games to present specific concepts. Used in such a context, playfulness may "do a great deal to help students lose fear, break through to new knowledge, and go beyond what they, and often the teacher, believes to be their capacity to learn" (Caine & Caine, 1991, p. 137).

Pinnell, Fried & Estice (1990) suggest that even children appearing to have limited knowledge can learn to become good readers. This happens only if programs are built around strengths, rather than weaknesses of students, allowing individual competencies and knowledge to be used effectively.

The program utilized in the present study was primarily literature-based; no basal texts were used. Daily activities included the teacher reading aloud from novels, dictated writing based on students' experiences, and independent reading and writing by students.

Reading quality literature and composing various types of writing were central to the program, the origins of which are found in the work of Lee & Allen (1963), Ashton-Warner (1963), Hall (1970), Clay (1972, 1985), Rosenblatt (1976), Holdaway (1979), Veatch (1985), Cullinan (1987), Smith (1988), and Pinnell (1989). According to the views of these researchers,

literacy consists of two primary aspects - reading and writing. Reading consists not only of the drilling of skills considered by some teachers to be necessary in learning to read, but also of the reading of real literature. In the same vein, writing activities consist not only of practising isolated skills but, rather, writing to communicate ideas and feelings and for a specific audience.

Teachers who have used literature-based reading instruction as an alternative to the more traditional basal approach speak of high levels of success with all students and particularly with disabled and unmotivated readers (Tunnell & Jacobs, 1989). Young children do learn to read and write naturally as they interact with meaningful materials (Smith, 1979, 1988; Calkins, 1986; Goodman, 1986). However, it cannot be assumed that a conducive environment is all that is necessary. For most children, the learning process also involves mediation by the teacher. Newman (1985) refers to this mediation by the teacher as "leading from behind" (P. 10), that is, helping the learner in accomplishing whatever it is he or she is attempting to do. This mediation ought always to be relevant to the task at hand and within a context of a meaningful learning activity.

The mediation and teaching process in the present study is typically characterized by a number of components. A discussion of these components follows.

Class-dictated and Individual Student-dictated Experience Writing

The instructional program utilized in this study made use of the language experience approach to teaching (Lee & Allan, 1963; Ashton-

Warner, 1963; Stauffer, 1980; Aulls, 1982; Daniels, Kasnic & McCluskey, 1988). This is a highly structured approach, proven to be effective not only for beginning readers but also with adolescents who are potential drop-outs. It provides reading materials based on the learners' "syntactic knowledge, content knowledge and interests" (Aulls, 1982, p. 509). The language-experience approach was used extensively in the early stages of the program and periodically in the latter stages. The intent was to redirect students' perceptions of reading and to replace negative attitudes by more positive ones.

Stories dictated by the group or by individual students became the basis for reading and for writing and for skills-related activities. In the present study, a typical lesson was based upon a sequence of activities designed for thinking, language, reading, and writing skills development and progressed as follows:

Day 1: A stimulus was presented. This was in the form of a film, a poem, a novel being shared, relation of individual experiences, discussion of a newsworthy incident in the community, or a newspaper story. Discussion took place with all students being invited to share ideas. Ideas developed through brain-storming, were incorporated into a web drawn on the chalkboard or were listed on a chart.

Day 2: Ideas were reviewed and a story was developed. Individuals from the group each contributed a sentence and the story was written on a chart exactly as worded by students. This writing was then edited by the group with the assistance of the teacher. After re-reading to ensure that everything was in order, the story was copied by students into individual

notebooks. An example of a group-dictated story is included in Appendix 1 - 1.

Day 3: The students read the story independently. Words that students knew were underlined and some of them were selected as key words to be added to individual word lists. Unknown words were discarded at this juncture.

Day 4: The students re-read the story independently. The teacher encouraged the students to try to decode unknown words through the use of context (i.e semantic and syntactic) clues.

Day 5: Students worked on skills development activities. These activities included using key words to develop a crossword puzzle, classifying words (nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs), and working on a cloze paragraph. The students also used the stories for repeated reading activities and read short stories related to the topic.

Use of Children's Picture Books

Picture books have been used effectively with older reading-disabled students (McGee & Tompkins, 1983; Sharp, 1984; Johnson-Weber, 1989; Gitelman, 1990; Guzzetti, 1990). Many less-able students become frustrated and confused when presented with some of the more complex literary concepts, such as theme, characterization, mood, simile, and metaphor. The complex language may overwhelm some students and prevent them from processing the necessary information. Phinney (1988) describes this as "overload", caused by several factors, including limited background experiences, and basic inexperience with a variety of

structures used in literature. She suggests that these learners be supported by adapting reading materials in an effort to provide some of these concepts. Cousin (1991) suggests the use of other books which are conceptually related to the topic of core texts but written in a more simple language. Other researchers have demonstrated how wordless picture books can be used to develop fluency and comprehension skills in readers of all ages (McGee & Tompkins, 1983; Gitelmen, 1990).

McGee & Tompkins (1983) discuss how wordless picture books can be used to alleviate students lack of reading fluency because they incorporate students' own language since the developed story is experience based. Most students have already developed a story sense. The use of pictures help them to develop organizational skills and the use of detail in writing. Not only does this strategy assist in the improvement of reading skills, it also helps to develop imagination, creativity, and a sensitivity to expression in writing.

Many picture books also contain universal truths that may be missed by younger children because many of these books are written on a level above the comprehension of these children. This characteristic is evident in some of the books of Chris Van Allsburg, for example. Picture books are short, can be quickly read, and may entice reluctant or poor readers.

Although most students have already developed a sense of story, the use of pictures allows them to develop organizational skills and greater detail in their writing. Not only does the use of wordless story books serve to stimulate oral communication, they can also foster the

development of reading fluency (McGee & Tompkins, 1983) through the use of students' own language in developing experience-based stories.

Less-able students who are unable to grasp concepts at grade level may benefit from having these concepts presented to them on a level at which they can successfully process the information. Shanahan (1988) shows that helping students see how an author structures text can strengthen reading and writing abilities. Students need to be provided with experiences which allow them to build a schema for story structure and for understanding the various techniques of writing. Literary elements, such as plot, conflict, setting, and mood; and special effects, such as foreshadowing and flashbacks, are all found in picture books.

During the present study, picture books - with and without words - were used for a variety of purposes. Utilization of these books is described below.

Wordless picture books. In using wordless picture books, students can create text which is in their natural language patterns and based upon their prior knowledge and schemata (McGee & Tompkins, 1983; Flatley & Rutland, 1986). For the purpose of this study a selection of books was chosen which, it was felt by the teacher, was suited for the age-range of the students in the group (See Appendix 1 - 2 for a list of wordless picture books used).

Activities involving the use of these books took place over a span of several class periods and included (1) discussing the pictures, particularly details, and identifying target vocabulary, (2) group dictated stories, (3) independent re-reading of stories, and (4) repeated

reading activities. These books were also utilized for independent writing activities. Following group discussion of a particular book, students were encouraged to study the pictures independently and to use the structure of the book as a basis for their own stories.

Models for writing. Modelling is an open-ended activity for students who need support in writing. The purpose of modelling stories and poems is to provide needed structure for those students who have poor organizational skills. Using an author's structure to write another story may also be valuable as a means of helping students develop an awareness of features of print, such as quotation marks. Books used in the present study included those containing repetitive sequences, interlocking sequences, problem-cantered sequences (legends and fables), and those stories organized around a main character. (See Appendix 1 - 3 for a list of titles used for this type of activity.)

A typical activity included (1) introducing a book, (2) reading it and discussing its particular pattern, (3) brainstorming for possible changes that which be made in the story, (4) composing a group story using brainstormed words, followed by (5) students re-writing the story.

Poem modelling was carried out in a similar fashion, but without the use of pictures. Many of the students in the group had developed defensive attitudes about their lack of success in reading and writing. Repeated failures had caused them to develop hostile attitudes towards the school and towards teachers. Students with reading difficulty are, typically, reluctant to discuss their personal feelings or emotions. In

the present study poetry writing was used in an effort to encourage these unsuccessful students to openly communicate personal feelings.

The methodology utilized were based on the "skeletal poem" technique of Cromley (1976) and the pattern-writing technique found effective by Staab (1990). Other types of poetry utilized included haiku, diamante, number poetry, and limerick. After a particular poem was introduced to the group on a large chart, read and re-read, the group discussed possible words and phrases to be deleted from the poem. This activity was followed by brainstorming for a list of words to replace those deleted. Individual poems were then composed utilizing the brainstormed words. An alternative activity was to forgo the brainstorming. A poem was presented and read after which xeroxed copies of the poem, with words and phrases deleted, were then distributed to students. Students completed the poem using their own words and ideas. (See Appendix 1 - 4 for a sample of a skeletal poem).

Use of picture books to present literary elements. In the present study, picture books were used to teach literary style elements such as personification, alliteration, rhyme and rhythm, as well as elements of story such as plot, conflict, setting, mood, simile, and metaphor. (See Appendix 1 - 5 for a list of books utilized in this type of activity).

To introduce themes in novels. A total of three major themes were introduced during the course of this study, utilizing three key novels. These are further discussed under the section reading aloud to students. For each of these themes a variety of related picture books were made available to the students. These books were used for independent reading,

read by a student during shared reading time, or read aloud by the teacher for a specific purpose, such as a stimulus for a language experience activity.

Interactive Journal Writing

One of the greatest problems experienced by reading disabled students is their ineptness with written communication. It is to be noted that many secondary remedial students, also, still experience great difficulty in producing written output and in writing fluently (Myklebust, 1973). Completing grammar worksheets and spelling assignments appear not to be effective in helping students learn to write (Englehert, Raphael, Anderson, Anthony, Fear, & Gregg, 1988). According to Calkins (1986) and Graves (1983), if students are to learn to write, they must engage in writing activities and their writing must be meaningful to them. They must have a specific purpose for writing. Journal writing may be a means of improving both production and fluency in the writing of older remedial students.

Caine & Caine (1991) describe journal writing as a powerful means of processing experience and for helping students learn to write. This supports the earlier views of Staton (1980, 1988); Flores & Garcia (1984); Flores, Garcia, Gonzalez, Hidalgo, Kaczmarek & Romero (1986), Singer (1990) and Gauthier (1991). Progoff (1980) speaks of the journal as a tool for process mediation, or an inner dialogue, which allows students to think about themselves and to experience themselves from many different perspectives. Singer (1990) suggests that the act of writing provides a

means of self discovery for students and, thus, of self revelation (p. 73). Through the experience of daily writing, students are "literally exploring the landscape of their own local memory system" (Caine & Caine, 1991, p. 153).

Gauthier (1991) reports that student responses in the form of journal writing have been known to increase comprehension and to promote greater interest in reading while Shor & Friere (1987) and Bode (1989) assert that the advantages of dialogue journal writing align with a liberating philosophy of education. It provides an ideal tool of empowerment for both students and teachers and it is liberating in the sense that it allows for the possibility of mutual conversations. It has been noted that dialogue between teacher and students is the essence of liberation in education (Shor & Freire, 1987). They also say that "Instead of transferring knowledge statistically as a fixed possession of the teacher, dialogue allows for the dynamic exchange of information" (P. 100).

Falk (1979) states that language "cannot be taught in the traditional sense; it must be learned through ... extensive exposure to, and practical experience with, the use of language in actual, natural contexts and situations" (p. 440). Writing and reading need to be perceived by the child as being functional.

In the program utilized for this research, interactive journal writing provided functional writing experiences for the students. They wrote for periods of five to ten minutes with a frequency of about three days per week on topics of their own choosing. Topics chosen included the

novel being currently group-read, or that was being read independently during scheduled reading time, a movie that the group had watched together, and topics which had been discussed in class such as preferred seasonal activities, rock music, or any other topic on which students felt like commenting. Journal entries also included cooperative language experience stories which students copied from a chart. The length of journal entries ranged from one or two short sentences, at the outset of the program, to full page commentaries, later in the term.

No corrections of misspelled words or inaccurate grammar was undertaken by the teacher. Unless students specified that their entries were confidential, the teacher read all entries and then responded to the students by writing comments in their individual journals. Teacher responses were such that standard spelling, grammar, and punctuation were modelled for the student with the intention that students use the models in subsequent writing.

Reading Aloud to Students

Over the past decade educators appear to have developed an interest in the idea of reading aloud to children of all ages. Studies indicate that if children are read aloud to from a very early age, they will develop good attitudes about reading, an interest in reading, and that all areas of language will improve, specifically vocabulary and comprehension (McCormick, 1977; Anderson, Hiebert, Scott & Wilkinson, 1985; Clay, 1985; Huck, Hepler & Hickman, 1987; Trelease, 1989; Carter & Abrahamson, 1991).

Although the practice of reading aloud to students appears to be on the rise in primary classrooms, this may not be the case in elementary and high school classrooms. The results of a study conducted by Lapointe (1986) showed that only half of the fourth grade teachers surveyed read aloud to students on a regular basis. Other research indicates that children don't read much either within or outside of schools (Goodlad, 1984; Anderson, Fielding & Wilson, 1988). Reading quality literature aloud to students may provide inspiration for them to begin reading independently as the power of story involves them in a process in which the listener identifies with the character and relates those experiences being described to his own personal life experiences (Rosenblatt, 1976, 1978). The result may be to change negative attitudes toward reading to those of a more positive nature.

According to Vygotsky (1962), thoughts come into existence through words. Through the process of listening to and reading stories with which students can relate, they may discover truths about themselves as reflected in the thoughts and actions of the characters of the story. Thus, students find the vocabulary to help them describe their own situation and their own feelings, and write their own stories.

Reading aloud to students provides exposure to and experience with the complex linguistic structures of language (Chomsky, 1972; Cousin, 1991) and also provides exposure to fluent reading (Cohen, 1968; Hunter, 1982). Remedial readers often have difficulty with oral reading. Generally, their reading is slow, without expression, and with little regard for punctuation. The result is very poor reading fluency.

Exposure to fluent oral reading may serve as a model, especially if students follow the text as it is being read by the teacher (Hunter, 1982).

Chomsky's (1972) study indicates that measures of reading are directly related to socioeconomic status. It was suggested that this was due to the fact that parents of higher class status provide a more literate environment for children and read to their children more frequently than parents of lower socioeconomic levels. Navin & Bates (1987) state that when reading is not reinforced at home many children enter and continue through school without the necessary background knowledge and experiences to help them become proficient readers and writers. We know that reading aloud to younger children develops language skills, heightened reading interest and attitude. This is also true for older students who are unable, or are reluctant, to read for themselves. Listening to stories is a pleasant experience for all students regardless of reading level or age. Poor readers may learn a great deal through experiencing quality literature and from learning to respond to these experiences. Casteel (1989) contends that students of all ages ought to experience the pleasure of listening to stories and that such oral reading should be considered an essential component of a daily reading program. It has been suggested further that "the single most important activity for building the knowledge required for eventual success in reading is reading aloud to children" (Anderson, et al., 1985, p. 23)

"Thinking aloud" by the teacher throughout the reading process provides students with a sense of author and of story structure. For

example, talking about the development of a specific character, rereading a particular descriptive section, constructing semantic mappings, and having students make predictions all serve to develop comprehension and help students to better understand story elements.

In the present study, students were read to for periods of ten to fifteen minutes daily. These readings were from key novels relating to a specific theme. Over the five month period of the study three key novels were read. Other readings consisted of shorter stories relating to the novel themes, magazines and newspaper articles as well as picture books and poetry (See Appendix 1 - 6 for a list of novels and related picture books). Activities developed to accompany the novels may be classified in three categories: (a) *reading and listening*: independent reading of books related to theme, listening to the teacher read the novel, and choral reading (See Appendix 1 - 7 for example of choral reading). (b) *speaking and writing*: dictating stories, independent writing of stories and letters, journal responses, and conferencing with teacher. (c) *language and word study:* discussing literary elements, making lists of and discussing unusual and unfamiliar words, classifying words, and cloze activities.

Sustained Silent Reading

In implementing SSR, each student selects a book from a wide variety of choices, and everyone, including the teacher, reads without interruption for a fixed period of time. There are no reports, no

questioning of students, and no records kept by the teacher. The one stipulation is that everyone reads.

Supporters of "SSR" (Sustained Silent Reading) believe that children learn to read by reading (e.g. Hunt, 1970; Allington, 1977; Childrey, 1980; Rye, 1983; Burchby, 1988; Clary, 1991). One of the best ways to develop students' reading ability is to give them every opportunity for personal reading. According to Trelease (1989), one way to help students to improve writing and spelling skills is to have them read as much as possible. Word meanings are also learned by repeatedly meeting them in print.

It is important also that the classroom atmosphere be such that it is conducive to reading. A pleasant classroom containing posters, some plants, and lots of books and magazines on a variety of reading levels provides a setting which may help to foster good reading habits among students. Many teachers who have established such an environment for reading have reported increased interest and motivation for reading among students (Clary, 1991).

Results of studies carried out by Goodlad (1984) and Anderson, et al. (1988) indicate that children are not reading very much either at school or elsewhere. Goodlad (1984) reports the main type of instructional reading to be round-robin oral reading from basal readers. At the elementary level, only about 6% of class time constituted independent reading from trade books. At the intermediate and senior high levels, these numbers dropped to 3% and 2% respectively. Anderson, et al. (1985) report that performance of American students shown by lower

test scores is below that of students of other countries. The report concludes that students ought to spend more time reading independently, both in and out of school, in order to practice reading and to develop the necessary skills for reading proficiency.

Sanacore (1990) contends that one of the greatest contributions that an administrator can make to remedial reading programs is to support independent reading. Providing such time for remedial students may help not only to develop reading fluency without having to take risks but may also help students build on prior knowledge and expand reading interests. During the course of the present study periods of from 10 to 15 minutes, two or three times a week, were designated as independent reading time. During this time, everyone, including the teacher, read. Choice of materials was unrestricted. If what had been chosen proved to be uninteresting, students were free to make other selections. Reading logs were kept by each student to keep account of the amount read. (See Appendix 1 - 8 for a sample reading log). Often, students responded to what they were reading through entries in their journals.

Repeated Reading

The effects of repeated readings on reading fluency have been well documented. Samuels (1976, 1979), Chomsky (1978), and Dahl (1979) all report that the simple practice of having students reread a passage can have a positive effect on increasing reading fluency and comprehension.

Many researchers regard reading fluency - the speed and accuracy with which a person reads - as being very important to the reading process

(Calfee & Drum, 1986). Good readers read with greater fluency than do poor readers (Perfetti & Hogaboam, 1975) and fluency in reading aids comprehension (Samuels, 1976, 1979). Allington (1983) referrs to fluency as the neglected goal of reading instruction while Anderson (1981) speaks of fluency as missing from the reading program.

Reading fluency involves two basic components, reading speed and reading accuracy. Research suggests that, generally, students develop fluency naturally as a result of much practice in independent reading (Chomsky, 1976, 1978; Carbo, 1978; Samuels, 1979; Otto, 1985; Rashotte & Torgeson, 1985; Hoffman, 1987).

Breznitz (1987) suggests that slow oral reading can reduce contextual memory and, thus, reduce comprehension of what has been read, while the research of Rossman (1987) shows that automatic readers did 25% to 50% better than non-automatic readers on speed, comprehension, and vocabulary measures and that a great deal of reading practice is required to produce automatic, fluent, readers. Unfortunately, research also indicates that in many classrooms students are not provided with significant opportunities for extended independent reading (Quirk, Trisman, Weinburg & Nalin, 1976; Goodlad, 1984; Anderson, et al., 1985; Allington, Stuetzel, Shake, & Lamarche, 1986; Hoffman, 1987; Sanacore, 1990).

The less-fluent reader, who is unable to decode automatically, spends so much effort and attention on decoding each word he is simply not able to attend to the task of meaning processing at the same time. To comprehend either visually or audibly presented language requires the

services of attending. The readers attention can be focused on only one thing at a time (Samuels, 1976). Once the problem of decoding unfamiliar words has been alleviated, attention can then be focused on the processing of meaning. According to the automaticity theory, "a fluent reader decodes the text automatically - that is, without attention - thus, leaving attention free to be used for comprehension" (Samuels, 1979, p. 406).

Dahl (1974) investigated the effectiveness of repeated readings by comparing four poor second grade readers who received eight months of repeated practice with four poor second grade readers who did not receive the practice. A standardized post-test indicated that the students receiving the repeated reading practice had significantly increased their reading rate while decreasing the number of miscues. The results of a similar study, conducted by Herman (1985), clearly indicate that less able, nonfluent, intermediate grade students benefited from repeated reading. Oral accuracy and comprehension had both improved.

In the present study, students participated in repeated reading activities for one weekly period of ten to fifteen minutes. A set of criteria for reading rate was set, beforehand, and students focused their efforts towards the established targets. After listening to a recording of a specific text in which the teacher's reading served as an oral reading model, students reread the text until they were satisfied with the degree of fluency achieved. Reading selections were from 100 to 150 words long. Students kept records of the number of trials, reading rate, and

number of miscues for each reading. (See Appendix 1 - 9 for a sample record).

A total of fifteen reading selections were used for the purposes of this study. These selections were taken from a variety of sources, including class-developed language experience stories, sections from a novel being read to the class and related stores, and novels contained in the SPRINT Reading program (See References).

Conferencing

A reading or writing conference is a short meeting between a reader or writer and another person, or people, for the purpose of sharing what has been read or written. Conferencing is considered by many educators to be an important instructional tool in that the student may benefit from what has been read or written (Russel, 1983; Graves, 1983; Calkins, 1986; Staab, 1990). This may be especially true for those readers or writers who experience difficulty in constructing meaning from text (Rhodes & Dudley-Marling, 1988). Over a period of time, questioning the student about his or her reading or writing may help to develop the ability to construct meaning.

Conferencing with students on a regular basis (i.e. a few minutes several times a week, depending on individual need) can be an effective means of monitoring and assessing student progress in writing. This qualitative approach to assessment may be more in keeping with the holistic view of learning in contrast to the more quantitative approach, in which emphasis is placed on product and on the testing of sub-skills

for the purpose of assessing language growth. According to Cambourne & Turbill (1990), in holistic teaching the two most commonly used sources of information for assessing students' language growth are conferencing and students' daily writing samples.

In the writing conference, the teacher does not "correct" student output. Rather, it is a means of gathering information about the student's knowledge of writing. It allows the teacher to gain an insight into the processes of writing for individual students (Graves, 1983). This "responsive evaluation" is based on the philosophies of naturalistic inquiry, as described by Guba & Lincoln (1981) and Lincoln & Guba (1986). Through direct involvement with individual students, the teacher can better determine what each student knows and the individual needs of the class.

Graves (1983) describes the writing conference as the "heart of teaching the writing process" (p. 187). Conferencing helps students to take responsibility for their own writing as they learn to become involved in critiquing their own writing, and that of others, through peer conferencing and sharing.

The idea of ownership has been emphasized by Graves (1983) and Calkins (1986). This term is used to indicate that students, as writers, can make decisions regarding the writing and editing of their work. Calkins (1986) stresses that real growth takes place when students begin to make their own decisions for revising - when they, themselves, decide that there is a need for revision. According to that researcher, the teacher may, by assuming responsibility for "correcting" a piece of

writing, be taking away the student's ownership of the writing. The student may no longer feel that it belongs to him or her. Rather, the student may perceive that it now belongs to the teacher.

Questioning during conferencing time is very important. According to Graves (1983), questions ought to be limited, at the beginning, designed to help the student to think about the topic on which he is writing, and to "teach the teacher about his subject" (p. 188). Russell (1983) contends that questioning the students about a piece of writing, rather than making suggestions or "correcting" may prompt the writer to make his own decisions regarding revision.

Conferencing can be done with individual students, within small groups, or with the whole class. Calkins (1986) recommends that teachers begin a writing activity with a "mini-lesson", or a whole-class conference, focusing on a specific topic such as the teaching of a writing skill that all students may benefit from. This would be not more than a few minutes in duration.

Whole-class conferencing can also be a sharing session for students to share what they have written. Sharing is very important in that it allows students to develop an awareness of audience for their writing. As students critique the work of others, through questioning, they are at the same time developing a set of standards or criteria by which to judge their own work (Graves, 1983).

Small-group conferencing can be done in much the same manner as for the whole class. This may be for the purpose of editing or for a mini-lesson, depending on need.

An individual conference is a private meeting between the teacher and one student. This may be several minutes in duration, during which time the student talks about his writing and answers questions related to his writing.

During the course of this study, conferencing was done on a regular basis. All students were given brief periods of time (e.g. approximately five minutes) at least twice a week, in which to discuss what they were writing and problems they may have been experiencing. Conferencing was done on an individual basis, as well as within groups of two or three students. Individual writing records were kept by the teacher who also kept extensive anecdotal records. (See Appendix 1 - 10 for sample writing record, and Appendix 1 - 11 for sample reading record).

During writing conferencing, basic questions were asked, a list of which each student kept in their writing folders (See Appendix 1 - 12 for a sample list of questions). During whole-class conferencing, a volunteer read a first draft of a piece of writing while other students questioned the writer, using questions from the list. These questions were also used during individual conferencing. Thus, students soon became familiar with the list, applying their new learnings to later writing. During questioning on early writing drafts (pre-revisions) an attempt was made to concentrate on content rather than on mechanical errors, such as spelling and punctuation. Mechanics were taken care of within the context of what was being written and with individual students. Only if a problem was "widespread" throughout the class was it dealt with on a whole-class basis.

Individual Writing Folders and Reading Logs

Writing folders and reading logs are effective means of record keeping. Individual writings are kept in the student's own personal folder and can be used for verification of student progress, for evaluation purposes, and for a quick check on what the student is currently writing (Graves, 1983).

In this study, students kept account of what was written and when it was written, by recording the title of each piece of writing, date of first draft, and completion date on a sheet of paper which was taped to one side of the student's writing folder. On a separate sheet a list of possible titles for future use was kept. All drafts of writing were stored in the folder for the purpose of comparison and as an aide in demonstrating to students that progress had been made.

Likewise, reading logs were kept by individual students throughout the term of this study. A reading log is a daily entry of what a student is reading (See Appendix 1 - 8 for a sample reading log). Titles of books, articles, and other selections which the students had read, number of pages read each day, and completion dates were recorded.

Use of Reading Games

Researchers have pointed out that reading isn't simply a matter of decoding words (Smith, 1979, 1982; Goodman & Goodman, 1977; Goodman, 1986. Readers actively become involved with the text constructing meaning by drawing on their own background knowledge or schemata. Good readers use a variety of strategies to get meaning from text.

Word games encourage language development. They encourage children to think creatively and deductively (e.g. "Twenty Questions", Golick, 1987), and they are fun. They also develop problem-solving skills (e.g. "Stinky Pinky", Golick, 1987). And, as a bonus, they contribute to vocabulary development and enhanced spelling skills (e.g. Wordo, Scrabble, Hangman, crossword puzzles). Other games (e.g. Words within words) invite the student to look closely at familiar words in order to find familiar word patterns. Such activities contribute to enhanced spelling capabilities. Thus, games can be used to enhance a number of language skills.

In the present study, the use of games not only provided recreational activities serving to reinforce important reading skills, they also served the teacher as a form of assessment of student capabilities. For example, the teacher recorded student responses as they were playing language games. Individual errors were also noted and analyzed by the teacher to identify types and patterns of errors. Information gathered in this way was used in subsequent lesson planning.

Many older students who are poor readers have difficulty remembering visual symbols. Like young beginning readers they require much repetition of letters and words in order to remember how they look. Well-chosen games can be useful in providing necessary repetition. Games are also motivating and students enjoy playing them day after day.

Summary

Many remedial readers present enormous problems to regular classroom teachers, both in terms of academic output and classroom behaviour. In an attempt to alleviate some of these problems, motivation and attitudinal changes become very important. The program utilized in the present study was designed in an attempt to change negative attitudes to more positive ones and to instill a greater degree of self confidence in the reluctant readers involved. Strategies used to motivate these students included language-experience activities, the use of a literature-based program, daily journal writing, time for independent reading (SSR), and the use of picture books

CHAPTER II

RELATED LITERATURE AND RESEARCH

Introduction

Reading instruction is one of the most important activities undertaken in today's classrooms. Proficiency in reading allows an individual to become employable, to participate in social affairs, and to become a productive member of society. However, despite the importance of reading proficiency, a large proportion of school children continue to experience difficulty in reading. Furthermore, according to Worzel (1991) more than 50 percent of students come through our educational system without the basic literacy skills necessary for successful careers in today's society.

In general, students who have been labelled "Special Education," "Remedial," or "Learning Disabled" have been so labelled because of extreme difficulty many of them have experienced in learning to read and write. Often, the level of academic achievement for those students remains far below that predicted by teachers based on certain indicators of ability, such as "intelligence" tests.

Over the years, a number of explanations have been offered for these students' problems. These explanations have included poorly developed cognitive skills, ineffective programming within the schools, individual and societal attitudes, and neurological impairment.

The purpose of this chapter is to present findings related to three areas of reading instruction and development. The first part will deal

with various models of the reading process, part two will present some research findings related to remedial reading programs, and part three will provide a survey of research related to the relationship between students' reading attitudes and their reading ability.

Definitions and Models of Reading

Definitions of reading have changed over the years, from process to product and, recently, back to process. Contemporary thinking about the reading process had its genesis many years ago. Thorndike (1917) defines reading as a thinking process, whereas Rosenblatt (1938) and Dewey (1943) describe it as a transaction between the reader and the text.

Dewey (1943) views the model classroom as a laboratory in which students are free to actively inquire and learn. Language, he contends, is a basic tool used for creating and constructing within the classroom. Reading and writing, Dewey says, "can be done in a related way, as the outgrowth of the child's social desire to recount his experiences and get in return the experiences of others" (p. 56).

Dewey (1943) also stresses the importance of making what is to be taught meaningful to the student. He says "Relate school to life, and all studies are of necessity correlated ... if school is related as a whole to life as a whole, its various aims and ideals - culture, discipline, information, utility - cease to be variants" (p. 91).

The definitions of both Thorndike and Dewey support contemporary research. This suggests that the act of reading goes beyond the visual aspects, sometimes called the surface structure, of the printed page.

Reading is a task in which an individual strives to make meaning of a set of printed symbols, such meaning being dependent on specific factors. Individual differences due to prior knowledge, interests, and motivation of the reader all influence the degree to which comprehension of text occurs (Allen, 1973; Chomsky, 1976, 1978; Rumelhart, 1977; Collins, Brown & Larkin, 1980; Spiro, 1980; Tierney & Pearson, 1983; Carnine & Kinder, 1985). Reading and writing are viewed as basically similar processes of meaning construction, both being acts of composing. "Meaning is created as a reader uses his background experience, together with the author's cues, to come to grips both with what the writer is getting him to do or think and what the reader decides and creates for himself" say Tierney & Pearson (1983, p. 568). Similarly, these researchers also say that a writer "uses her own background of experience to create ideas and ... filters these drafts through her judgements about what her reader's background of experience will be, what she wants to say, and what she wants to get the reader to think or do" (p. 568).

Reading is viewed as an information-seeking process in which the individual attempts to find meaning. Meaning is generated by the individual as the connection is made between personal past experiences and the printed page (Carnine & Kinder, 1985). The reader attempts to organize information into previously existing schemata.

A "top-down" model of the reading process suggests that the task of reading begins with the individual's generation of predictions based upon both visual and non-visual clues (Lee & Allen, 1963; Goodman, 1967; Samuels, 1970; Smith, 1973, 1979, 1988; Goodman & Goodman, 1977). These

clues depend on the student's knowledge of letter features and also on knowledge of the syntax and semantics of spoken language. Based on the identified clues, the students formulate hypotheses about the meanings inherent in the text. These hypotheses are verified, modified, or rejected throughout the process as new information develops in their awareness. Thus, reading becomes a "psycholinguistic guessing game" (Goodman, 1967). This model views the reader as going directly from the visual input to the meaning of the text. The reader gets meaning from what is read even though miscues may occur. The meaning obtained may not necessarily be the meanings intended by the author. This model views the reader as questioner of text rather than merely a perceiver. Smith (1979) maintains that prediction is comprehension of text and, essentially, "the prior elimination of unlikely alternatives" (p. 85).

An interactive view of reading has several implications for teaching. Reading instruction should place emphasis on developing background, or relevant schemata, in preparation for learning new information. Students need to become involved in activities which will help them relate new information to existing schemata. Another implication (Goodman, 1967; Goodman & Goodman, 1977) is that derivations from the text, while reading, which do not interfere with meaning, ought not to be corrected by the teacher, since such derivations mean that the reader is integrating information from the sources available to him in order to get meaning for the text. This reading model assumes that decoding of unfamiliar words is influenced by context. Thus, reading skills ought to be practised in meaningful context, and students should

learn to use syntactic and semantic clues while reading. The results of a study by Gipe (1980) support the use of context in which students relate new knowledge to their own personal experiences. This study suggests that relating new information to personal experiences may be one of the most important elements in gaining meaning from print. Chomsky (1976, 1978) contends that the process of reading involves much more than can be taught to an individual. It is the contribution of the learner that is crucial. This researcher also says that reading requires "active participation on the child's part" (p. 15).

Other authorities have presented a more linear view of the reading process. These "bottom-up" models emphasize an hierarchical view (i.e. from letters to words for word recognition and from the development of the literal to interpretative skills in comprehension: Gough, 1972; Laberge & Samuels, 1974; Samuels, 1976; Chall, 1983). The view taken by these theorists is that reading begins with the printed page, rather than with the learner and proceeds linearly from the visual data to meaning by a series of processing stages. Chall (1983) refers to beginning reading (Stage 0) as "pseudo-reading" and suggests that on beginning formal reading children must "let go of pseudo-reading. They have to engage in ... becoming glued to the print in order to achieve real maturity later" (p. 18).

Ashton-Warner (1963) speaks of reading as a "bridge from the known to the unknown, from a native culture to a new; and, universally speaking, from the inner man out" (p. 28). It is generally recognized that

understanding and interpretation of text is based on the personal experiences of the individual.

It may be inferred from current research that a number of factors influence the reading development of young children. One of the greatest influences may lie within the school system (Fernald, 1943; Seigler & Gynther, 1960; Ravenette, 1968; Smith & Barrett, 1974; Farr, 1981; Abrams, 1988). Ineffective teaching in over-crowded classrooms may result in the failure of children to learn to read and write. Abrams (1988) states that many children fail to learn how to read and write because traditional methods of teaching actually prevent them from doing so. It appears that some children are more negatively affected by poor teaching than are other children (Smith & Barrett, 1974). They maintain that the poor reading ability experienced by many older students may possibly be traced to the introduction of formal reading instruction without the children having had the types of experiences necessary to become successful readers. Many children coming from environments in which reading is not a priority may not have had a chance to become familiar with aspects of reading such as story structure or concepts about print. Individual differences are often not a consideration when a child enters school (Smith & Barrett, 1974). Oral language development, personal experiences, and visual and auditory discrimination are all very important to the development of reading proficiency.

Most children begin school eagerly, expecting to become readers and writers. Traditionally, programs have focused on *how* to read and write by providing drills on sub-skills. However, these programs, in general, have

failed to provide the necessary opportunities for actually immersing the student in meaningful reading and writing activities.

Results of studies show that, generally, a very small portion of instructional time is spent in having students read (Quirk, et al., 1976; Allington, 1977; Milligan, 1986; Allington, et al., 1986; Hoffman, 1987). If students are to learn to read, they must read (Smith, 1979; Calkins, 1986).

Results of a survey conducted by Mazur-Stewart & DeMedio (1990) indicate that reading programs of middle schools of the midwestern United States continue to emphasize a traditional skills approach to reading instruction and center on literal, rather than inferential, comprehension. It appears as if many schools continue to teach students to read for the purpose of locating specific information, rather than for the purpose of having them think about the meaning of the text and to relate it to their own personal experience.

Milligan (1986) observed 34 elementary, middle, and junior high school reading programs and identified examples of not enough time being spent on actual reading, an emphasis on phonic decoding, and focusing on accuracy in oral reading rather than on comprehension. Sheridan (1986) states that an error on the part of teachers is to focus on form (i.e. decoding and oral accuracy) rather than on meaning. Other authors claim that reading to be greater than the sum of "teachable skills" (Vacca & Johns, 1976; Vacca & Vacca, 1981).

However, not all researchers agree that teaching subskills is a mistake. Chall (1983, 1984), for example, seems to support this view when

she asserts that poor reading skills in the elementary grades are due to the fact that students were not taught the necessary skills in their early schooling.

Language is central to the human experience and to learning . As human beings, we depend on communication in order to share ideas and knowledge and to express feeling. Halliday (1978) describes language as a social symiotic, or language as "learning how to mean." Individual meaning is gained depending on specific need. Through repeated and continuous usage, language becomes internalized (Clay, 1975; Vygotsky, 1978; Sulzby, 1985). Students need to use language in order to become proficient users of language (Halliday, 1984). Rather than learning separate skills, the learner needs to become involved in meaningful language activities in speaking, in writing, in listening, and in reading.

Selected Research Related to Remedial Reading

Young children who are unsuccessful at school tend to elicit sympathies and our understanding. Teachers tend to immediately blame a poor home environment as a result of cultural or economic deprivation leading to an inadequate literary environment.

Many teachers, however, do not have similar feelings about adolescents who are experiencing failure. Many of these older children try to appear to be "tough," and frequently are perceived by teachers to be ready to challenge authority. They have lost much of the innocence of early youth and are often held accountable for their lack of academic success. Educators often fail to recognize the fact that emotionally

these students need understanding and acceptance as much now as at any time in their past.

This is a social attitude that appears to be reflected in the academic programming for older learning disabled students. There is a dearth of materials for use with the older student; the focus appears to be on the young beginning reader (Madsen, 1976; Cullinan & Epstein, 1979).

The ineffectiveness of many remedial reading programs have been well documented (Glass & Smith, 1977; Sargent, 1981; Hunter, 1982; Weissman, 1982; Allington, et al., 1986; Milligan, 1986; Gentile & MacMillan, 1988; Pinnell, 1989; Walmsley & Walp, 1990). In a study by Allington, et al. (1986), it was concluded that the majority of remedial programs are fragmented in nature, that the focus of instruction is invariably the production of correct answers and not the thinking processes which the student employed to arrive at an answer, that lessons are designed to teach some specific skills, and that much classroom time is spent completing worksheets unrelated to a specific topic or theme. Prior learning, or background knowledge, is rarely a consideration. In these classes, a very small portion of total instructional time was spent on direct reading activities, such as independent reading by the students.

Milligan (1986) reports that in many schools programming becomes inflexible. Once students are referred for remediation, they appear to remain poor readers and continue to be referred for remedial programs throughout their school lives. This may be due to the fact that many remedial reading programs have been ineffective in addressing the real causes of reading failure. Many remedial reading programs focus primarily

on skills deficits. Gentile & MacMillan (1988) suggest that this may be due, in part, to the fact that results of standardized reading skills tests are often used to design remediation programs in reading. Basic programming is, thus, focused on students' weaknesses or deficits rather than on their strengths. Other researchers report that many children who have been considered to have limited abilities have learned to become good readers when programming has been designed around students' areas of competence rather than around their deficits. For example, Clay (1985), Pinnell (1989), and Pinnell, Fried & Estice (1990) report significant gains in reading ability with younger children after involvement in "Reading Recovery Programs." Such programs involve students in daily periods of meaningful reading and writing activities in a one-one relationships with their "reading recovery" teachers. It is found that, typically, those students are able to return to regular programming after about six weeks of "reading recovery" instruction, and that they rarely need subsequent remediation.

Furthermore, poor reading skills have been considered by some researchers to be associated with underlying emotional and social problems (Newman, 1969; Gentile & MacMillan, 1988) and that it may be important to consider those personal variables when planning remedial programs. Relying only on skills deficits to identify students' difficulties in reading may be, therefore, inadequate for helping them learn to read and to adjust to becoming readers (Gentile & MacMillan, 1988).

Pinnell (1989) asserts that "traditional remedial programs are unequal to the task of remedial instruction. Neither pull-out nor in-

class models provide enough support or the right kind of support for slow-progress readers" (p. 162). Remedial programs have been found, in general, to be inefficient, segregating, and stigmatizing slow learners (Savage, 1987; Pinnell, 1989).

Traditional programming for students with learning difficulties appear not to be working. Reading difficulties appear not to have been adequately addressed. Programming has been aimed specifically at teaching the necessary skills to pass tests (Thorn, 1974; Farr, 1981; Durkin, 1987; Goodman, 1987; Wedman & Robinson, 1989; Calder, 1990; Mazur-Stewart & DeMedio, 1990). Very little actual reading and writing has been done. It has been a "skills without application" approach (Walmsley & Walp, 1990). The use of piles of workbook sheets and grammar activities will not teach students how to read or how to express themselves in writing. To learn to read and write, children need to be immersed in meaningful reading and writing activities every day (Smith, 1979; Calkins, 1986). In a study carried out on middle grade reading programs, Mazur-Stewart & DeMedio (1990) reported the existence of a skills emphasis in most classrooms surveyed. These classrooms, generally, relied on skills workbooks and basal texts, and few meaningful reading and writing activities were evident. These researchers recommended that more attention be directed toward a holistic, rather than a skills, approach and that an emphasis be placed on trade books, rather than on worksheets and basal texts, as a basis for reading programs.

In a similar vein, Myklebust (1973) reports the most common writing problems among secondary learning-disabled students to be difficulty with

production and a lack of fluency. Alley & Deshler (1979) contend that an over-emphasis on grammar and spelling in written work has contributed to those problems.

Too often, a lack of successful reading and writing experiences and a concentration on non-meaningful, boring, material in the classroom results in a early development of negative attitudes among students (Hunter, 1982; Friedel & Boers, 1989). This view is supported by Goodman (1987) who contends that poor readers suffer from "over-kill" after being "locked" into basals and workbooks for years. Likewise, Dionisio (1989) suggests that even after years of remedial instruction and hundreds of skill-drill exercises, these students continue to experience much difficulty in reading and writing. He also says that reading and writing activities have been so stripped of meaning for students that they have become virtually empty tasks. For these older remedial students, "reading" becomes associated with drills and writing out hundreds of missed spelling words (i.e. punishment!). In these classrooms the emphasis is on student weaknesses rather than on their strengths. Progressively, their reading experiences become less positively meaningful and less joyful.

With a similar perspective, Martin (1988) suggests that students do not need more of what they have failed at in the past. Remedial instruction, he says, ought to be a positive , rather than a negative experience for students. If a view of reading as an active thinking process influenced by the learner's prior experiences is to be accepted, then programs ought to be designed to reflect this philosophy. If a

student approaches the task with inadequate prior knowledge or experience, compensatory measures ought to be taken by the classroom teacher. Such measures may include reading to the child, regardless of age, providing activities and experiences with which the student can be successful, and providing a role model in the classroom by demonstrating the value and the enjoyment of reading. Success develops out of success (Friedel & Boers, 1989). When students experience success in reading and writing, they feel good about themselves and want to continue doing well.

Selected Research Related to Student Attitudes and Reading Ability

Current definitions of reading support the theory that reading is a "thinking process" in which meaning is generated by the individual and is influenced by the background knowledge, interests, and motivations of the reader (Chomsky, 1976, 1978; Rumelhart, 1977; Spiro, 1980; Tierney & Pearson, 1983; Carnine & Kinder, 1985). According to these definitions, affective as well as cognitive skills are necessary in order to become a successful reader. The individual's attitude about reading may be of importance in developing good reading skills. Brophy & Evertson (1981) defines "attitudes" as perceptions and emotional reactions to observations, experiences, and expectations.

Although research related to reading attitude is limited, what is available clearly suggests that a positive attitude is vitally important in achieving success in reading (Groff, 1962; Ravenette, 1968; Wilson & Hall, 1972; Ransbury, 1973; Alexander & Filler, 1976; Deeds, 1981; Rye, 1983; Covington, 1984; Helmstetter, 1987; Casteel, 1989; Reglin, 1990;

Smith, 1990). A number of factors appear to influence a student's attitude towards reading and towards academic work, in general. Of primary importance is the young child's home environment (Hess & Shipman, 1965; Hansen, 1969; Mager, 1969; Squire, 1969; Carter & McGinnis, 1970; Navin & Bates, 1987). According to these consistent views, it is very important that parents be good role models for reading and to foster in their children an enjoyment of reading. Parents who do not spend the time with children involved in activities such as reading to them, talking about things with them, and listening to children read may be jeopardizing "the development of language skills and positive attitudes necessary to the development of good reading ability" (Navin & Bates, 1987, p. 203).

The results of a study conducted by Navin & Bates (1987) indicate marked improvement in attitude and comprehension of treatment groups over control groups, such improvement occurring following group counselling for parents. One explanation offered by researchers for this improvement was the increased amount and quality of parent-child interaction with reading and school-related activities. If reading is not viewed as being important and not valued or reinforced at home, many children may begin school without the necessary background of experiences to enable them to become successful readers. Too often, early negative home experiences, combined with unsuccessful school experiences, quickly act to erode the natural enthusiasm of the young child. The individual soon develops doubts about personal abilities and develops feelings of discouragement and inadequacy. This may result in negative attitudes about school and about life in general.

The results of a study by Deeds (1981) show that attitude about personal ability plays an important role in academic performance. This supports earlier views (Carter & McGinnis, 1970; Purkey, 1970) that self-concept is affected by the academic performance of the individual, and that this may contribute to a negative attitude. Children with a history of failure expect to continue to fail and do not bother to make the necessary effort to do well. Failure is painful. To try and then to fail is even more painful. When students fail again, negative attitudes are reinforced and the cycle of failure continues. Each time the "circumference is smaller" (Weber, 1974, p. 4). By the time students reach high-school age, those who have not had enough success have built up a system of defence mechanisms (Cromley, 1976; Farr, 1981; Friedel & Boers, 1989). Such students typically become hostile toward the "system" and alienate themselves from school and from teachers. At risk students perceive themselves as failures and think that teachers do not show much interest in them. Schools are not likely to help these individuals unless they are able to change fundamental school - student interactions. Reversing the feelings of alienation experienced by at-risk students must begin with the establishment of a more positive social bond between teachers and students (Wehlage, Rutter, & Turnbaugh, 1987).

Covington (1984) describes the self-worth theory of achievement motivation. This "self-worth" theory assumes that a central part of all classroom achievement is the need for students to protect their sense of worth or personal value. Conflict exists within the individual between attempting success and avoiding failure. If success becomes unlikely, if

the student experiences repeated failure, the priority then becomes to act in ways which minimize "the implications of failure" (Covington, 1984, p. 8). Specifically, these "failure-avoiding" strategies include finding excuses, avoiding tasks with which failure has already occurred, and putting off making an effort. As the learner grows older, effort becomes less important since trying has become a threat to the individual's self worth. Students who have repeatedly failed to succeed in school have slowly lost confidence in their ability ever to succeed. This loss of confidence has brought with it negative attitudes about school.

Helmstetter (1987) asserts that apathy among some lower achievers can be cured and that one way of doing this is through improved attitudes. During the course of Helmstetter's program, designed to give positive reinforcement, his eighth grade class "emerged from their apathy to become a group of active learners" (p.244). Motivational phases of the study included (1) discussing attitudes, (2) a positive environment, (3) sharing literature through oral reading, (4) reading for an audience, and (5) active learning.

Similarly, Howard (1988) developed a program utilizing a creative approach with 75 poor readers, in an effort to modify negative attitudes. The program emphasized the use of good literature, motivating activities, oral language development, and extensive writing and reading activities. The approach proved to be very successful in eliminating the negative attitudes of student and replacing them with positive ones. The researcher reports that, at the end of the program, the students were reading independently and enjoying their reading experiences.

Casteel (1989) contends that children's attitudes are very important to learning and that developing positive attitudes in the classroom can often mean the difference between success and failure. He further states that teachers can do much to develop positive attitudes in students. Teachers can control the reading environment of their students and foster life-long reading habits. A study carried out by Casteel (1989) utilized four classes, two experimental groups and two control groups, in all of which attitudes were closely studied. The experimental groups were manipulated in that much positive verbal language was used by the teacher, while the control group received minimum praise and little positive feedback. Results of this study showed that the control group demonstrated more behavioral problems and were less interested in reading than were the experimental groups.

A study by Rye (1983) demonstrates that more able readers tend to show more favourable attitudes toward reading than do less able readers. The results of this study show a significant correlation between the reading ability and attitude to reading for a total sample of average to above-average thirteen to fourteen year olds. Rye's (1983) study replicates that of Groff (1962) which reports modest correlations between reading ability and reading attitude. The researcher says that "Clearly, it is important to attempt to change attitude because such a change may influence the way in which the reader will approach and process the text" (p. 16).

In a somewhat similar survey, Reglin (1990) indicates that positive attitudes to a situation are more likely to result in positive

consequences, and vice versa. Thus, strong attitudes can lead to self-fulfilling prophecies. It was concluded from this survey that students' attitudes toward education are influenced by their experiences and that "school conditions may well have a negative effect on at-risk students" (p. 214). In a similar vein, Smith (1990) attests that a reader's attitudes toward reading will impact upon his "motivations for reading, reading ability, and reading habits" (p. 156).

Results of research have clearly indicated that changing attitudes may be the answer to increased reading ability (Ransbury, 1973; Rye, 1983; Howard, 1988; Casteel, 1989; Reglin, 1990). However, how to go about changing the attitudes of reluctant readers is less clear. Rye (1983) contends that if the problem is approached purely from a cognitive level little success is likely. This view supports that of Ransbury (1973) that "reading attitude development should not depend on more and better skill-drills but, rather, to an exposure to a wide variety of materials that would elicit from him [the student] more enthusiastic statements about reading and stimulate his desire to read" (p. 26). Positive attitudes may replace more negative ones if teachers structure more positive experiences for their students. One way to facilitate such positive experiences is to use materials of interest to the students.

It has, therefore, been clearly established by now, that classroom teachers can play a significant role in fostering positive attitude development among children. Other researchers (Mueller, 1973; Smith & Barrett, 1974; Stauffer, 1980; Briggs, 1987) have reported that the teacher's specific approach to teaching, her personal opinions regarding

the value or reading, and her basic philosophy of how children learn may all influence the students with whom she comes in contact. It is the view of some researchers that the teacher's role is crucial in bringing about changes in attitude. It is, in fact, the role of the teacher to foster positive attitudes so that children will want to read (Briggs, 1987).

Another aspect of this issue is the finding that some children may be more negatively affected by poor teaching than are others (Smith & Barrett, 1974). The kinds of questions teachers ask students, teachers' expectations of students, grouping practices, and both verbal and non-verbal communication may all serve to direct specific messages to individual students. Children are affected by the beliefs that teachers hold about them. These beliefs are transmitted to students and the nature of these transmitted beliefs help determine students' attitudes about themselves (Smith & Barrett, 1974).

Children value ability (Carter & McGinnis, 1970; Covington, 1984). People who do well develop a strong sense of personal value. All of us need to preserve this sense of worth. If it is eroded, negative attitudes will likely develop. When children lose confidence in their ability to perform and succeed, reading problems develop. Either the child becomes unable to read and unwilling to try, because of her history of unsuccessful attempts, or she is able to read but is not motivated to do so because of the developed fear of failure (Farr, 1981).

Studies have shown that a reader's attitude affects comprehension of text (Wilson & Hall, 1972; Ransbury, 1973; Smith, 1990). A positive attitude is essential for successful development of reading skills since

a reader's attitude will influence motivation for reading and reading habits. In a longitudinal study (Healey, 1965), it was established that favourable attitudes are associated with significantly higher achievement and more reading.

Spache (1974) and Farr (1981) contend that attitudes may be closely related to interests. Negative attitudes may be replaced by more positive ones if a particular reading program reflects the interests of the student and is based on personal needs. If the student perceives the materials as being functional and meaningful to him, more positive attitudes may develop.

The first step in changing student attitudes, then, may be for teachers to change their own attitudes towards students. Maybe, it would be best to adopt the assumption that children want to learn. If students perceive that someone, especially their teachers, believe in them and expect them to achieve, then the likelihood is that students will do much better.

Summary

Proficiency in reading is of vital importance in today's fast-paced technological world. If the educational system is to prepare students to become productive members of society, it is important that schools provide the educational experiences which will allow individuals to communicate and adapt effectively (Ontario Ministry of Education, 1982).

Various explanations have been offered for the inability of many students to become proficient readers. These explanations include

programming within the schools and the attitude of students toward reading.

This chapter presented some of the findings related to reading instruction and development. These findings are related to models of reading, remedial reading programs, and the relationship between students' reading attitudes and their reading ability.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND ANALYSES

Introduction

The objective of this study was to set up an intervention program providing successful reading experiences for a group of reading-disabled students. Based on the premise that most children can, and will, become functional readers and writers if given the opportunity, the group was presented with many reading and writing experiences. Evaluation of the program utilized in this study was based on quantitative and qualitative analysis of the accumulated data.

The purpose and goals of this chapter are fourfold: (1) To present a brief description of the population used in this study, (2) to explain the procedure used in data collection for this study, (3) to provide descriptions of the instruments used to determine changes in reading ability, and (4) to present the data, statistical analysis and findings related to attitude and reading-related behaviour.

The Study Population

The study for this thesis was carried out at an intermediate-senior high school (Grades 7 to 12) in a rural Newfoundland school district, from January, 1991 to June, 1991. The subjects were nineteen students, all male, ranging in age from thirteen to seventeen. Five of these students were assigned to grade seven classes, eight to grade eight classes, and six were in grade nine classes. Most of the students had been attending

remedial classes for a large portion of their school careers and their classroom teachers were continuing to recommend them for remedial services because they were still experiencing a great deal of difficulty in reading and writing. Records indicate that their performance in these and other school subjects was at levels at least three to five years below their grade placement.

Most of the students demonstrated ineffective reading strategies (e.g. word-by-word oral reading, read very slowly). Students, generally, pointed to each word with a finger or pencil as they read. Fluency was very poor, as was comprehension. Most students were unable to recall relatively short text that they had read silently. So much of their attention was focused on decoding that meaning was lost. Generally, their ability to answer related questions was at a literal level; rarely did they demonstrate an inferential level of comprehension.

Most evident in writing were difficulties producing meaningful text and a lack of fluency. Due to a limited vocabulary, poor spelling, and generally poor sentence structure, the written products of this group tended to lack most of the fluency characteristics exhibited in the writing of effective writers.

Repeated failures and limited positive school experiences may have contributed to the generally negative attitudes that these students had developed towards school, in general, and towards reading, in particular. Virtually all of this group of students perceived themselves as failures. They made little effort in most of their classes, seeming to operate on the belief that "I can't do it, anyway!" Most of these students expressed

feelings of inferiority. Academic success, for them, had become more elusive each year. They talked only in terms of quitting school and going off to Toronto to find a job.

The aims of the program used as the foundation of this study were to attempt to develop more effective reading skills by focusing on individual student interests and strengths, rather than on weaknesses, and to encourage students to actively participate in classroom learning experiences. An attempt was made within the classroom to foster the concept that everyone's contribution is worthwhile, while at the same time offering the individual students encouragement and support. Primarily, the program was utilized to immerse the students in meaningful and functional reading and writing activities, rather than to have students experience drill with isolated "skills."

Through the use of quality literature, it was anticipated that imagination would grow, as would a sensitivity to writing styles and literary elements. It was hoped that, as a result of such activities, basic reading and writing skills would develop.

The nature of the class of students is such that the results of this study should be easily generalized. Like many reading-disabled students, the subjects of this study all live in a poor economic environment and come from homes where there is very little intellectual stimulation or reading materials. That is, they come from non-literate backgrounds.

Instrumentation

In addition to the rather informal processes of keeping anecdotal records of student progress, changes in competencies related to reading were determined in a more formal manner through the utilization of three instruments. These instruments are described below.

The Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test: Canadian Edition

The first instrument utilized was the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test, Level E, a test designed for use at the seventh to ninth grade levels. Both Form 1 and Form 2 of this test determine levels of vocabulary and reading comprehension. It is a well-established and widely-used test which "correlates well with other measures of reading ability, including overall appraisal by classroom teachers" (Buros, 1968, p. 302).

Canadian norms were established for the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Tests by using the results of test administrations to 46,000 students through the ten provinces and Yukon. The student group for each province was stratified according to city size and population of rural areas, and also, where appropriate, according to the type of school board. "Appropriate proportions of students were then tested in schools from boards which had been randomly selected within the defined strata" (MacGinitie, p. iv.).

The Burns/Roe Informal Reading Inventory: Second Edition

The second reading instrument utilized in the study was the Burns/Roe Informal Reading Inventory, Second Edition. This instrument was

designed for use by teachers as an easily-administered reading assessment instrument for their students. The inventory consists of graded word lists and graded passages that can be used with children from primary to senior secondary grades in order to determine appropriate levels of reading materials and each student's areas of strengths and weaknesses. The inventory contains four equivalent forms of graded passages for each level from pre-primer through to the grade twelve level.

In constructing the Burns/Roe Informal Reading Inventory the passages were checked for readability level using the Spache Readability Formula for pre-primer through grade three, and the Fry Readability Graph for grades four through twelve. Any selection that failed to fit the level exactly was deleted.

The material used in the "Burns/Roe" was field-tested on students in grades one through twelve by interspersing the new passages with passages from the first edition of the inventory. The new inventory was then administered according to the author's suggestions. It was concluded that "the passages performed successfully: they became increasingly difficult as the grade level increased" (Burns & Roe, 1985, p. 174.)

Even though there is an absence of data on the reliability of the inventory, it still enjoys the trust of educators and researchers. Arno (1990) say, for example, "if used to study, evaluate, or diagnose reading behaviours, the Burns/Roe IRI will prove to be a popular and valuable tool for the classroom teacher " (p. 471).

The Measure of Attitude

The attitude survey utilized, a modified version of that utilized by Tunnell, Calder & Jusen III (1988), has not been field tested. However, validity was established for the instrument used by this research group in an administration of the instrument to students at Jonesboro, Arkansas.

The attitude survey consisted of twenty-five statements the response choices of which were contained in a Likert-like scale (Edwards, 1957). Possible answers range from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree" with a total of five choices. Directions for responding were carefully explained to the students by the teacher, and each statement was read aloud by the teacher to the students, after which the students indicated their responses.

Since some of the statements on the attitude survey are negatively worded, and others positively worded, the polarity of the negatively stated items were reversed for scoring purposes. This was done to ensure that a one (1) represented the lowest rating and that a five (5) represented the highest rating. Thus, for scoring purposes 25 was the minimum possible score and 125 was the maximum possible score.

Procedure for Data Collection and Analysis

Educators have come to view reading proficiency as the degree to which readers are able to integrate graphophonic, syntactic, and semantic information to construct meaning from text (Pearson, 1976). From an analysis of reading measures it is possible to determine the degree to which students are using all cuing systems when reading unfamiliar text.

The program outlined in Chapter 1 was utilized during the January to June, 1991, school term. Assessment consisted of four components: a standardized reading test, an informal reading inventory, an attitude survey, and anecdotal records. Pretests and posttests were administered to determine changes in reading levels and in reading attitudes.

Data Collection for Reading Ability Gain

The Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test, Level E, Form 1 was administered as the pretest to determine reading levels, and Level E, Form 2 of the same test battery was used as the posttest. The Gates-MacGinitie test (Level E, Form 1) was administered as a pretest during the second week of January, 1991, to small groups of between three and six students. Just prior to the end of the school term, during the second week of June, 1991, Level E, Form 2 of the Gates-MacGinitie test was administered to the students, subjects of the study, in order to determine the gains made in reading comprehension over the January-June, 1991, period. Both forms of the test were scored by hand, utilizing the scoring keys provided by the test publishers.

Alternate forms of the Burns/Roe Informal Reading Inventory were utilized to determine individual levels of reading fluency and comprehension. Both oral reading and silent reading measures were completed, the combined results determining students' instructional reading levels.

Form A and Form B of the Burns/Roe inventory were administered to individual students as pretests of oral and silent reading levels during

the second week of January, 1991. Form C and Form D of the Burns/Roe inventory were administered to these students during the second week of June, 1991. Scores of the pretests and posttests were compared in order to determine reading growth for the January-June, 1991 period.

In both the pretesting and the posttesting, word recognition miscue analyses were recorded, based on the miscue-marking system provided by the authors. Miscues considered included mispronunciations, substitutions, refusals to pronounce, insertions, omissions, repetitions, and reversals.

A second component of fluency, reading speed, was also measured through the use of the informal reading inventory. Silent readings were timed in order to obtain words-per-minute (WPM) reading rates of the individual students. A comparison of pretests and posttests determined growth in reading fluency.

Because of the nature of an informal reading inventory, it does not easily lend itself to statistical analysis. Rather, it is designed primarily to be administered by the teacher as an instrument to determine the instructional level of individual students. In such informal reading inventories, reading miscues are to be analyzed in order to provide for the student activities designed to develop reading and comprehension skills depending on individual deficiencies.

It was decided not to change the recommended administration procedure for the Burns/Roe Informal Reading Inventory because it was felt that data derived from such contrived means would have limited validity. Furthermore, it was felt that to administer the reading inventory in a manner that would yield data that could be readily analyzed statistically

would probably contribute to further reading dysfunction for these students who had already had numerous negative experiences.

It was felt that a somewhat more phenomenological approach should be taken. That is, it was decided to administer the Burns/Roe Reading Inventory according to recommended procedures and to examine the resulting data for commonalities, some of which would be appropriate only for analyzing descriptively, and some of which might lend themselves to more quantitative (i.e. statistical) analysis. (The descriptive and statistical analyses are presented later in this chapter.) The data were also analyzed qualitatively, in conjunction with the data derived from the anecdotal records. This qualitative analysis is presented in Chapter 4 and is based on the case studies, presented in Appendix 3 - 13.

Data Collection for Attitude Change

It was deemed necessary to obtain an overall picture of each student's attitude toward reading skills. It was decided that any attitude measure should focus on at least reading for pleasure, reading in the content areas, and reading during reading class.

Cullinan (1987) suggests that "there are two goals for every school reading program: (1) to teach children how to read, and (2) to make them want to read" (p. 2). It is the contention of this author that the primary task of every teacher ought to be to create conditions so that children may develop a desire to read. If children want to read, learning to read may come more easily. This involves procedures which positively affect attitudes toward reading, since many students with reading

difficulties appear to hold negative attitudes about school and about reading.

A short reading attitude survey, a modified version of that used by Tunnell, et al. (1988), was administered to students at the beginning and at the end of the study period. The purpose of this survey was to assess reading attitudes and to measure attitude changes as a result of the teaching strategies used in this program.

The attitude survey (See Appendix 3 - 1) was administered to small groups of from three to six students during the second week of January, 1991 and again at the end of the program, during the second week of June, 1991.

Anecdotal Records

As a formative evaluation procedure, ongoing observations were performed and written records were kept by the teacher for the January-June, 1991 period. It was felt that an accumulation of data for each student, based on recurring and consistent behaviours, would assist the teacher in determining the academic progress of each student.

For this purpose, the teacher kept a record book into which dated comments were entered for each student on a weekly basis. These records show student reactions, as well as materials read and types of activities engaged in during the five month period. The information in these records was synthesized, and summaries were prepared on each student. These summaries are presented in Appendix 3 - 13.

Statistical Techniques Utilized

The nature of the data suggested that T-tests were the appropriate statistical procedure for much of the data. That is, for Hypothesis 1(a), and for Hypotheses 2, 3, and 4, the design is a criterion (i.e. correlation) design with the data consisting of two sets of scores (i.e. matched pairs) on the same sample. That is, for each of hypotheses 2, 3, and 4 there was one independent variable, the reading program, and pairs of dependent variable scores, the pretest and posttest scores for the reading skills. The nature of these hypotheses suggested a comparison of means of matched pairs. Hence, T-tests seemed to be called for.

A T-test for paired data rests on two major assumptions: (1) The scores form an interval or ratio scale of measurement (Borg & Gall, 1983), and (2) scores in the population under study are normally distributed (Shavelson, 1981; Borg & Gall, 1983). For paired T-tests no assumption need be made about the variances (Norusis, 1986).

Assumption 1 is readily seen to be satisfied since the reading skills scores constitute an interval scale. Assumption 2 can be tested by comparing the standard deviation to the mean for each group (Borg & Gall, 1983) and by preparing a normal probability plot. If the normal probability "...plot shows an upward slanting straight line, [one] may assume the values are normally distributed" (Hintze, 1987, p. 79).

The nature of the study precluded satisfying an additional assumption, that the subject group constitute a random sample or be randomly assigned (Borg & Gall, 1983; Spatz & Johnson, 1981; Norusis, 1986; Shavelson, 1981). Fortunately, the T-test is fairly robust (not

sensitive) to "moderate violation" of the assumptions (Norusis, 1986, P. 55). However, to minimize the possibility of Type II error (retaining an hypothesis when not justified), the normal probability plot was examined before the decision was made to proceed with a T-test in each instance.

Type I error (i.e. rejecting hypotheses when not justified) was minimized by setting a relatively rigid criterion probability level of $p < .05$, as recommended by Beyer (1974).

In each instance, for Hypotheses 1(a), 2, 3, and 4, upper one-tailed T-tests were utilized. Borg & Gall (1983) say that if one is fairly certain that changes will be in the hypothesized direction, then a one-tailed test is appropriate. In the present instances, it would be a rarity, indeed, for a student to obtain lower scores, on a reliable reading test, after a period of focused instruction. Hence, it was felt that the one-tailed test was justified.

Hypothesis 1(b) implies correlation and causality. Although a single correlation (e.g. Pearson r) is not sufficient to determine causality (Shavelson, 1981; Spatz & Johnson, 1981; Norusis, 1986), even if simply because "the correlation model does not distinguish between an independent and a dependent variable" (Pedhazur, 1982, p. 40), it is still a measure of how two variables covary. Pedhazur (1982) says, further, that the interpretation of r as a measure of "the linear relation between [two variables] is inappropriate" (p. 41). Besides, a correlation coefficient measures only the strength of a **linear** relationship (Hinkle, Wiersma, & Jurs, 1979; Norusis, 1986) and a low correlation index may be indicative that a curvilinear relationship exists between the two

variables. However the square of the correlation (e.g r^2) can be utilized in linear regression, which is an appropriate technique "when the focus of the research is on ... the prediction of a dependent variable" (Pedhazur, 1982, p. 41). When data are analyzed utilizing the linear regression technique, not only does it yield a correlation (Pearson r) but, moreover, a probability index is provided which can be utilized in determining statistical significance. Therefore, it was decided that linear regressions would be utilized to analyze the data addressed by Hypothesis 1(b).

An additional problem presented itself: what minimum number of subjects could constitute a group of sufficient size for a T-test. Although Shavelson (1981) suggests that a group as small as two subjects could be justified, such a group is simply too small to indicate anything about the shape of the distribution. Furthermore, Beyer's (1974) analysis indicates that a group with N = 3 is necessary for a T-test with probability criterion of $p < .05$. Consequently, it was decided that a group with N = 3 would be the minimum size group that would be analyzed utilizing T-tests.

Data Analysis

Analysis of Data Related to Reading Gain

Data derived from scores on the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test, the Burns/Roe Informal Reading Inventory, and the attitude survey were treated statistically, using T-tests and linear Regression with Pearson r. The purpose of the T-tests was to determine if any statistically significant

changes in reading scores and reading attitudes had occurred during the period during which the program was used. The linear regression technique was utilized to determine if there was a predictive (i.e., causal) relationship between change in reading attitude, as independent variable, and reading gain, as dependent variable.

Analysis of data related to Burns/Roe Informal Reading Inventory. Comparison of instructional levels determined from the pretests and posttests clearly indicate reading gains of at least one grade level by all except one student. (See Appendix 3 - 2.) For one student, no reading gain was made; instructional levels remained the same in both pretest and posttest. A gain of one instructional level was experienced by seven students, a gain of two instructional levels was made by seven students, and a gain of three instructional levels was experienced by four students. The mean instructional level increased from 3.57 to 5.47, a difference of 1.9 instructional grade levels.

Further examination of the Burns/Roe Informal Reading Inventory data revealed that groups of students had completed common test levels for both the pretesting and the posttesting (See Appendix 3 - 3). Specifically, one student had completed a pretest and a posttest at test level 2, five students had completed pretests and posttests at test level 3; five students had completed pretests and posttests at test level 4; two at test level 5; four at test level 6; one student at test level 7; and one at level 8.

Therefore, following the criterion of Beyer (1974) (i.e minimum group of N = 3), it was determined that it was possible to statistically

analyze the data for fourteen of the nineteen students, the results of which follow.

Test level 3 group consisted of five students (Students 3, 4, 6, 14, 15). It was determined that the normal probability plots for this group indicated a sufficiently normal distribution for a T-test (See Appendix 3 - 4 for data). The results of the T-test for test level 3 group is presented in Table 3.1.

The results of paired data T-tests, upper one-tailed, for test level 3 group indicate statistically significant gain in word recognition ($p = .0140$), oral comprehension ($p = .0078$), silent comprehension ($p = .0041$), average comprehension ($p = .0044$), and reading rate (WPM) ($p = .0205$).

Test level 4 group consisted of five students (Students 1, 2, 7, 9, 19). It was determined from normal probability plots for this group that a T-test was justified (See Appendix 3 - 5 for data). Paired-data T-tests, upper one-tailed, were utilized to determine the existence of statistical significant gain on the five variables. The results of the T-tests (Upper one-tailed) for the paired data of this group is presented in Table 3 - 2.

Results of the paired-data T-tests for test level 4 group (upper one-tailed) indicate statistically significant gain in word recognition ($p = .0026$), oral comprehension ($p = .0019$), silent comprehension ($p = .0252$), average comprehension ($p = .0023$), and reading rate (WPM) ($p = .0102$).

Table 3 - 1

Results of Paired-data T-tests (upper one-tailed) for Burns/Roe Level 3 Test Data

variable	count	mean	T	p	r
Word recognition					
posttest	5	97.4	3.3710	0.0140	0.2328
pretest	5	92.4			
Oral comprehension					
posttest	5	92	4.0467	0.0078	0.3599
pretest	5	59			
Silent comprehension					
posttest	5	80	4.8702	0.0041	-0.7906
pretest	5	54			
Average comprehension					
posttest	5	86	4.7621	0.0044	-0.0375
pretest	5	56.5			
Reading rate (Words per minute)					
Posttest	5	84.6	2.9747	0.0205	.8765
Pretest	5	66.2			

Table 3 - 2

Results of Paired-data T-tests (upper one-tailed) for Burns/Roe Level 4 Test Data

variable	count	mean	T	p	r
Word recognition					
posttest	5	97.5	5.5468	0.0026	0.9851
pretest	5	91.2			
Oral comprehension					
posttest	5	97	6.0000	0.0019	-0.2942
pretest	5	61			
Silent comprehension					
posttest	5	85	2.7689	0.0252	0.1870
pretest	5	62			
Average comprehension					
posttest	5	91	5.7306	0.0023	0.4315
pretest	5	61.5			
Reading rate (Words per minute)					
Posttest	5	97.2	3.7234	0.0102	0.7308
Pretest	5	66.8			

Test level 6 group consisted of four students (Students 5, 10, 17, 18). It was determined that the normal probability plots, indicative of close to normal distribution, supported T-tests (See Appendix 3 - 6 for data). The results of paired-data T-tests, upper one-tailed, for test level 6 group are presented in Table 3 - 3.

The results of the paired data T-tests, upper one-tailed, for Burns/Roe test level 6 group indicate statistically significant gain in oral comprehension ($p = .0016$), silent comprehension ($p = .0156$), and average comprehension ($p = .0062$). However, the gains for word recognition ($p = .0986$) and reading rate ($p = .0833$) were not statistically significant at the $p = .05$ probability criterion level.

In general, analysis of the data of the Burns/Roe Informal Reading Inventory indicate a statistically significant gain in reading fluency and comprehension during the period of the study.

Table 3 - 3

Results of Paired-data T-tests (upper one-tailed) for Burns/Roe Level 6 Test Data

variable	count	mean	T	p	r
Word recognition					
posttest	4	98.8	1.6514	0.0986	-0.0112
pretest	4	93.8			
Oral comprehension					
posttest	4	87.5	8.6602	0.0016	0.9718
pretest	4	75			
Silent comprehension					
posttest	4	90	3.8334	0.0156	0.0000
pretest	4	68.8			
Average comprehension					
posttest	4	88.8	5.4000	0.0062	0.7746
pretest	4	71.8			
Reading rate (Words per minute)					
Posttest	4	83.2	1.8189	0.0833	0.9010
Pretest	4	65.5			

Analysis data related to Gates-MacGinitie Reading Tests. Alternate forms of the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test were administered as pretest and posttest in order to farther assess gains made by students in reading comprehension and vocabulary during the period of the study. In January, 1991, at the beginning of the study, Level E, Form 1 of the test was administered to all students. At the end of the study, in June, 1991, Level E, Form 2 of the test was administered to these students.

Grade equivalency scores attained by students on the comprehension subtest of the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Tests, Level E, Form 1 and Form 2 (Data provided in Appendix 3 - 7) indicate that all students except one experienced some gain in reading comprehension. The mean grade equivalency level increased from 4.0 to 5.5, a mean gain of 1.5 grade levels in the five month period of the program.

A normal probability plot of the comprehension data indicated close to normal distribution, supporting the utilization of T-tests as the analysis tool. A paired-data T-test, upper one-tailed, was utilized with the raw scores (given in Appendix 3 - 8) yielded results which indicated statistical significance ($p = .0001$) The data for the comprehension T - test, upper one-tailed, is presented in Table 3 - 4.

Table 3 - 4.

Results of Paired Data T-tests (upper one-tailed) for Gates-MacGinitie Test Data

variable	count	mean	T	p	r
Comprehension					
posttest Form 2	19	19.579	4.9500	0.0001	0.5701
pretest Form 1	19	14.474			
Vocabulary					
posttest Form 2	19	19.842	5.1626	0.0000	0.6636
pretest Form 1	19	13.474			
Total Reading Ability					
posttest Form 2	19	39.421	6.4484	0.0000	0.7122
pretest Form 1	19	27.947			

Grade equivalency scores on the **vocabulary** sub-test of the Gates-MacGinitie Test, Level E, Forms 1 and 2 (Data provided in Appendix 3 - 9) indicate that sixteen of the nineteen students experienced some gain in vocabulary during the period of the program. The mean grade equivalency increased from 4.5 to 6.4, a mean grade equivalency increase of 1.9 years in vocabulary development during the .5 years of the study.

The normal probability plot for the vocabulary data indicated a close-to-normal distribution (raw scores provided in Appendix 3 - 8), thus supporting the utilization of a T-test as the analysis tool. Analysis with a paired data T-test, upper one-tailed, for the vocabulary data revealed that the gain in vocabulary was statistically significant ($p < .0001$). The results of the Vocabulary T-test, upper one-tailed, is provided in Table 3 - 4.

The data for Total Reading Ability were likewise analyzed. The results of the related T-test indicated a statistically significant gain in total reading ability ($p < .0001$). The results of the total reading ability T-test (Upper one-tailed) is presented in Table 3 - 4.

Analysis of Data Related to Attitude Gain

A short reading attitude survey, a modified version of that used by Tunnell (1988) was administered to all students at the beginning and at the end of the program utilized for this study. The purpose of the attitude survey (Appendix 3 - 1) was to assess reading attitudes and to attempt to measure attitudinal change associated with the teaching strategies used in this program.

The data gathered by the two administrations of the attitude survey (Appendix 3 - 10) show that of the nineteen students in the program, sixteen made some gains in reading attitude during the course of the study. The mean reading attitude score increased from 60 to 70.5, a

difference of 10.5. (Note: The minimum possible score was 25, the maximum possible score was 125.)

A normal probability plot of the reading attitude data was prepared. It was determined that the data were sufficiently normally distributed to justify utilizing a T-test as the analysis tool. The paired data of the pre administration and post administration of the **attitude** survey were then subjected to a T-test, upper one-tailed. The T-test results for the attitude data are presented in Table 3 - 5.

Table 3 - 5

Results of Paired-data T-test (upper one-tailed) for Attitude Data

Test	count	mean	T	p	r
post	19	70.5263	4.7194	0.0001	0.7428
pre	19	59.5263			

Note. Minimum score = 25; maximum score = 125

The results of the paired data T-test, upper one-tailed, for the attitude instrument ($T = 4.719$; $p < .0001$) indicate that statistically significant gain in reading attitude occurred over the period of this study.

Analysis of Data Related to Reading Attitude and Reading Ability

Hypothesis 1(b) implies a predictive relationship between reading attitude gain, as independent variable, and gain in reading ability, as dependent variable. This hypothesis was tested by subjecting the relevant data (See Appendix 3 - 11) to simple linear regressions.

Three linear regressions were utilized to determine the nature of the relationships between attitude gain and vocabulary gain, between attitude gain and reading comprehension gain, and between attitude gain and total reading ability gain. The results of this analysis is presented in Table 3 - 6.

These results indicate that for the attitude - vocabulary data $r = -0.29$, $F = 1.67$, and $p = 0.214$. This result indicates that the relationship between attitude gain and vocabulary gain is not statistically significant, with attitude gain accounting for less than 9% ($r^2 = .0894$) of the variance in vocabulary gain. The hypothesis was not supported by these data.

The results for the attitude - comprehension data ($r = -0.057$, $F = .06$, $p = 0.816$) indicate that the relationship between attitude gain and comprehension gain is not statistically significant, with attitude gain accounting for less than 1% ($r^2 = .0033$) of the variance in comprehension gain. The hypothesis was not supported by these data.

Table 3 - 6

Results of Linear Regressions for Attitude - Reading Variables Data.

Variable	r (w/Attitude)	F	p	r^2
Vocabulary	-0.2990	1.67	0.214	0.0894
Comprehension	-0.0572	0.06	0.816	0.0033
Total Reading	-0.2404	1.04	0.321	0.0578

The results for the attitude - total reading ability gain ($r = -0.24$, $F = 1.04$, $p = 0.321$) indicate that the relationship between attitude gain and total reading ability gain was not statistically significant, with attitude gain accounting for less than 6% ($r^2 = .0578$) of the variance of total reading ability gain. The hypothesis was not supported by these data.

An examination of the scatterplots for attitude and reading skills (See Appendix 3 - 12 for data) did not indicate the presence of curvilinear relationships between attitude and the reading variables. Hence, no further analyses were undertaken.

Summary

In general, analysis of the data derived from administrations of the Burns/Row Informal Reading Inventory and the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test

indicate statistically significant gains in reading fluency, comprehension, and vocabulary development during the period of this study. According to data derived from administrations of the Burns/Row, the mean instructional level increaed from 3.57 to 5.47, a gain of 1.9 instructional grade levels. Data from the comprehension subtest of Gates-MacGinitie revealed an mean increase in grade equivalency from 4.0 to 5.5, a mean gain of 1.5 grade levels. Data from the vocabulary subtest showed a mean increase from 4.5 to 6.4, a mean gain of 1.9 instructional years.

Results of the paired-data T-tests for the attitude instrument ($T = 4.719$, $p < .001$) indicate a statistically significant gain in Reading Attitude over the period of the study. Data for Attitude and Total Reading Ability Gain ($r = -0.24$, $F = 1.04$, $p = 0.321$) indicate that the relationship between these variables was not statistically signifiacnt, with attitude gain accounting for less than 6% of the variance of Total Reading Ability Gain. However, although no statistically significant linear (causal) relationship between these variables were detected, reading scores increased and there was also a gain in reading attitude. This indicates the possible existence of a non-linear relationship between these variables.

CHAPTER IV

INTERPRETATIONS

Introduction

Evaluation and interpretation of this study was based on empirical data gathered from the results of testing, as well as from qualitative analysis based on documentation and anecdotal records of student behaviour and records of daily teacher observation of performance. In this chapter, interpretations of both quantitative and qualitative analyses are presented. Discussion will focus on the development of students' reading skills (i.e. fluency and comprehension), their interest in literature, and their attitudes toward reading which occurred during the study.

The study was based on the premise that most children can, and will, learn to become readers and writers if the environment in which they function is conducive to their learning. During the course of this study, the subjects were involved in a wide variety of activities considered to be effective in enabling them to become better readers and writers. The effectiveness of this program has been assessed through both quantitive and qualitative analysis of the data collected.

Results Associated with Measures of Reading Gain

Determination of reading gain was based on the results of the quantitative data, as well as on an examination of the qualitative data as

revealed by a study of the anecdotal records. Discussion of both sets of analyses follow.

Interpretations of Results Associated with Burns/Roe Informal Reading Inventory, 2nd. Ed.

A comparison of pre-test and post-test scores on the Burns/Roe reading test indicated that the programs utilized in the present study resulted in positive outcomes for the students involved. Analysis of the data collected by means of the inventory indicated a statistically significant gain in reading fluency and comprehension.

Comparison of instructional levels, as determined from pretesting and posttesting, clearly indicate reading gains of at least one grade level by all except one student (See Appendix 3 - 2). The reading gains of the nineteen students who were subjects of the study were as follows for the five month period of the study:

For one student, no measured gain was experienced; instructional levels remained unchanged in pre- and posttesting.

For seven students, there was a measured gain of one instructional year.

For seven students, there was a measured gain of two instructional years.

For four students, there was a measured gain of three instructional years.

For the student population, the mean instructional level increased from 3.57 to 5.47, a difference of 1.9 instructional grade levels.

In general, analysis of the data associated with the Burns/Roe Informal Reading Inventory indicated a statistically significant gain ($P < .01$) in reading fluency and comprehension during the period of the study. This finding supports Hypothesis 2 - 3.

Interpretations of Results Associated with Gates-MacGinitie Reading Tests, Level E, Forms 1 and 2

An analysis of scores attained on the comprehension subtest of the Gates-McGinitie Reading Tests clearly indicate a statistically significant gain in reading comprehension for the total study population. The mean grade equivalency level increased from 4.0 to 5.5, a mean gain of 1.5 instructional grade levels over the course of the five month program (See Appendix 3 - 7). The results of a paired-data T-test also yielded results showing statistical significance ($P < .0001$. See Table 3 - 4).

On the vocabulary sub-test of the Gates-MacGinitie Test sixteen of the nineteen students experienced vocabulary gain during the five month program (See Appendix 3 - 9). The mean grade equivalence increased from 4.5 to 6.4, an increase of 1.9 grade levels in vocabulary.

Analysis by means of a paired T-test indicated a statistically significant gain in vocabulary scores ($P < .0001$. See Table 3 - 4).

In general, analysis of the data associated with the Gates-MacGinitie Test, Level E, Forms 1 and 2 reveal a significant gain in comprehension and vocabulary during the five months of the study.

Interpretations of Reading Gain Based on Anecdotal Records

According to the literature, one means of conducting qualitative research is through participant observation, such as that used in ethnographic studies (Spradley, 1980; Graves, 1983; Woods, 1986; Goodman, et al, 1989). Other researchers refer to this method of analysis as "responsive evaluation," based on the philosophies of naturalistic inquiry as described by Guba & Lincoln (1981) and Lincoln & Guba (1986). In this method of analysis the researcher is expected to gather information by being "responsive" to the subjects involved. Through direct involvement with the subjects of the study, the investigator has an opportunity for insight into the processes of on-going activities among the participants (Graves, 1983). Often, it is the processes, rather than the final product, that is most revealing and that answers the question "What does this student know about reading and writing?"

Woods (1986) suggests that teachers are ideally placed for participant observation, since "they already occupy a role within their own institutions" (p. 33). He further points out the existence of a commonality of identity and purpose between ethnography and teaching,

since "much of a teacher's time is spent in doing ethnographic work, observing, listening, seeking to understand the pupils... " (p. 20).

If the needs of reading disabled students are to be met, it may be necessary to first see these students as individuals, to appreciate them as human beings, and to recognize the fact that these students have hopes and dreams similar to those that most of us share. In an effort to further understand, and support interpretations of, the quantitative data, the case studies (Appendix 3 - 13) were closely examined. It is to be noted that these case studies are of real students. Each of them describes a student from the remedial reading class within the school in which this study was carried out. This class is considered to be typical of a group of adolescent "slower learners". Names of students have been changed in order to protect individual identities.

During the course of the present study, a detailed record was kept by the investigator. This record included audio-tapes of students' readings, students' writing folders and reading logs, and anecdotal notes containing information gleaned from conferencing with students and from direct observations of student involvement, interactions, and behaviours. This was the data base which supported the development of the case studies on each student participating in the program which was the basis of this study.

Student characteristics at beginning of study. Analysis of the anecdotal records prepared at the beginning of this program on the group

of students participating in this study revealed a number of commonalities. Some of these are given below.

1. All of the students were reading well below grade level - by at least three years.

2. Academics appeared to have no real meaning for those students. Raised in a culture in which unemployment and welfare is a way of life, these students failed to see any connection between school and their personal lives or futures.

3. Students exhibited extremely low levels of self-confidence, often using such terms as "I'm stupid" when speaking of themselves.

4. Attendance at school was sporadic, with students often appearing for registration only to "disappear" en route to another class.

5. Most students demonstrated little respect for the school or for the teachers within it; they had become quite alienated, not only form the teachers but also from many of their peers. Low self-esteem had caused them to dissociate themselves as much as possible, both physically and psychologically, from those whom they perceived as unaccepting of them.

6.Generally, attitudes about school and reading were quite negative.

Student characteristics at termination of study. Over the course of the program, as students began to experience success, self-perception and attitudes began to be replaced with those of a more positive nature. As students began to realize that they really could do better, more effort

was put into school work which resulted in more positive consequences. By the end of the study period the following changes were noted:

1. All students became obviously pleased with success. Each would be sure to mention to the remedial teacher any test that they had written in another class, especially if a passing mark was achieved.

2. Students' reading quantity had increased.

3. Students felt better about themselves. As they experienced success, they showed greater self-confidence and were willing to take more risks in their writing. This greater degree of self-confidence was also demonstrated by a greater willingness to take responsibility for their own learning, being more willing to work independently and without constant supervision from the teacher.

4. In general, students were better able, and more likely, to view themselves as being "students" or "learners." They accepted the responsibility of studying for a test, and appeared to expect to be successful. Many of the students expressed hopes of doing well academically. Thus, they appeared to become a part of the life of the school.

Results Associated with Measure of Attitude Change

During the course of this study, an attempt was made to measure attitudinal change attributed to the teaching strategies utilized in the program. For this purpose, a short reading attitude survey instrument was

administered to all students at the beginning and at the end of the five month program.

An analysis of the data revealed that of the nineteen students who were subjects of the study, sixteen experienced positive gains in reading attitude over the period of the study. The mean reading attitude score increased from 60 to 71, a positive difference of 11. The results of the associated paired-data T-test ($T = 4.719$, $P < .0001$) indicate a statistically significant gain in attitudes associated with reading experienced by the students over the period of the study.

It was determined that, in general, based on the statistical analysis, the students involved in the study developed more positive attitudes towards reading during the course of the study. Thus, Hypothesis 1(a) was supported.

General Interpretations

The adolescent who is at risk of becoming a school drop out without attaining the basic reading and writing skills to become a functional member of our society continues to be a major problem within today's educational system. Many of these students are of average, or about average, intelligence. Reasons for their failure to succeed academically vary widely. According to some researchers (Farr, 1981; Smith, 1983; Davis, 1990) reasons may include cultural deprivation, emotional and psychological factors or, in many cases, ineffective teaching strategies.

Many children, for whatever reasons, appear not to have gotten off to a good start in the beginning stages of reading.

It is interesting to note that Dunn (1986) cites consideration of individual differences and individual learning styles as vital factors in the academic development of children. It appears as if early reading failure may cause irreparable damage to children (Pinnell, 1989; Slavin, Madden, Karweit, Dolan & Wasik, 1991). These researchers have concluded that reading failure is preventable for all children, regardless of economic background. Prevention of failure in early grades could spare individuals the ignominy of being categorized as disabled later on.

The purpose of this study was to develop an alternative reading program for intermediate level remedial students. Research has shown that traditional remedial programs, in general, have been ineffective in helping students to become fluent readers and writers (Savage, 1987; Gentill & MacMillan, 1988; Pinnell, 1989). Some of the reasons offered for the ineffectiveness of such programs have been that they consist largely of drills and worksheets (Savage, 1987) which students perceive as having little personal meaning to them. Gentill & MacMillan (1988) claim that programs have been developed primarily in an attempt to develop those skills in which deficiencies occur, and to do this have focused on the deficits of the student, rather than on their strengths.

Still another problem with remedial programs is that many of them fail to effectively integrate reading and writing (Smith, 1983). Many

programs appear to be designed to teach students **how** to read or **how** to write without actually having children engaged in meaningful reading and writing activities. Research dating at least as far back as Ashton-Warner (1963) has stressed the effectiveness of using students' own experiences as a basis for a reading and writing program. More recently, Calkins (1983) asserts that if learning-disabled students are to learn to write, they must write for an audience; their writing must be done for the purpose of reading. This view is supported by Graves (1983) and by Goodman (1986).

For the purposes of the present study, a program was developed to provide these older remedial students with successful learning experiences. A foundational philosophy of this program was that with success negative attitudes could be replaced with more positive ones, resulting in progress in reading and writing.

In the program many of the strategies used to teach literacy skills to beginning readers were modified and used to teach older students. These strategies included the following:

(a) use of quality literature along with use of student-generated materials, such as language experience stories, as a basis for reading and writing,

(b) use of materials on a reading level at which the students can be successful, such as picture books,

(c) use of materials related to interests and needs of students,

(d) a wide variety of print materials in the classroom, including books, magazines, comics, newspapers, and student-generated stories, and

(e) time provided for independent reading and writing, as well as for sharing reading and writing experiences, rather than emphasis placed on skills work.

Summary

According to recent publications, one means of conducting qualitative research is through participant observation (Spradley, 1980; Graves, 1983; Woods, 1986; Goodman et al, 1989). During the course of the present study, the investigator, through direct involvement with the subjects, was able to gain some insight into the processes involved in reading while individual students became actively involved in activities within the classroom. A detailed record kept by the investigator included audio-taped readings by students, writing folders and reading logs, as well as anecdotal records of student interactions and behaviours throughout the program.

In general, students responded well to the literature/writing-based program that was utilized in this study. By the end of the five-month period all students were demonstrating a real enjoyment of a novel being read aloud. Many within the group were, by then, reading ahead, independently, in the selected novel because they were unwilling to wait for the next reading period to find out what happened next. They were

actively involved in novels, making predictions, discussing characters, and using concepts and events discussed in the novels as bases for their own personal writing in journals.

The problem for many of the students in this study is that, for one reason or another, they have been unable to maintain pace with the style of learning and teaching being demanded by much of today's educational system - a system which evaluates students according to test scores. Raised in a sub-culture where "book-learning" is not valued and where unemployment and various forms of welfare and dependency is a way of life, these students fail to see the connection that their schooling experiences have with their everyday lives. For many of these students, schooling is something to be tolerated while they are waiting to become old enough to legally quit. For them, time and attention tend to be focused on the more immediate issues of life, such as getting the snowmobile ready for another season of winter activities, and such as the fact that the "bread winners" of the family may not find enough work to qualify for unemployment insurance benefits this year. This is not to be misconstrued as laziness or attempts to "beat the system." The majority of these children come from very hard-working, but undereducated, families. They live in the here and now, responding to everyday pressing needs of survival. Thus, unless there is immediate and practical value in a task, these students dismissed it as foolishness.

Each success that these students experience brings increasing self-confidence. This is why it is so important that they be provided with tasks in which they can be successful. Insuring success in all areas of the curriculum would greatly help these students. That is, it is possible to get them "hooked" on success.

It was the experience of the researcher in the present study, who was the remedial teacher, that success in a reading class has often not "carried over" to other classes. Many of the students still reported failing grades in other classes even though they had progressed in reading and writing.

In general, analysis of anecdotal records and quantitative data appear to suggest that both academic and personal growth occurred in the students involved in the present study.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

The objective of the present study, carried out in a rural Newfoundland high school, was to develop and evaluate a program designed to provide an alternative reading program for a group of intermediate "low performing" students. The study was carried out over a five-month period, January to June, 1991.

The Nature of the Study

The program utilized in the study was primarily literature-based, in that no basal texts were utilized. Daily activities included language experience activities, shared reading, daily journal writing, repeated reading, time for independent reading and writing, the use of picture books, as well as motivational games. A basic contention, forming part of the foundation of this study, was that most students **can and will learn to read and write** if they feel the need to do so. In order for such learning to occur the learner must decide that what is being taught is worth learning. Skills are most effectively and efficiently taught within the context of meaningful activities. Most students who have experienced failure at school have developed negative attitudes about school and about learning. The program utilized in the present study was designed in an attempt to replace negative attitudes with those of a more positive

nature, and to attempt to instill a greater degree of self-confidence in the reluctant learners involved.

Throughout this study, in addition to the more informal method of tracking student progress (i.e. participant observation and keeping anecdotal records) changes in reading and writing competencies were determined in a more formal manner utilizing three instruments: alternate forms of the Gates MacGinitie Reading Tests, Canadian Edition, Level E; alternate forms of the Burns/Roe Informal Reading Inventory; and a short reading attitude survey.

Form 1 of the Gates MacGinitie was used for pretesting vocabulary and reading comprehension; Form 2 was used for posttesting these competencies. Alternate forms of the Burns/Roe were utilized to determine individual levels of reading fluency and comprehension. Both oral and silent reading measures were completed and the combined results were used to determine students' instructional reading levels. Form A and Form B of the Burns-Roe were utilized as pretests of oral and silent reading levels, respectively, and Form B and Form D were administered for the purpose of posttesting these reading competencies.

A short reading attitude survey was administered to students at the beginning and at the end of the study period. The purpose of the attitude survey was to assess reading attitude and to measure attitude change as a result of the teaching strategies utilized in this language arts program.

Related Research: A Summary

Generally, students have been labelled "special education" or "learning disabled" as a result of the extreme difficulty these students have experienced in attempting to learn to read and write. Explanations for these deficiencies have included poorly developed cognitive skills, neurological impairments, and ineffective programming within the schools. Research findings related to the present study were reviewed according to three categories: models of the reading process, research findings related to remedial reading, research dealing with the relationship between reading ability and attitude.

Research suggests that the act of reading exceeds the visual or surface structures of text. Rather, the reader strives to make meaning of the printed symbol. Prior knowledge, individual interests, and motivation of the reader all influence the degree of meaning achieved (Allen, 1973; Chomsky, 1976, 1978; Rumelhart, 1977; Collins, et al, 1980; Spiro, 1980; Tierney & Pearson, 1983; Carnine & Kinder, 1985). Meaning is generated as the reader forms the connection between personal experiences and the printed page, bridging the gap between the known and the unknown (Ashton-Warner, 1963). This interactive view of reading has several implications for teaching. Students ought to be involved in activities designed to assist them in relating new information to existing schemata. Instruction ought to emphasize developing relevant schemata, and miscues which do not

interfere with meaning ought not to be corrected by the teacher (Goodman & Goodman, 1977).

According to the "bottom-up" model of reading, emphasizing an hierarchical view, reading begins with the printed page, rather than with the learner, and proceeds linearly from visual symbols to meaning through a series of stages (Gough, 1972; LaBerge & Samuels, 1974; Samuels, 1976; Chall, 1983).

Research findings related to remedial reading programs indicate that, in general, most have proven to be ineffective in teaching students to become proficient readers and writers. Such programs tend to be fragmented in their approach, with lessons designed to teach specific skills. It appears that there continues to exist in many classrooms a situation where the bulk of teaching time is spent on having students complete worksheets unrelated to a specific topic, rather than on direct reading and writing activities (Allington, et al, 1986; Milligan, 1986; Gentile & MacMillian, 1988; Pinnell, 1989). Basic programming in these classes, it appears, focuses on students' deficits rather than on their strengths (Gentile & MacMillian, 1988).

A purpose of this study was to determine the effectiveness of an alternative to the traditional "skills approach" methodology of teaching reading and writing. A premise of this study was that there is significant educational value in providing students of all ages with successful schooling experiences. Other premises were that students

become successful readers and writers by engaging in meaningful related activities (Smith, 1988; Cullinan, 1987), and that reading and writing are reciprocal processes (Ashton-Warner, 1963; Smith, 1973, 1983, 1988; Allen, 1976; Fillion, 1985; Goodman, 1986; Goodman, et al., 1989). These elements are supported by daily lessons designed to emphasize individual strengths allowing present competencies and knowledge be put to effective use (Pinnell, Fried & Estice, 1990).

Reading quality literature and daily writing activities were central to the program used in this study, the origins of which may be found in the work of Lee & Allan (1963), Ashton-Warner (1963), Clay (1972, 1985), Rosenblatt (1976), Hall (1979), Holdaway (1979), Veatch (1985), Cullinan (1987), Smith (1988) and Pinnell (1989). According to the views of these researchers, literacy consists of two primary aspects, namely reading and writing. Reading consists not only of teaching the skills necessary in learning to read but also the reading of real literature. Likewise, writing consists not only of practising isolated skills but, rather, writing to communicate.

Although research relating to reading attitude is somewhat limited, what is available clearly suggests that a positive attitude is of vital importance in becoming a successful reader (Groff, 1962; Ransbury, 1973; Covington, 1984; Casteel, 1989; Regiin, 1990; Smith, 1990). A number of factors appear to influence student attitudes towards school and towards

reading. These include the young child's home environment, the individual's experiences at school, and self-concept.

By utilizing the program of the present study an attempt was made to replace negative attitudes with positive ones. This was done through the use of quality literature as a basis for the program, the use of motivating and meaningful activities, and extensive variety of reading and writing activities. This was supported by the teacher who tried to make students feel at ease in the classroom and to feel that all of their contributions and attempts were worthwhile.

Conclusions Based on Quantitative Analysis

In general, analysis of the quantitative data of both the Burns/Roe Informal Reading Inventory and the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Tests indicate that the students experienced statistically significant gains in reading fluency, comprehension, and vocabulary development during the period of this study. Comparison of instructional levels, as determined from pre- and posttesting, utilizing the Burns/Roe indicate that the mean instructional level increased from 3.57 to 5.47, a difference of 1.9 instructional grade levels.

Grade equivalency scores attained by students on the comprehension subtest of the Gates-MacGinitie indicate an increase in mean grade equivalency levels from 4.0 in January to 5.5 in June, a mean gain of 1.5 grade levels. On the vocabulary subtest of the Gates-MacGinitie the mean

grade equivalency increased from 4.5 to 6.4, an increase of 1.9 years in vocabulary development during the .5 school years of this study.

Analysis of the data related to attitude gain revealed that of the 19 students participating in this study, 16 of them made some gain in reading attitudes. The results of the paired-date T-test for the attitude instrument ($T = 4.719$, $p < .0001$) indicate a statistically significant gain in reading attitude over the period of the study.

Analysis of data related to reading attitude and reading ability indicate that the measured relationship between these variables was not statistically significant ($r = -0.29$, $F = 1.67$, $p = 0.214$). This is also true for the measured relationship between attitude gain and comprehension gain ($r = -0.057$, $F = .06$, $p = 0.816$).

Data for attitude and total reading ability gain ($r = -0.24$, $F = 1.04$, $p = 0.321$) indicate that the relationship between these variables is not statistically significant, with attitude gain accounting for less than 6% of the variance of total reading ability gain. Thus, Hypothesis 1(b) was not supported by the data of this study.

Although there was no statistically significant linear causal relationship between attitude change and reading gain, it should be noted that there was positive attitude change according to the measure of Attitude, and there was reading gain, as measured by the reading tests. This suggests the possibility of a non-linear causal relationship between attitude change and reading gain. It is not clear from the data associated

with this study whether any possible non-linear relationship is in the Attitude -> Reading Gain direction, or vice versa, or if there exists some more-complex interactive or cyclical relationship. A cyclical relationship, as used here, refers to a relationship where two variables interact and grow incrementally. That is, there may be an interdependence between the two variables.

It may also be possible that Attitude and Reading Gain are not responding to each other but to some variable not present in the design of this study. For example, the climate established in the classroom, characterized particularly by the respect and acceptance for the students exhibited by the teacher. The case studies (Appendix 3 - 13) appear to provide some support for this possibility. However, no data was collected that would permit investigation of these possibilities, and they were not anticipated when the study was designed.

Recommendations

In the course of any investigation questions will become apparent. Many of these could not, ordinarily, have been anticipated by the researcher. The process of investigation contributes to the researcher's developing syntheses of related issues. These syntheses give rise to realizations that there are many other related issues and questions that need to be addressed. For example, in subsequent research, efforts to answer the following questions might be attempted:

1. Is there a causal relationship between the climate of the classroom, as independent variable, and reading gain, as dependent variable?

2. Is there a causal relationship between classroom climate, as independent variable, and reading attitude, as dependent variable?

3. Is there a causal relationship between classroom climate, as independent variable, and some dynamic combination of reading gain + attitude, as dependent variable.

4. Is there a dynamic (i.e interactive) relationship between the two variables Reading Gain and Attitude, and a literature-based, holistic, approach to reading instruction?

5. Could the methodologies utilized in the present study be effectively utilized in developmental programming for intermediate students?

6. What is the effect of including a strong writing component in the reading program? How is student writing development affected? How is student reading development affected? (Note: Although a strong integrated writing program was a fundamental aspect of the total language program provided to the students in this study, no attempt was made to measure writing development or the relationship between writing growth and reading growth).

General Conclusions

The object of this study was to determine if a literature-based reading and writing program, provided according to holistic methodologies consistent with the research literature, would be as effective for reading-disabled intermediate students as for younger beginning readers. The research supported the use of these methodologies, in contrast to the limited effectiveness of the more traditional skills approaches, for younger children. The underlying assumption was that since these intermediate reading-disabled students had not developed efficient reading facilities, they would have many similarities to younger beginning readers. They were, in many respects, in fact, beginning readers.

The analysis of the quantitative data, corroborated by the case studies, clearly indicate that these methodologies can be very effective. In each case, but one, student reading skills increased by at least one year with a mean gain of almost two years over a five month period of exposure to, and experience with, these non-traditional methodologies for reading and writing instruction.

The question of generalizability naturally arises. There appears to be no reason why these methodologies would not be equally effective for reading-disabled students at any educational level regardless of socio-economic context. Furthermore, since the students involved in this study were not true beginning readers, as indicated by pretesting, it appears

reasonable to conclude that methodologies utilized in this study would be equally effective in any regular developmental reading class.

The question of efficiency also arises. When older students, particularly those with a history of negative educational experiences and school failure, respond in the manner as did the students in this study, with gains as great as three instructional years in a five month period, there seems to be little reasonable doubt that the methodologies utilized are efficient.

It is also important to note that although the nature of the relationship of Attitude with Reading Gain has not been determined, students' negative attitudes were successfully supplanted by significantly more positive ones.

It can be concluded, therefore, that the methodologies utilized in this study are effective not only for the instrumental benefits normally expected to be associated with reading gain, but also for the instrumental and intrinsic benefits to be derived from positive attitudes and enhanced self-concept.

REFERENCES

Abrams, J.C. (1988). A dynamic-developmental-interaction approach to reading and related learning disabilities. In S.M. Glazer, L.W. Searfoss & L. M. Gentile (Eds.). Reexamining reading diagnosis. New trends and procedures. Newark: International Reading Association.

Alexander, J. E. & Filler, R.C. (1976). Attitudes and reading. Newark: International Reading Association.

Allen, R. V. (1973). Reading programs: Alternatives for improvement. Tucson, AZ: University of Arizona.

Allen, R. V. (197-). Language experience in communication. Boston: Houghton & Mifflin.

Alley, G. & Deshler, D. (1979). Teaching the learning disabled adolescent: Strategies and methods. Denver: Love.

Allington, R. L. (1977, October). If they don't read much how are they ever gonna get good? Journal of Reading, 21, 57 - 61.

Allington, R. L. (1983). Fluency: The neglected goal. The Reading Teacher. 36, 556 - 561.

Allington, R. L. (1984). Content coverage and contextual reading in reading groups. Journal of Reading Behavior, 16, 85 - 96.

Allington, R., Stuetzel, H., Shake, M. & Lamarche, S. (1986). What is remedial reading? A descriptive study. Reading Research and Instruction, 26(1), 15 - 30.

Anderson, B. (1981). The missing Ingredient: Fluent oral reading. The Elementary School Journal, 81, 173 - 177.

Anderson, R., Fielding, L., & Wilson, P. (1988). Growth in reading and how children spend their time outside of school. Reading Research Quarterly, 23, 285 - 303.

Anderson, R. C., Hiebert, E. H., Scott, J. A. & Wilkinson, I.A.G. (1985). Becoming a nation of readers: The report of the commission on reading. Washington: The National Institute of Education, US Dept. of Education.

Arno, K. S. (1990, March). Burns/Roe Informal Reading Inventory. Journal of Reading, 33(6), 470 - 471.

Ashton- Warner, S. (1963). Teacher. New York: Simon & Schuster.

Aulls, M. (1982). Developing readers in today's elementary school. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Baskwell, J. & Whitman, P. (1988). Evaluation: Whole language, whole child. New York: Scholastic.

Beyer, W. H. (Ed.). (1974). Handbook of tables for probability and statistics, 2nd. Ed. Cleveland, OH: The Chemical Rubber Company.

Bode, B. A. (1989). Dialogue journal writing. The Reading Teacher, 42(8), 568 - 571.

Borg, W. R. & Gall, M. D. (1983). Educational research. New York: Longman.

Breznitz, Z. (1987, September). Increasing first graders' reading accuracy and comprehension by accelerating their reading rates. Journal of Educational Psychology, 79(3), 236 - 242.

Briggs, L. D. (1987, April). A poor attitude: A deterrent to reading improvement. Reading Horizons, 27(3), 202 - 207.

Brophy, J. E. & Evertson, C. M. (1981). Student characteristics and teaching. New York: Longman.

Burchby, M. (1988, Spring). Literature and whole language. The New Advocate, 114 - 123.

Burns, P. C. & Roe, B. D. (1985). Burns/Roe informal reading inventory, 2nd. Ed. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Buros, O. K. (Ed.). (1968). Reading: Tests and reviews. Vol. 1. Highland Park, NJ: The Gryphon Press.

Caine, R. N. & Caine, J. (1991). Making connections: Teaching and the human brain. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Calder, K. J. (1990). The adolescent: Special needs and services. BC Journal of Special Education, 14(1), 63 - 71.

Calfee, R. & Drum, P. (1986). Research on teaching reading. In M. C. Wittroe (Ed.). Handbook of research on teaching. New York: Macmillan, 804 - 849.

Calkins, L. M. (1983). Lessons from a child. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Calkins, L. M. (1986). The art of teaching writing. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Cambourne, B. & Turbill, J. (1990, January). Assessment in whole langauge classrooms: Theory into practice. The Elementary School Journal, 90(3), 337 - 349.

Carbo, M. (1978). Teaching reading with talking books. Reading Teacher, 32, 267 - 273.

Carnine, D. & Kinder, D. (1985). Teaching low-performing students to apply generative and schema strategies to narrative and expositcry material. RASE, 6(1), 20 - 30.

Carroll, D. (1986). Psychology of language. Monterey, CA: Brooks Cole.

Carter, B. & Abrahamson, R. F. (1991, May). Nonfiction in a read-aloud program. Journal Of Reading, 34(8), 638 - 642.

Carter, H. L. J. & McGinnis, D. J. (1970). Diagnosis and treatment of the disabled reader. Toronto, ON: Macmillan.

Carter, L. F. (1984). The sustaining effects study of compensatory and elementary education. Educational Researcher, 13, 4 -13.

Casteel, C. A. (1989, Summer). Motivating reluctant readers to become mature readers. Reading Improvement, 26(2), 98 - 101.

Chall, J. S. (1983). Stages of reading development. Toronto: McGraw.

Chall, J. S. (1984). Literacy: Trends and explanations. American Education, 20, 16 - 22.

Childrey, J. A. Jr. (1980). Read a book in an hour. Reading Horizons, 20, 174 - 176.

Chomsky, C. (1972). Stages in language development and reading exposure. Harvard Educational Review, 42, 1 - 33.

Chomsky, C. (1976, March). After Decoding: What? Language Arts, 53(3), 288 - 296.

Chomsky, C. (1978). When you still can't read in third grade: After decoding, what? In S. J. Samuels (Ed.). What research has to say about reading instruction. Newark: International reading Association.

Clary, L. M. (1991, February) Getting Adolescents to read. Journal of Reading, 34(5), 340 - 345.

Clay, M. (1972). Reading: The patterning of complex behavior. Auckland, NZ: Heinemann.

Clay, M. (1975). What did I write? Auckland, NZ: Heinemann

Clay, M. (1985) The early detection of reading difficulties. 3rd. Ed. Aukland, NZ: Heinemann.

Cohen, D. (1968, February). The effect of literature on vocabulary and reading achievement. Elementary English, 45, 209 - 217.

Coley, J. D. & Hoffman, D. M. (1990, April). Overcoming learned helplessness in at-risk readers. Journal of Reading, 33(7), 497 - 502.

Collins, A., Brown, J. S. & Larkin, K. M. (1980). Inferences in text understanding. In R. J. Spiro, B. C. Bruce & W. F. Brewer (Eds.). Theoretical issues in reading comprehension. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Covington, M. V. (1984). The self-worth theory of achievement motivation: Findings and Implications. The Elementary School Journal, 85(1), 5 - 17.

Cromley, M. (1976, January). Skeletal poems: Effective technique for affective teaching. Journal of Reading, 19(4), 291 - 293.

Cousin, P. T. (1991). Learners with special needs. Reading Today, 8(5).

Cullinan, B. W. (Ed.). (1987). Children's literature in the reading program. Newark: International Reading Association.

Cullinan, D. & Epstein, M. H. (1979). Special education for adolescents: Issues and perspectives. Columbus: Charles E. Merrill.

Dahl, P. (1974). An experimental program for teaching high speed word recognition and comprehension skills. (Final Report Project #3-1154). Washington: National Institute of Education. (ERIC No. ED 099 812).

Dahl, P. R. (1979). An experimental program for teaching high speed word recognition and comprehension skills. In J. E. Button, T. C. Lovitt, & T. D. Lowland (Eds.). Communications research in learning disabilities and mental retardation. Baltimore: University Press.

Davis, S. J. (1990, March). Breaking the cycle of failure through the thematic experience approach. Journal of Reading, 33(6), 420 - 423.

Daniels, R. R., Kasnic, M. J. & McCluskey, D. (1988). Individualized instruction utilizing the structure of intellect and language experience in reading programs. Reading Improvement, 25(3), 237 - 240.

Deeds, B. (1981). Motivating children to read through improved self-concept. In A. J. Ciani (Ed.). Motivating reluctant readers. Newark: International Reading Association.

Dewey, J. (1943). The child and the curriculum and the school and society. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Dionisio, M. (1989, January). Filling empty pockets: Remedial reading make meaning. English Journal, 78(1), 33 - 37.

Dunn, R. (1986). Learning style: State of the science. Theory into Practice, 23(1), 10 - 19.

Durkin, D. (1987, January). Influence on basal reader programs. Elementary School Improvement, 87(3).

Edwards, D. L. (1957).Techniques of attitude scale construction. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts.

Elkind, D. (1986, May). Formal education and early childhood education: An essential difference. Phi Delta Kappan, 631 - 636.

Englehert, C., Raphael, T., Anderson, L., Anthony, H., Fear, K., & Gregg, S. (1988). A case for intervention: Strategies for writing informational text. Learning Disabilities Focus, 3, 98 - 113.

Falk, J. (1979, December). Language acquisition and the teaching and learning of writing. College English, 41, 438 - 447.

Farr, R. P. (1981). Building language experiences for reluctant readers. In A. J. Ciani (Ed.). Motivating reluctant readers. Newark: International Reading Association.

Fernald, G. M. (1943). Remedial techniques in basic school subjects. New York: McGraw Hill.

Fillion, B. (1985). Writing, reading, and learning. In C. N. Hedley & A. N. Baratta (Eds.). Contexts of reading. Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Flatley, J. K. & Rutland, A. D. (1986). Using wordless picture books to teach linguistically/culturally different students. Reading Teacher, 40(3), 276 - 281.

Flores, B. & Garcia, E. (1984). A collaborative learning and teaching experience using journal writing. Journal of the National Association for Bilingual Education, 8(2), 67 - 83.

Flores, B., Garcia, E., Gongalez, S., Hidalgo, G., Kacgmarek, K. & Romero, T. (1986). Holistic bilingual instructional strategies. Phoenix: Exito.

Friedel, M. & Boers, D. (1989, Spring). Remedial reading instruction of the Arobar students. Reading Improvement, 26(1), 37 - 42.

Gauthier, L. R. (1991, March). Using journals for content area comprehension. Journal of Reading, 34(6), 491 - 492.

Gentile, L. M. & MacMillan, M. M. (1988). Reexamining the role of emotional maladjustment. In S. Glazer, L. Searfoss & L. Gentile (Eds.). Reexamening reading diagnosis: New trends and procedures. Newark: International Reading Association.

Gipe, J. P. (1980). Use of relevant context helps kids learn new word meanings. The Reading Teacher, 33( ), 398 - 402.

Gitelman, H. F. (1990, March). Using wordless picture books with disabled readers. The Reading Teacher, 43(7), 525.

Glass, G. V. & Smith, M. L. (1977). Pull-out in compensatory education. Washington: Dept. of Health, Education, and Welfare.

Glowacki, J. (1990, May). Motivating remedial readers. Journal of Reading, 33(8), 650.

Good, C. V. (Ed.). (1973). Dictionary of education. New York: McGraw Hill.

Goodlad, J. I. (1954). Some effects of promotion and nonpromotion upon the social and personal adjustment of children. Journal of Experimental Education, 22, 301 - 328.

Goodlad, J. I. (1984). A place called school. New York: McGraw Hill.

Goodman, K. S. (1967). Reading: A psycholinguistic guessing game. Journal of Reading Specialist, 6, 126 - 135.

Goodman, K. S. (1986). What's whole in whole language? Richmond Hill, ON: Scholastic-Tab.

Goodman, K. S. (1987). Beyond basal readers: Taking charge of your own teaching. Learning, 16(2), 63 - 65.

Goodman, K. & Goodman, Y. (1979). Learning to read is natural. In L. Lisnick & P. Weaver. (Eds.). Theory and practice of early reading. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Goodman, K. & Goodman, Y. (1977). Learning about psycholinguistic processes by analyzing oral reading. Harvard Educational Review, 47, 317 - 333.

Goodman, K. S. & Goodman, Y. M. & Hood, W. J. (1989). The whole language evaluation book. Toronto: Irwin.

Golick, M. (1987). Playing with words. Markham, On: Pembroke Publishers.

Gough, P. (1972). One second in Reading. In J. F. Kavanaugh & I. G. Mattingly (Eds.). Langauge by ear and by eye. Cambridge: MIT Press.

Graves, D. H. (1983). Writing: Teachers and children at work. Portsmouth: Heinemann.

Groff, P. J. (1962, April). Children's attitudes toward reading and their critical-type materials. Journal of Educational Research, 55, 313 - 314.

Guba, E. & Lincoln, Y. (1981). Effective evaluation: Improving the usefulness of evaluation results through responsive and realistic approaches. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Guzzetti, B. J. (1990, March). Enhancing comprehension through trade books in high school English classes. Journal of Reading, 33(16), 411 - 413.

Hall, M. A. (1970). Teaching reading as a language experience. Columbus: Merrill.

Hall, M. (1979). Langauge-centered reading: premises and recommendations. Language Arts, 56, 664 - 670.

Halliday, M. A. K. (1978). Language as a social semiotic. London: Arnold.

Halliday, M. A. K. (1984). Three aspects of children's language development: learning langauge, learning through language, and learning about language. In Y. M. Goodman, M. Haussler, & D. Strickland (Eds.). Oral and written langauge development research: Impact on the schools. Urbana: National Council of Teachers of English.

Hansen, H. S. (1969, January). The Impact of the Home Literacy Environment on Reading Attitude. Elementary English, 46, 17 - 24

Healy, A. K. (1965, November). Effects of changing children's attitudes toward reading. Elementary English, 42, 269 - 272.

Helmstetter, A. (1987, December). Year-long motivation in the 8th grade "reluctant" class. Journal of Reading, 31(3), 244 - 247.

Herman, P. A. (1985, Fall). The effect of repeated readings on reading rate, speech pauses, and word accuracy. Reading Research Quarterly, 10(5), 553 - 561.

Hess, R. D. & Shipman, V. (1965). Early blocks to children's learning. Children, 12, 189 - 194.

Hintze, J. L. (1987). Number cruncher statistical system: Reference manual. Kaysville, UT: NCSS

Hinkle, D. E., Wiersma, W. & Jurs, S. G. (1979). Applied statistics for the behavioral sciences. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Hoffman, J. V. (1987, August-September). Research into developing reading fluency. Reading Today, 5(1), 7.

Holdaway, D. (1979). The foundations of literacy. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Howard, D. E. (1988, Spring). Modifying negative attitudes in poor readers will generate increased reading growth and interest. Reading Improvement, 25(1), 39 - 45.

Huck, C., Hepler, S. & Hickman, J. (1987). Children's literature in the elementary school (4th. Ed.). New York: Holt.

Hunt, L. (1970). The effect of self-selection, interest and motivation upon independent, instructional and frustration level. The Reading Teacher, 24, 416.

Hunter, J. (1982, March). Ten steps to improve remedial reading instruction. Reading World, 21(3), 248 - 253.

Jackson, G. B. (1975). The research evidence on the effects of grade retention. Reviews of Educational Research, 45, 613 - 635.

Johnson, J. R. (1984). Synthesis of research on grade retention and social promotion. Educational Leadership, 41, 66 - 68.

Johnson-Weber, M. (1989, December). Picture books for junior high. Journal of Reading, 33(3), 219 - 220.

Laberge, D. & Samuels, S. J. (1974). Toward a theory of automatic information processing in reading. Cognitive Psychology, 6, 293 - 323.

Lapointe, A. (1986). The state of instruction in reading and writing in US elementary schools. Phi Delta Kappan, 68, 135 - 138.

Lee, D.M. & Allen, R. V. (1963). Learning to read through experience. New York: Meredith Publishing.

Lincoln, Y. & Guba, E. (1986). Naturalistic inquiry. Beverly Hills: Sage.

MacGinitie, W. H. (1980). Gates-MacGinitie reading tests. Toronto: Nelson Canada.

Madsen, S. (1976, Fall). Echoes from the field: Philosophy for secondary remediation. Reading Horizons, 17(1), 71 - 72.

Mager, R. F. (1969). Developing attitudes toward learning. Palo Alto, CA: Fearon Press.

Martin, T. (1988, April). Frightened of Books: Working with reading failures. Reading, 22(1), 15 -24.

Mazur-Stewart, M. & DeMedio, D. L. (1990, Summer). Characteristics of midwestern middle grade reading programs: A regional survey. Ohio Reading Teacher, 24(4), 4 - 13.

McCormick, S. (1977). Should you read aloud to your children? Language Arts, 54, 139 - 143.

McGee, L. M. & Tompkins, G. E. (1983). Wordless picture books are for older readers too. Journal of Reading, 27(2), 120 - 123.

Milligan, J. L. (1986, November). The seven most common mistakes made by remedial reading teachers. Journal of Reading, 30(2), 140 - 143.

Mueller, D. L. (1973, December). Teacher attitudes toward reading. Journal of Reading, 17, 202 - 205.

Mulligan, J. P. (1974, December). Using langauge experience with potential high school dropouts. Journal of Reading, __( ), 206 - 211.

Myklebust, H. (1973). Development and disorders of written Language: Studies of normal and exceptional children, Vol. 2. New York: Grune & Stratton.

Nagy, W. E. & Anderson, R. C. (1984). How many words are there in printed school English? Reading Research Quarterly, 19, 304 - 333.

Navin, S. L. & Bates, G. W. (1987, February). Improving attitudes and achievement of remedial readers: A parent counselling approach. Elementary School Guidance and Counselling, 21(3), 203 - 209.

Newman, H. (Ed.). (1969). Reading disabilities: Selections on identification and treatment. : Odyssey Press.

Newman, J. M. (1985). Whole language: Theory in use. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Norusis, M. J. (1986). The SPSS guide to data analysis. Chicago: SPSS.

Ontario Ministry of Education. (1982). Partners in action: The library resource centre in the school curriculum. Toronto.

Otto, W. (1985, November). Research: Practice makes perfect always - sometimes - never. Journal of Reading, 29(2), 188 - 191.

Pagett, L. (1990). Investigating the novel with junior children. Reading, 24(2), 65 - 71.

Pearson, P. D. (1976, March). A psycholinguistic model of reading. Language Arts, 53(3), 309 - 314.

Pedhazur, E. J. (1982). Multiple regression in behavioral research, 2nd. Ed. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Perfetti, C. A. & Hogaboam, T. (1975). Relationship between single word decoding and reading comprehension skills. Journal of Educational Psychology, 67, 461 - 469.

Phinney, M. Y. (1988). Reading with troubled readers. Portsmouth, NH: Heineman.

Pinnell, G. S. (1989). Reading recovery: Helping at-risk children learn to read. The Elementary School Journal, 90(2), 161 - 183.

Pinnell, G. S., Fried, M. D. & Estice, R. M. (1990). Reading recovery: Learning to make the difference. The Reading Teacher, 43(4), 282 - 295.

Progoff, I. (1980). The practice of process mediation. New York: Dialogue House Library.

Purkey, W. (1970). Self-concept and school achievement. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall.

Quirk, T., Trisman, D., Weinburg, S. & Nalin, K. (1976). Attending behavior during reading instruction. The Reading Teacher, 29(7), 640 - 646.

Ransbury, M. K. (1973, October). An assessment of reading attitudes. Journal of Reading, 17, 25 - 28.

Rashotte, C. A. & Torgeson, J. K. (1985). Repeated reading and reading fluency in learning disabled children. Reading Research Quarterly, 20(2), 180 - 188.

Ravenette, A., T. (1968). Dimensions of reading difficulties. Toronto: Pergamon Press.

Reglin, G. L. (1990, April/May). Rural high school dropouts grade the rural public school system. The High School Journal, 73(4), 213 - 216.

Rhodes, L. JK. & Dudley-Marling, C. (1988). Readers and writers with a difference: A holistic approach to teaching learning disabled and remedial children. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Rogers, C. (1969). Freedom to learn. Columbus, OH: Merrill.

Rosenblatt, L. M. (1976). Literature through exploration, 3rd. Ed. New York: Noble & Noble. (Original work published in 1938).

Rosenblatt, L. M. (1976). Literature as exploration. New York: Noble & Noble.

Rosenblatt, L. M. (1978). The Reader, the test, the poem: The transactional theory of the literary work. :Southern University Press.

Rossman, A. D. (1987, November). Reading automaticity: The essential element of academic success. Principal, 29 - 32.

Rumelhart, D. (1977). Toward an interactive model of reading. In S. Dornie (Ed.). Attention and performance, VI. Hillsdale, NJ: Laurence Erlbaum.

Russell, C. (1983). Putting research into practice: Conferencing with young children. Language Arts, 60(3), 333 - 340.

Rye, J. (1983). The Importance of attitude: Some implications. Reading, 17(1), 13 - 22.

Samuels, S. J. (1970). Recognition of flashed words by children. Child Development, 41(4), 1089 - 1094.

Samuels, S. J. (1976, March). Automatic decoding and reading comprehension. Language Arts, 53(3), 323 - 325.

Samuels, S. J. (1979, January). The method of repeated readings. Reading Teacher, 32, 403 - 408.

Sargent, R. R. (1981). Resource teachers time utilization: An observational study. Exceptional Children, 47, 420 - 425.

Savage, D. G. (1987). Why Chapter I hasn't made much difference. Phi Delta Kappan, 68, 581 - 584.

Seigler, H. G. & Gynther, M. D. (1960, Autumn). Reading ability of children and family harmony. Journal of Developmental Reading, 4, 17 - 24.

Senacore, J. (1990, Fall). Independent reading for remedial and at-risk students: The principal can make a difference. Reading research and instruction, 30(1), 59 - 65.

Shanahan, T. (1988). The reading-writing relationship: Seven principles for instruction. The Reading Teacher, 41, 636 - 647.

Sharp. P. A. (1984, November). Teaching with picture books throughout the curriculum. The Reading Teacher, 38(2), 132 - 137.

Shavelson, R. J. (1981). Statistical reasoning for the behavioral sciences. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Shepard, L. & Smith, M. (1985). Boulder Valley kindergarten study: Retention practices and prevention efforts. Boulder: University of Colorado, Laboratory of Educational Research.

Sheridan, S. (1986). Reading acquisition versus reading learning. The Reading Teacher, 39, 500 - 503.

Sherman, B. W. (1979, November). Reading for meaning. Learning, 41 - 44.

Shor, I. & Friere, P. (1987). A pedagogy for liberation: Dialogues on transforming education. South Hadley: Bergin & Garvey.

Singer, M. (1990). Responding to intimacies and crises in students' journals. English Journal, 79(5), 72 - 75.

Slavin, R. E. & Madden, N. A. (1989), February). What works for students at risk: A research synthesis. Educational Leadership, 46(5), 4 - 13.

Slavin, R. E., Madden, N. A., Karweit, N. L. , Dolan, L. J. & Wasik, B. A. (1991). Research directions: Success for all. Ending reading failure from the beginning. Language Arts, 68, 404 - 409.

Smith, F. (1973). Psycholinguistics and reading. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winstorn.

Smith, F. (1979). Reading without nonsense. New York: Teachers' College, Columbia University.

Smith, F. (1983, May). Reading like a writer. Language Arts, 60, 558 - 567.

Smith, F. (1988). Understanding reading, 4th. Ed. Hillsdale, NJ: Laurence Erlbaum.

Smith, J. P. (1983, March). Writing in a remedial reading program: A case study. Language Arts, 59(3), 245 - 250.

Smith, M. C. (1990, Spring). The development and use of an instrument for assessing adults' attitudes toward reading. Journal of Research and Development in education, 23(3), 156 - 161.

Smith, R. J. & Barrett, J. C. (1974). Teaching reading in the middle grades. Reading , MA: Addison-Wesley.

Spache, G. D. (1974). Good reading for poor readers, 9th. Ed. Champaign, IL: Gerrard.

Spatz, C. & Johnson, J. O. (1981). Basic statistics: Tales of distributions, 2nd. Ed. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

Spiro, R. (1980). Accommodative reconstruction in prose recall. Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior, 19, 84 - 95.

Spradley, J. P. (1980). Participant observation. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Squire, J. R. (1969, April) What does research in reading reveal about attitudes toward reading. English Journal, 58, 523 - 533.

Staab, C. F. (1990). Teacher mediation in one whole literacy classroom. The Reading Teacher, 43(8), 548 - 552.

Stanovich, K. E. (1986). Cognitive processes and the reading problems of learning-disabled children: Evaluating the assumptions of specificity. In J. Torgesen & B. Wong (Eds.). Psychological and educational perspectives on learning disabilities. New York: Academic Press.

Staton, J. (1980). Writing and counselling: Using a dialogue journal. Language Arts, 57(5), 514 - 518.

Staton, J. (1988). ERIC/RCS Report: Dialogue journals. Language Arts, 65(2), 198 - 201.

Stauffer, G. S. (1980). The language experience approach to the teaching of reading, 2nd. Ed. New York: Harper & Row.

Sulzby, E. (1985). Kindergartners as writers and readers. In M. Farr (Ed.). Advances in writing research, Vol. 1: Children's early writing development. Norwod, NJ: ABLEX.

Thorn, E. A. (1974). Integration of the langauge arts and the prevention of disability in beginning reading. Manitoba Journal of Education.

Thorndike, E. (1917). Reading as reasoning: A study of mistakes in paragraph reading. Journal of Educational Psychology, 8, 323 - 332.

Tierney, R. J. & Pearson, D. D. (1983, May). Towards a composing model of reading. Language Arts, 60, 568 - 580.

Trelease, J. (1989, December). Reading aloud to children. The Reading Teacher, 43(3), 200 - 206.

Tunnell, M. O., Calder, J. E. & Justen III, J. E. (1988). A short form reading attitude survey. Reading Improvement, 25(2), 146 - 151.

Tunnell, M. O. & Jacobs, J. S. (1989, March). Using "real" books: Research findings on literature based reading instruction. The Reading Teacher, 42, 470 - 477.

Vacca, R. V. & Johns, J. (1976). R. S., + S2 + ... Sn. Reading Teacher, 17, 9 - 13.

Vacca, R. T. & Vacca, J. A. L. (1981, March). Functional reading in competency programs. Journal of Reading, 24(6), 512 - 515.

Veatch, J. (1985). How to teach reading with children's books. New York: Owen.

Vygotsky, L. (1962). Thought and language. Cambridge: MIT Press.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). Mind in society. Cambridge: MIT Press.

Walberg, H. J. , Strykowski, B. E., Roval, E. & Hung, S. S. (1984). Exceptional performance. Review of Educational Research, 54, 87 - 112.

Walmsley, O. A. & Walp, T. P. (1990, January). Integrating literature and composing into the language arts curriculum: Philosophy and practice. The Elementary School Journal, 90(3), 251 - 274.

Weber, K. J. (1974). Yes, they can!. Toronto: Methuen.

Wedman, J. M. & Robinson, R. (1989, Spring). A survey of diagnostic/corrective reading instruction and practices in relation to the interactive reading process. Reading Horizons, 29(3), 167 - 175.

Wehlage, G. G., Rut*er, R. A. & Turnbaugh, A. (1987). A program model for at-risk high school students. Educational Leadership, 44, 70 - 73.

Weiss, M. J. (1975). Understanding the role of the teacher of readers. Theory Into Practice, 14(3), 173 - 178.

Weissman, J. (1982, February). On teaching the learning disabled: A practical viewpoint. English Journal, 71(2), 49 - 51.

Wilson. R. M. & Hall, M. (1972). Reading and the elementary school child: Theory and practice for teachers. New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold.

Woods, P. (1986). Inside schools: Ethnography in educational research. New York: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Worzel, R. (1991, Tuesday, September 3). Time to take off the blindfolds. The Globe & Mail, (p.8)

APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1 - 1

An Example of a Group-dictated Language Experience Story

SPRING COMES TO THE HARBOUR[1]

Spring is here!

People are going out sealing. There are lots of seals right out on the harbour ice. People get seals to sell. They also kill them to get meat to eat.

Birds are coming back from the South to make their nests. They look for something to eat.

The weather is dreadful in Spring. It rains for days and days. It is cold and foggy most of the time.

The snow is gradually melting. It is black and dirty. There was an awful lot of snow this winter.

It's nice to see Spring again.

In Spring, some people go down to Labrador to fish. They will be gone all summer. Some years, the fishing is very good. But, other years, it is poor and the fishermen don't earn very much money.

It is good to see Spring again.

The End

[1]The stimulus for this activity: Smith, E. (March, 1991). "Spring in Newfoundland". First Time Readers 1(3), p. 8. (First Time Readers is a supplement to The Pilot).

Skills Development Activities

1. Write the plurals of the following words: seal, nest, bird.
2. Find the words with meanings as follows:
   (a) to hunt for seals
   (b) homes for birds
   (c) thick mist
   (d) horrible
3. How many sentences are in this story?
4. How many paragraphs are in this story?
5. Write all of the nouns from your word list.
6. Write all of the verbs from your word list.
7. Write the root words of the following words: sealing, coming, going, dreadful, melting, foggy.

APPENDIX 1 - 2

Wordless Picture Books Utilized in the Study

DePaola, Tomie. (1978). Pancakes for breakfast. New York: Harcourt Brace.

Krahn, Fernando. (1976). Sebastian and the mushroom. New York: Delacorte Press.

Mayer, Mercer. (1967). A boy, a dog, and the frog. New York: Dial Press.

-----(1976). Ah-choo. New York: Dial Press.

-----(1977). Oops. New York: Dial Press.

Winter Paula. (1976). The bear and the fly. New York: Crown Publishers.

APPENDIX 1-3

Picture Books Used as Models for Writing

Briggs, Raymond. (1970). Jim and the Beanstalk. London: Hamish Hamilton.

Crauss, Ruth. (1945). The Carrot Seed. New York: Harper & Row

The Brothers Grimm. (1979). Hansel and Gretel. (E. Crawford, Trans.). New York: William Morrow.

Kipling, Rudyard. (1967). How the Leopard Got His Spots and Other Stories. New York: Grollier.

Lee, Jeanne M. (1982). Legend of the Milky Way. New York: Holt Rinehart & Winston.

Mayer Mercer. (1983). I Was So Mad. New York: Golden Press.

Parker, Ed. (1979). Jack and the Beanstalk. Mahwah, NJ: Troll Associates.

Southgate, Vera. Jack and the Beanstalk. Loughborough, Leicestershire: Ladybird Press. (Undated).

Wildsmith, Brian. (1966). The Hare and the Tortise. London: Oxford University Press. (Based on the fable by LaFontaine)

Wise Brown, Margaret. (1949). The Important Book. New York: Harper Trophy.

How Fire Came to the Indians

APPENDIX 1 - 4

A Sample Skeletal Poem

ME

I am _____
I feel sorry when _____
_____

Yesterday I _____
Tomorrow I'll ___ _____
But today _____

Being "Me" is _____
Because _____

I am "up" when _____
I am "down" when _____
I need _____
To keep _____
Without _____ I am _____
But with _____ I can _____

I am _____
_____

Cromley, Marcy. (1976). Skeltal poems: Effective techniques for affective teaching. Journal of Reading. 19 (4), 291 - 293.

APPENDIX 1 - 5

Picture Books Utilized in Teaching Analysis Elements of Literature

Exaggeration:

Stevenson, James. (1977). Could be worse. New York: Greenwillow Books.

Munsch, Robert. (1983). David's father. Toronto: Annick Press.

----- (1986). 50 below zero. Toronto: Annick Press.

Conflict (External):

Belov Gross, Ruth. (1974). Hansel and Gretel. New York: Scholastic.

Kellogg, Stephen. (1976). Much bigger than Martin. New York: Dial Press.

Munsch, Robert. (1985). Thomas' snowsuit. Toronto: Annick Press.

Conflict (Internal):

Disney Publishing. (1973). Pinocchio. New York: Random House.

Personification:

Silverstein, Shel. (1964). The giving tree. New York: Harper & Row.

Simile:

Shaw, Charles. (1947). It looked like spilt milk. New York: Harper & Row.

Irony:

Zemach, Harve. (1969). The judge. Toronto: Collins Publishers.

Mood:

Lionni, Leo. (1963). Swimmy. New York: Dragonfly Books.

Flashback:

Marshall, James. (1983). Rapscallion Jones. New York: Viking.

Plot:

Cumming, Petere. (1984). A horse called Farmer. Charlottetown: Ragweed Press.

Steig, William. (1982). Doctor DeSoto. New York: Sunburst.

Metaphor:

Belting, Natalie. (1962). The sun is a golden earring. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

APPENDIX 1 - 6

List of Novels and Related Books Utilized in the Study

Theme: The Arctic.

Key Novel:

Houston, James. (1977). Frozen fire. New York: Penguin Books.

Related Titles:

Craighead George, Jean. (1972). Julie of the wolves. Toronto: Fitzhenry & Whiteside.

Hoffman, Mary. (1987). Animals in the wild: Bear. Toronto: Scholastic.

Houston, James. (1965). Tikta'liktak: An Eskimo legend. New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc.

-----(1982). Long Claws: An Arctic adventure. Toronto: McClelland & Stewart.

Johnson, Annabul & Edgar. (1964). The grizzly. New York: Scholastic.

Marsh, Winnifred. (1983). People of the willow. Toronto: Oxford.

Metayer, father Maurice. (1975). Tales from the igloo. Edmonton: Hurtig.

Mowat, Farley. (1956). Two against the North. Toronto: Scholastic.

Munsch, Robert. (1988). A promise is a promise. Toronto: Annick Press.

Serrenty, Vincent. (1983). Animals of the wild: Penguin. Toronto: Scholastic.

Simon, Noel. (1985). Wolves. London: J. M. Dent.

Stonehouse, Bernard. (1982). Just look at... living at the poles. London: MacDonald & Co.

Harnden, Ruth. (1962). Trapped in the ice. Toronto: Scholastic.

Theme: Owls.

Key Novel:

Mowat, Farley. (1961). Owls in the family. Toronto: Little, Brown and Company.

Related Titles:

Angell, tony. (1974). Owls. Bellingham: University of Washington Press.

Brady, Irene. (1974). Owlet, the great horned owl. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Cochrane, Oral. (1986). The great horned owl. Steinbach, Manitoba: Derksen Printers.

Kalman, Bobbie. (1987). Owls. Toronto: Crabtree.

Macarthur-Onslow, annette. (1969). Uhn. Sydney: Ure Smith.

Mckeever, Katherine. (1984). Granny's Gang: Life with a most unusual family of owls. Toronto: Greey de Poncier Books.

Sadoway, Margaret Wheeler. (1981). Owls: Hunters of the night. Minneapolis: Lerner Publications.

Theme: Death.

Key Novel:

Hughes, Monica. (1982). Hunter in the dark. New York: Atheneum.

Related Titles:

Kadhol, Marit & Oyen, Wenche. (1987). Goodbye Rune. St. John's, NF: Breakwater.

Kennedy, Richard. 91976). Come again in the spring. New York: Harper & Row.

Kubler-Ross, Elizabeth. (1982). Remember the secret. Millbrae, CA: Celestial Arts.

Patterson, Katherine. (1977). Bridge to Terabithia. New York: Harber & Row.

Viorst, Judith. (1971). The tenth good thing about Barney. New York: MacMillan.

APPENDIX 1 - 7

Example Of a Choral Reading Exercise

Solo: He took a deep breath

All: as the panic subsided.

A: "Now? Mom, it's only nine-thirty,

B: and we've just ordered."

All: There was a silence at the other end.

A: "Mom, are you still there?"

B: "Yes." Her voice sounded brisk.

All: "I"m sorry. I wasn't thinking."

Solo: "Look, finish your pizza, and then come

All: right home, all right?"

Solo: "Sure, Mom ..."

Source:

Hughes, Monica. (1982). Hunter in the dark. New York: Atheneum.

P. 27.

APPENDIX 1 - 8

Sample Reading Log

Genre key: Story (St), Article (Art), Research (R)

Name: *Derrick S*

Genre	Author (Surname first)	Title	Today I Read (From page -- to page --)	Date
R	Hoffman, M.	Bear	1 - 9	Jan 24
R	Serventy, V.	Penguins	1 - 7	Jan 25
St	Houston, J.	Long Claw	1 - 7	Jan 31
St	"	"	8 - 15	Feb 1
St	Houston, J.	Frozen fire	80 - 85	Feb 7
St	Munch, R.	A Promise Is	1 - 15	Feb 9
St	Houston, J.	Frozen Fire	94 - 99	Feb 11

APPENDIX 1 - 9

Student Repeated Reading Record

REPEATED READING CHART

Name:_____ANDY_____ Date:__Feb. 16, 1991

Title of passage read: Transportation on Snow (A group-composed language experience story)

Readings	Miscues
1st	11
2nd	8
3rd	5
4th	1
5th	0
6th	.

Number of Times I Read

Reading Time

(Min: Sec.)

APPENDIX 1 - 10

Sample Writing Record

WRITING RECORD of

STUDENT: *John G.*

Topic	Genre	First Draft	Revised	Edited	Printed	Comments
Snow	Poem	Jan 18/91	-	x	x	Very reluctant writer. Poor spelling skills. Sentences too long. Poor structure. Insensitive to punctuation.
Polar Bears	Research	Jan 24	x	x	-	Short Piece. Grammar still very poor, but more concerned with spelling.
Me	Poem	Feb 1	x	x	x	Very concerned with neatness. Revised several times. Showed creativity.
Oops!	Children's story	Feb 12	x	x	x	Enjoyed this activity. Was very pleased with final draft. Decided to make a cover.
Why a Frog is Green	legend	Feb 27	x	x	x	Worked co-operatively with James. Worked well together. Exellent motivation. Very pleasing final draft. Spelling and grammar improved.
I Was So Mad	Children's Story	March 18	x	x	x	Asked if he might do this. Really enjoyed it. Came up with some really creative ideas.

APPENDIX 1 - 11

Sample Reading Record

Student: James B.

Date	Title	Conference Notes
Jan 10/91	Penguins	A very reluctant reader. Chose a simple picture book after making several trips to the bookshelf. Freely discussed photographs in the book. Points with finger and moves lips when reading.
Jan 30	The Grizzly	Read for 10 minutes today. Able to name main character, setting. Had good recall of what he read today. However, was unable to remember details from previous chapter. Said he likes this story.
Feb 20	Trapped in the Ice	Finished this today. Beginning to show a real interest in independent reading. Able to discuss character resourcefulness. Read words like "knowledge", "channel", "impractical". Is better able to use context in decoding words.
March 6	Burn Out	Has read several of these books (Paul Kropp series). Says he likes these because "the characters are cool". He said he liked Head Lock best. Often takes a book home to read now.

APPENDIX 1 - 12

Questions for Conferencing

1. Which part of this writing do you like best?
2. Are you having problems with this piece of writing? What are they?
3. Does your topic sentence "grab" your audience?
4. Do the paragraphs seem to be in the right order?
5. Does each paragraph stick to one topic?
6. Are there repetitions of words (especially 'and' and 'then')? Can some words or phrases be omitted?
7. Are some sentences too short? Can some sentences be combined?
8. Are there places where you may be able to use more interesting adjectives or verbs?
9. How do you feel about this piece of writing?
10. How do you feel about the ending? Does it end too quickly? Are there more details which you need to add?

(Adapted)

Source: Russell, Connie. (1983). Putting Research Into Practice: Conferencing with Young Writers. Language Arts. 60, 3. (333 - 340).

APPENDIX 3 - 1

Attitude Survey

Name:_____ Date:_____

Please respond to the following statements, using the key to help you decide which number reflects your feelings.

1.....Strongly agree
2.....Agree
3.....Cant't decide
4.....Disagree
5.....Strongly disagree.

1. When I have free time at school, I like to read a book.

1 2 3 4 5

2. I often check out library books.

1 2 3 4 5

3. I would rather read a book than watch TV.

1 2 3 4 5

4. I seldom read at home.

1 2 3 4 5

5. I really enjoy reading.

1 2 3 4 5

6. I would like to become a better reader.

1 2 3 4 5

7. Reading is my favourite school activity.

1 2 3 4 5

8. Most of the books in my classroom are not interesting.

1 2 3 4 5

9. I like to listen to a novel being read by the teacher.

1 2 3 4 5

10. I would rather look at pictures in my social studies book than read it.

1 2 3 4 5

11. I find my science text difficult to read on my own.

1 2 3 4 5

12. I understand what I read from my social studies text.

1 2 3 4 5

13. I would like to have lots of books to read at home.

1 2 3 4 5

14. I would rather read than go skidooing.

1 2 3 4 5

15. I enjoy reading aloud in social studies class.

1 2 3 4 5

16. I enjoy reading aloud in language arts class.

1 2 3 4 5

17. I feel happy when I am reading.

1 2 3 4 5

18. Being able to read well is very important.

1 2 3 4 5

19. Reading is a fun way to learn.

1 2 3 4 5

20. Reading is boring.

1 2 3 4 5

21. I may be able tc get a better job if I am a good reader.

1 2 3 4 5

22. Reading at school is a waste of time.

1 2 3 4 5

23. I would likt to join a book club.

1 2 3 4 5

24. I enjoy free reading in language arts class.

1 2 3 4 5

25. I would get better marks in all subjects if I could read better.

1 2 3 4 5

APPENDIX 3 - 2

Student Gain as Measured by Burns/Roe Informal Reading Survey

Student	Instructional levels pretest	posttest	Gain
1	4	6	+2
2	3	5	+2
3	2	3	+1
4	2	3	+1
5	5	7	+2
6	2	3	+1
7	2	4	+2
8	7	8	+1
9	3	4	+1
10	5	6	+1
11	P	2	+2
12	4	7	+3
13	6	8	+2
14	2	5	+3
15	2	3	+1
16	3	6	+3
17	4	6	+2
18	6	6	0
19	3	6	+3
Mean	3.4	5.2	+1.8

APPENDIX 3 - 3

Common Test Levels (Pretests and Posttests) on Burns/Roe

		Pretest				posttest				
S	L	Form A WR	Form A OC	Form B SC	AVC	Form A WPM	Form C WR	Form C OC	Form D SC	AVC	Form C WPM
1	4	96	75	75	75	83	99.5	95	85	90	137
2	4	94	70	75	72.5	72	99	100	85	92.5	93
3	3	92	50	60	55	81	98	85	75	80	113
4	3	87	70	50	60	71	96	95	80	87.5	80
5	6	96	85	65	75	82	99	100	100	100	129
6	3	94	65	60	62.5	70	98	100	80	90	96
7	4	85	60	30	45	47	94	90	85	87.5	89
8	8	94	45	50	47.5	90	97	75	75	75	96
9	4	87	50	60	55	38	96	100	80	90	66
10	6	85	60	65	62.5	32	99	75	80	77.5	39
11	2	93	50	75	62.5	61	99	75	100	100	84
12	5	97	25	40	33	61	99	80	85	82.5	95
13	7	96	40	60	50	65	96	75	80	77.5	79
14	3	93	30	40	35	57	99	90	85	87.5	83
15	3	96	80	60	70	52	96	90	80	85	51
16	5	93	50	40	45	85	98	80	90	85	86
17	6	96	70	65	67.5	95	97	80	90	85	104
18	8	98	85	80	82.5	53	100	95	90	92.5	61
19	4	94	50	70	60	94	99	100	90	95	101

Key: S = Student WR = Word Recognition OC = Oral Comprehension
SC = Silent Comprehension AVC = Average Comprehension
WPM = Words Per Minute

APPENDIX 3 - 4

Data for Burns/Roe Fast Level 3 Group

	PRETEST					POSTTEST				
S	WR	OC	SC	AVC	WPM	WR	OC	SC	AVC	WPM
3	92	50	60	55	81	98	85	75	80	113
4	87	70	50	60	71	96	95	80	87.5	80
6	94	65	60	62.5	70	98	100	80	90	96
14	93	30	40	35	57	99	90	85	87.5	83
15	96	80	60	70	52	96	90	80	85	51

Key: S = Student
WR = Word Recognition
OC = Oral Comprehension
AVC = Average Comprehension
WPM = Words per Minute
SC = Silent Comprehension

APPENDIX 3 - 5

Data for Burns/Roe Test Level Four Group

	PRETEST					POSTTEST				
S	WR	OC	SC	AVC	WPM	WR	OC	SC	AVC	WPM
1	96	75	75	75	83	99.5	95	85	90	137
2	94	70	75	72.5	72	99	100	85	92.5	93
7	85	60	30	45	47	94	90	85	87.5	89
9	87	50	60	55	38	96	100	80	90	66
19	94	50	70	60	94	99	100	90	95	101

Key: S = Student
WR = Word Recognition
OC = Oral Comprehension
AVC = Average Comprehension
WPM = Words per Minute
SC = Silent Comprehension

APPENDIX 3 - 6

Data for Burns/Roe Test Level Six Group

	PRETEST					POSTTEST				
S	WR	OC	SC	AVC	WPM	WR	OC	SC	AVC	WPM
5	96	85	65	75	82	99	100	100	100	129
10	85	60	65	62.5	32	99	75	80	77.5	39
17	96	70	65	67.5	95	97	80	90	85	104
18	98	85	80	82.5	53	100	95	90	92.5	61

Key: S = Student
WR = Word Recognition
OC = Oral Comprehension
AVC = Average Comprehension
WPM = Words per Minute
SC = Silent Comprehension

APPENDIX 3 - 7

Grade Equivalency Scores of Gates-MacGinitie Reading Comprehension Subtest

Student	Pretest Level E, Form 1	Posttest Level E, Form 2	Gain Score
1	2.7*	3.4	+0.7
2	5.4	6.3	+0.9
3	3.4	6.0	+2.6
4	3.7	5.1	+1.4
5	3.4	8.5	+5.1
6	3.4	5.4	+2.0
7	2.8	5.1	+2.3
8	5.8	8.3	+25
9	4.5	5.8	+1.3
10	4.5	5.1	+0.6
11	2.7*	2.9	+0.2
12	4.0	5.7	+1.7
13	4.0	6.3	+2.3
14	2.7*	3.9	+1.2
15	4.3	4.7	+0.4
16	3.1	4.7	+1.6
17	7.0	5.6	-1.4
18	4.7	6.3	+1.6
19	3.1	4.8	+1.1
Mean	4.0	5.5	+1.5

* The lowest grade equivalency measurably by this form of the test is 2.8. Since these students scored below 2.8, they were assigned a score of 2.7 for analysis purposes.

APPENDIX 3 - 8

Raw Scores for Vocabulary, Comprehension, and Total (Gates-MacGinitie)

Student	Vocabulary		Comprehension		Total Score	
	Form 1	Form 2	Form 1	Form 2	Form 1	Form 2
1	17	16	8	14	25	30
2	11	14	16	19	27	33
3	10	14	14	18	24	32
4	10	14	14	15	24	29
5	14	31	13	32	27	63
6	10	17	10	16	20	33
7	12	17	11	21	23	38
8	27	39	24	28	51	67
9	10	17	17	24	27	41
10	14	16	17	21	31	37
11	11	12	7	12	18	24
12	13	13	15	17	28	30
13	18	29	15	19	33	48
14	10	22	7	16	17	38
15	12	21	17	19	29	40
16	14	19	12	19	26	38
17	15	27	25	23	40	50
18	10	23	19	19	29	42
19	18	16	14	20	32	36
Mean	13.5	19.8	14.5	19.6	27.9	39.4
St.Dev.	4.3	7.2	4.9	4.8	7.8	11.0
Variance	18.3	51.3	24.3	22.6	60.2	122.0

APPENDIX 3 - 9

Grade Equivalency Scores on Vocabulary Subtests (Gates-MacGinitie)

Student	Pretest Form 1	Posttest Form 2	Gain Score
1	5.7	5.4	-0.3
2	3.7	4.8	+1.1
3	3.4	4.8	+1.4
4	3.4	4.8	+1.4
5	4.8	9.2	+4.4
6	3.6	5.7	+2.1
7	4.1	5.7	+1.6
8	8.1	11.7	+3.6
9	3.4	5.4	+2.0
10	4.7	5.4	+0.7
11	3.9	4.3	+0.4
12	4.5	4.5	0
13	6.0	8.6	+2.6
14	3.6	7.1	+3.5
15	4.3	6.8	+2.5
16	4.8	6.3	+1.5
17	5.0	8.1	+3.1
18	3.6	7.3	+3.0
19	5.8	5.4	-0.4
Mean	4.5	6.4	+1.9

APPENDIX 3 - 10

Raw Scores on Attitude Survey

Minimum Possible Score = 25; Maximum Possible Score = 125

Student	Pretest	Posttest	Gain
1	35	71	36
2	50	71	21
3	73	78	5
4	50	60	10
5	60	64	4
6	60	55	-5
7	45	57	12
8	60	77	17
9	61	61	0
10	63	78	15
11	41	65	24
12	53	54	1
13	74	87	13
14	57	71	14
15	56	79	23
16	61	66	5
17	105	111	6
18	68	68	0
19	59	67	8
Mean	59.5	70.5	11
St.Dev.	14.8	13.2	
Variance	219.3	174.9	

APPENDIX 3 - 11

Related Gain Scores (Gates-MacGinitie and Attitudes Survey)

Student	Gates-MacGinite Vocab	Comp	Total	Attitude Survey Pre	Post	Gain
1	-1	6	5	35	71	6
2	3	3	6	50	71	2
3	4	4	8	73	78	5
4	4	1	5	50	60	0
5	17	19	36	60	64	4
6	7	6	13	60	55	5
7	5	10	15	45	57	3
8	12	4	16	60	77	7
9	7	7	14	61	61	0
10	2	4	6	63	78	5
11	1	5	6	41	65	4
12	0	2	2	53	54	1
13	11	4	15	74	87	3
14	12	9	21	57	71	4
15	9	2	11	56	79	2
16	5	7	12	61	66	5
17	12	-2	10	105	111	6
18	13	0	13	68	68	0
19	-2	6	4	59	67	8

APPENDIX 3 - 12

Raw Pre and Post Scores and Gain Scores for Gates MacGinitie Tests and Attitude Survey

ST	V1	V2	V3	V4	V5	V6	V7	V8	V9	V10	V11	V12
1	7	16	8	14	25	30	-1	6	5	35	71	36
2	11	14	16	19	27	33	3	3	6	50	71	21
3	10	14	14	18	24	32	4	4	8	73	78	5
4	10	14	14	15	24	29	4	1	5	50	60	10
5	14	31	13	32	27	63	17	19	36	60	64	4
6	10	17	10	16	20	33	7	6	13	60	55	-5
7	12	17	11	21	23	38	5	10	15	60	77	17
8	27	39	24	28	51	67	12	4	16	60	77	17
9	10	17	17	24	27	41	7	7	14	61	61	0
10	14	16	17	21	31	37	2	4	6	63	78	15
11	11	12	7	12	18	24	1	5	6	41	65	24
12	13	13	15	17	28	30	0	2	2	53	54	1
13	18	29	15	19	33	48	11	4	15	74	87	13
14	10	22	7	16	17	38	22	9	21	57	71	14
15	12	21	17	19	29	40	9	2	11	56	79	23
16	14	19	12	19	26	38	5	7	12	61	66	5
17	15	27	25	23	40	50	12	-2	10	105	111	6
18	10	23	19	19	29	42	13	0	13	68	68	0
19	18	16	14	20	32	36	-2	6	4	59	67	8
Mean	13.5	19.8	14.5	19.6	28.0	39.4	6.4	5.1	11.5	59.5	70.5	11
S.D.	4.3	7.2	5.0	4.8	7.8	11.0	5.3	4.5	7.8	14.8	13.2	10.2
VAR	18.3	51.3	24.4	22.6	60.2	122.0	29.0	20.2	60.2	219.3	174.8	103.2

Key:

ST: Student
V1: Vocabulary Form 1
V2: Vocabulary Form 2
V3: Comprehension Form 1
V4: Comprehension Form 2
V5: Total Raw Form 1
V6: Total Raw Form 2
V7: Vocabulary Gain
V8: Comprehension Gain
V9: Total Gain
V10: Pre Attitude Score
V11: Post Attitude Score
V12: Attitude Gain

APPENDIX 3 - 13

The Students: Individual Case Studies

Student 1: Tony, age 15.

Tony was an eighth grade repeater. Although well-dressed and clean in appearance, it was important to him that he maintain an air of "toughness" to demonstrate his strength. His shaved haircut, dangling earring, and black leather jacket served to maintain this image. He had been on the basketball team earlier in the year but was kicked off because of aggressive behaviour and foul language.

Tony's poor attitude about school was evident on the first day of class. He sauntered into the classroom five minutes late, slung his books on the table, and demanded that David (another student) get up from "my chair". He muttered something about the fact that he shouldn't be in this class, anyway, because "I don't need no help. I do okay in other classes." According to reports from other teachers, Tony had been doing very little in school except "terrorizing other kids."

During the first month of class, Tony tried hard to impress on all of classmates his total lack of respect and utter contempt for them and for the activities they were involved in. He appeared to be very nervous most of the time, almost to the point of hyperactivity. His hands and feet were continually moving, often flicking one of the other students with a pencil, jumping up to open the window, shut the window, look out into the

corridor, or just to go for a walk. He would deliberately attempt a confrontation in the hope of being sent outside the classroom, as was his habit with other teachers. Thus, he would be free of a stressful situation-that of being expected to perform tasks at which he had already failed so many times before. He was generally very disruptive, especially during reading time, several times commenting that he hated "listening to that ole novel." The other students in his group would become upset with him, especially if they were forced to stop reading or to end a game they might be playing.

During this time Tony did very little reading or writing. A typical journal entry, if he attempted anything, was often one scrawled, defiant sentence, "I hates school and I hates all teachers." He read very little during SSR time and refused to keep a log as other students were doing.

One day he walked into the classroom, tore up his journal and declared he was "doin' no work today." In the past, patience had been tried with Tony in an effort to avoid confrontation. However, at this point, something else had to be done. He was told to go immediately to the principal's office. He got up, grinned, and said, "You're finally goin' to kick me out." At the office a chair was placed outside the principal's door, and Tony was told to sit on it until someone came for him. He received no reprimand and no report was filed. However, the principal had previously been made aware of this problem and of what had

been planned in the event that it became necessary to remove Tony from the classroom.

After class, during a discussion, the teacher asked him, "Is it me that you dislike so much?" He appeared surprised at this question and said, "No, Miss. Tis not you. I don't know what's wrong with me." He also mentioned, during the course of the discussion, that he had a social studies test later that day. It became obvious that he was experiencing some anxiety about this.

The following day Tony breezed into class and asked if the class might play a game today. Their writing assignment for that day happened to be a poem. They had been discussing individuality as part of a novel they had been reading. A model for the poem was presented to the class, and they were given a skeletal outline to work with. The following is a copy of what Tony wrote that day:

I am often in a bad mood.
I feel sorry when teachers
tell me off.
Yesterday I had a test.
Tomorrow I'll get it back.
But today I'll just have to wait.
Being "me" is good because
I do what I want.
I am "up" when I pass.
I am "down" when I fail my test.
I need help at my homework
to keep my grades up.
Without help I am going to
fail this year.
But with help I can pass.
I am ME! Who are YOU?
by Tony

Tony used the word processor to type the poem and the final draft was printed and placed on the bulletin board. He was obviously quite pleased with the final product.

Several times throughout the term, Tony would put himself down with comments such as, "I'm stupid!" or "I can't do nothin' right." It became clear that Tony wasn't as "tough" as he would like one to believe. He was just turned off from school, distrust of teachers keeping him alienated from that which had caused him so much stress. His self-confidence had been eroded to the point where he had given up, his aggressive behaviour serving as a cloak to hide his feelings of inferiority and insecurity.

Progress, in Tony's formative years, may have been impeded by conditions within his personal environment, such as lack of support from parents and teachers. As time passed, a growing distaste developed for reading and writing because he was not experiencing success in the area. Increased anxiety and expectation of failure may have led to him developing a defensive attitude about his lack of success. Compensatory behaviours, such as aggressiveness and avoidance tactics have all served as obstacles to progress for him.

Tony did not become a model student during the course of this program. His attitude toward reading did improve, however (see Appendix 3 - 10), and his reading scores increased by two grade levels (see Appendix 3 - 2). He brought a new exercise book, started a new journal, and wrote almost every day. His other writings included several poems,

several short stories, as well as a longer story for children. He also cooperated with another student to write a fairy tale - a modified version of "Jack and the Beanstalk".

At the end of the year Tony, who had never before sang in public, asked if he might sing at the final assembly. The song he choose was one by his favourite rock band, REM. The song was "Loosing my Religion". He was very pleased when the audience clapped loudly, and has decide that next year he would like to join the school's guitar club.

Student 2: Gary, age 14.

Gary was an eighth grade student with a history of failure. His regular-class teachers had referred him for remedial reading because he was unable to function in the regular classes. Gary was a quiet boy, small for his age, with red hair and freckles, and with an impish grin that belied his sombre nature.

Pretesting showed that Gary was reading at a third grade level (See Appendix 3 - 2). He had never attempted to read a novel on his own, saying "It don't make sense when I read it." Journal entries were short - usually not more than one or two sentences and, generally, were repetitions of previous entries. Gary's spelling was poor; his punctuation was often nonexistent or in error; and his sentences tended to be short and choppy.

Gary's main interest was hockey. He often spoke about playing street hockey or ice hockey with his friends, depending on the season, and

about the hockey games on TV. Thus, he enjoyed activities related to that sport. A major piece of writing for him was a research paper on the Montreal Canadiens for which he garnered information from newspapers, sports magazines, and hockey cards. He began to write longer journal entries and to include more detail from the information that he had been collecting. Much of the information he had already been aware of, but he had found it difficult to write it down because of his poor spelling and his poor syntax and sentence construction skills. After hearing his journal entries read by the teacher, and after reading it aloud himself, he became better at recognizing how words look (i.e. word shape, letter sequencing, and proper spelling) and at synthesizing his information.

Gary's other writing during the program included several poems, several short stories, a "rewritten" fairy tale, and a written opinion: "I think that the Montreal Canadiens will win the Stanley Cup this year because..."

Word games such as Scrabble, Spill and Spell, and Hangman also helped Gary improve his spelling.

Posttesting, after the five month program, showed Gary to be functioning at a fifth grade reading level (See Appendix 3 - 2).

Student 3: John, age 14.

John was repeating the seventh grade. He had been referred to the remedial unit by his regular-class teachers because he was "failing everything" and "making no effort" in his regular classes.

When John was asked to make a list of his favourite rock bands and songs during the first week of remedial class, he wasn't able, or chose not, to list any. He said that he didn't remember any titles. John appeared very insecure, manifested by his frequent "giggling" episodes in class. He seldom concentrated on what he was supposed to be doing. For example, during SSR time, he spent a great deal of time just looking around at the other students, trying to catch someone's interest, then clowning to try and hold their attention. This behaviour, as appeared obvious from the beginning of the term, was being used as an avoidance tactic in an effort to evade an activity which he disliked. Fear of failure prevented John from making any real effort.

At the beginning of the term, John's approximate reading level was low grade two (See Appendix 3 - 2). His journal entries consisted of practically indescipherable sentences. His spelling was highly unstandard and his handwriting was hardly legible. An early example of John's writing follows:

On the wek-end I did go up in caben. and left weats - went in the road.

Translation: On the weekend, I went to the cabin. I lifted weights and went for a walk on the road.

John didn't work well independently. He complained that he needed assistance with spelling and that reading was "too hard . However, he did enjoy listening to stories being read and he had excellent recall of what he had heard read.

The use of language experience activities worked well with John, seeming to give him confidence in his own ability to read and write. He began to put more effort into his handwriting and "cooperative" pieces of writing were copied into his own notebook. While typing his own compositions, utilizing computer and word processor, he became very concerned with such skills as spelling and paragraphing. If unsure, he would take the time to refer to his personal word lists or ask another student or the teacher for assistance.

As John began to experience success in his writing, he also began to read short stories and short novels from the Sprint Reading program. He was very careful to keep an account of readings in his personal daily log. Also, John's behaviour improved noticeably toward the end of the term. He no longer tried to find something to giggle about and he began to talk about what he was doing in his other classes. If he had a test scheduled, he would want to talk about it and he began to ask for assistance with some concept that he didn't understand.

In early June, John came to class one day and said "Miss, I got my Social Studies test back." When asked how he did, he smiled and said "sixty seven percent." He was obviously very pleased that he had, finally, "passed" a test. Before he left the classroom on that occasion he asked "Do you want to see my test?" and he left it on the teacher's table.

During the final weeks of school, John worked diligently, saying that he really wanted to pass this year. His other teachers were very pleased with his change in attitude and in work habits.

During the five-month term John's reading level increased by two years (See Appendix 3 - 2) and his spelling and writing skills showed marked improvement. But, most importantly, his confidence about his own ability to succeed developed and, seemingly, as a consequence, his attitude regarding school and about reading increased concomitantly. It appears that the stage has been set for success in the eighth grade.

Student 4: Andy, age 15.

Andy was an eighth grade student with significant delays in language development (expressive, receptive, and reading skills) and with a history of school failure. His ability to recall how words look was very poor. During the first class period, he asked how to spell such words as "James" (his own middle name), "Black" (his regular class teacher's family name), and "gym." His reading fluency was very poor, with word-by-word reading his only skill. He had already been seeing the speech pathologist regularly for about a year.

Andy's journal entries were often indecipherable. He was embarrassed at not being able to spell simple words and, when given assistance, attempted to hide his lack of skill with remarks such as "I knew that!" or "That's what I had first!"

Andy had also been experiencing severe headaches, diagnosed as "migraines". It is suspected that these headaches may have been symptomatic of school-induced stress.

At the beginning of the program, it was necessary to discuss with Andy the results of some of the assessment that had been carried out during the first few days of the term. This was to show him what some of his problems were and to help him understand that his problems did not mean that he was "stupid", a term that he frequently applied to himself, but that his problems had a "medical" explanation. Then, he received an explanation of why it was important to do activities such as writing, language experience stories, repeated readings, and the use of games such as Scrabble. These activities helped Andy improve his spelling and his reading fluency. Andy really enjoyed listening to, and had excellent comprehension of, the frequent stories that the teacher read to him.

Because Andy's problems were so acute, progress was very slow. His inability to progress or to finish a writing activity as quickly as some of the others often caused him to become quite frustrated and discouraged. He often erased and rewrote a sentence as many as three times. After he had read his efforts, he would realize that several words were left out, that word spellings were reversed, or that words were written in the incorrect order.

As with most of the remedial students, Andy's self-esteem was very low. A poem, which he composed about mid-term, follows:

I am dumb.
I feel sorry when I
fail a test.
Yesterday I failed.
Tomorrow I hope I'll pass.
But today I'm in my
house studying.
Being "me" is hard work
Because I'm dumb.

Andy really enjoyed using the computer for his writing activities. He expressed his pleasure at seeing a poem printed out and looking "like one in a book." He started spending more and more time at the computer composing with the word processor, often staying to finish even after the dismissal bell had gone. He was afraid that something "might get lost" if he didn't get a hard copy of his composition before turning off the computer. He didn't trust the computer's SAVE function to faithfully preserve his efforts.

Andy's spelling is still in need of much improvement. But, progress has been steady, even if slow. Strategies such as having him write his tests, such as in social studies and science, in the remedial classroom, where he can be assisted with his spelling and with reading the test questions, have resulted in improved scores in content area subjects. This has given him much satisfaction.

Content area tests had been a source of continuing frustration for Andy, who so aptly explained once "I hates it because I knows what the answers is but I can't get it down".

Andy was very pleased, during a repeated reading exercise, when he managed to audio-tape himself reading a 125 word passage in 122 seconds, without any miscues, on a fourth reading. His first effort at reading the passage had taken 200 seconds and contained 11 miscues.

Student 5: Larry, age 16.

Larry was a ninth grade student who was referred for remedial assistance by his regular-class teachers because he refused to do anything in any of his classes, and because he was a discipline problem. He was a sullen boy with an unkempt appearance - long straggly hair and rather dirty blue jeans.

While working on a questionnaire, during the second class period of the program, Larry asked to spell "Norman", his own middle name, and "Lester", the first name of one of his regular class teachers. When he was asked to read aloud, he asked "Do I have to? I hates to read out loud!" But, he did read, in a slow, faltering voice, word-by-torturous-word. It was determined by his assessments that his reading competency was at the fifth grade level.

Larry was very quiet, during the first weeks of the program, speaking only if directly spoken to or if asked a direct question. His writing indicated a very low vocabulary level, poor spelling, and poor sentence structure. His writing efforts were characterized by underdeveloped themes and very limited detail.

During the first week of classes, Larry explained that he hadn't done any writing at all during the previous year. When asked why this was so, he shrugged and responded "Couldn't do it!" On some days, Larry appeared to be very depressed and would not respond even when directly addressed. He would simply fold his arms, sit in his chair, and stare directly ahead. It was several weeks into the first novel (shared reading) before he began to exhibit any interest. He seldom responded during class discussion, and he answered direct questions with a minimum of words, showing no emotion. He also refused to show any personal feeling in his writing. His journal entries sometimes described a personal experience, but never how he felt about the experience.

Then, suddenly, Larry began to ask "Can we read today?" Frequently, after a shared reading session was completed, he would ask if the teacher would "... read a little more - just to see what happens next?" Then, he began to finish chapters independently during SSR time.

For the first weeks of the program, Larry read very little, independently, saying "I hates to read. I can't read! It was in the second month of the program before he consented to engage in silent reading for a ten minute period.

One day, Larry was shown some Canadian Geographic magazines. One magazine had an article about the Canadian north. At the time, the class was reading Frozen Fire, a novel set in the Canadian North. He read it and found it quite interesting.

Because Larry enjoys hunting and being in the woods, he related to the novels Frozen Fire, by James Houston, and Hunter in the Dark, by Monica Hughes. His recall of story events was excellent. He gradually began to contribute to class discussions and even to give his opinions. One day, for example, as a writing exercise related to Hunter in the Dark, he was asked to give his opinion about a comment made by one of the novel's characters: "Life isn't fair, Mike, or unfair. It just is. It's a gift whether it's long or short. Perhaps, it's the way we live, the quality of our life, that counts, rather than the quantity" (P. 78).

Larry mulled it over for some time and it took him three class periods to write his response. But, he finally completed it. He was still very reluctant to give his opinions; he had so little self-confidence!

At the first staff-meeting, teachers were discussing a student that was causing some serious problems in their classes. He was being sent out of class for "talking back" to teachers, and for disrupting class. It wasn't until the name "Larry" was mentioned, that his remedial teacher realized who was being discussed. She couldn't believe it because this was the same Larry that was coming to remedial class. Other than on his "quiet" days, he was very well behaved. A few days later, a colleague walked into the remedial classroom and noticed Larry writing busily. That teacher said that he couldn't believe it when Larry raised his hand and asked "Miss, can you come here for a minute, please? I need help."

The teacher asked "Larry, how come you don't act this way in your other classes? How come you don't get along with your other teachers?"

Larry responded "I don't like the way they talk to me! When they talk to me right, I'll talk to them right."

Over the next several months, Larry read two (short) novels, magazine articles, short stories, and comic books. He wrote two book reports dealing with literary elements such as flashback, simile, characterization, plot, setting, theme, suspense, and metaphor. He wrote a children's story, using a familiar children's book as a model, as well as a legend and several poems.

Much of Larry's writing was composed on the computer, and by May, there was noticeable improvement in his spelling and in the general quality of his writing. One day, while writing about Hunter in the Dark, for example, he said "I like the way the author uses flashbacks. They are important to the story because if they were not used, the reader wouldn't know much about Mike's background. I also like the way the author makes the characters seem like real people. Mike and Doug seem real to me - as if I know them."

While writing in his journal, Larry was using words such as 'leukaemia,' 'characters,' 'symptoms,' etc. When he had trouble with spelling, he would go to a dictionary or he would refer to the novel.

On the last day of school, his remedial teacher was leaving the building about twenty minutes after the dismissal bell. Most of the

students had already vacated the building. The teacher was surprised to find that Larry hadn't left since his bus had already gone.

His teacher said to him "Why, Larry, how come you haven't gone on your bus?"

Larry smiled and said "I couldn't leave until I saw you, now!"

When his teacher asked him if he planned to return to school in September, he said "Yeah. I think I'll be back."

Larry was a lonely, shy, and sensitive boy. His remedial teacher thought she saw his need to be treated as a person, with respect - instead of being 'spoken down to' or ignored because he happened not to be as successful as some of the other students.

Larry responded well to that approach - and to that respect.

Student 6: David, age 15.

David was repeating the seventh grade. He was a small, pale, thin boy with long, dirty hair and tired-looking eyes. His attendance at school was sporadic. He often arrived at school on the morning bus, only to leave again before the first class bell, saying that he had "... a headache" or that he had "... to go to the clinic."

Pretesting results indicated that David had an independent reading level of grade two (See Appendix 3 - 2). His writing skills were very poor, and he disliked reading and writing because he'd had so few successful experiences.

David enjoyed "rabbit hunting" and "going in the woods with Dad". Thus, language experience stories were composed related to these topics. He was also encouraged to write about his personal experiences in his daily journal.

David really enjoyed listening to Frozen Fire, being able to relate to some of the experiences of the main characters. Summaries of what had happened in each chapter were also a source of writing inspiration for him. His recall of events from the story was good.

As the class progressed through the novel, David began attending class with a little more regularity. He liked to use the computer for some of his writing, and this also served as an incentive for him to come to class.

David needed lots of support and encouragement. During his schooling experience, he had failed so many times, at so many things that, for him, success was something unattainable, ambition unknown. He often said "I know I won't pass. I'm too dumb."

When some of his strengths were pointed out, such as how well he could recall and write about a novel he was reading with his teacher, he would say "Yeah. That stuff is easy. I can't do anything in the other classes."

Posttesting showed that David was reading at the third grade level (See Appendix 3 - 2).

David still has a lot of problems, self-perceptive and academic. However, if can be persuaded to attend class regularly, David, too, is able to experience success.

Student 7: Peter, age 14.

Peter was repeating the seventh grade. His main interests in life are going out in the woods in the winter, and going fishing with his father in the spring and summer. A quiet, reserved boy, Peter expected, and received, little from school. His attendance was sporadic, and when he was in class, he usually sat and day-dreamed until it was time to go home. He was generally very co-operative and friendly but appeared to have no intention of reading or "doing work" in school. He would cheerfully spend all day toting cartons of books from classrooms to the storage room, tidying up the classroom, or stacking chairs in the gymnasium. However, given a pencil and some paper, Peter suddenly became quite helpless, declaring that he was "too tired" to work.

Pretesting showed Peter's independent reading skills to be at the second grade level (See Appendix 3 - 2). His writing ability was, likewise, very low. He had difficulty with spelling such common words as "there" (thir), ""they" (thay), "like" (lik), "blue" (blu), and "done" (don).

Peter's attitude about school was very poor. Like most of the other remedial students, he viewed school as being unimportant to him and

having little meaning in his daily life. He considered going to school a "waste of time," and reading and writing as "junk".

Because Peter had such low confidence in his ability to succeed, he was very reluctant to try. One way to avoid failure, in Peter's view, was to avoid doing anything. Thus, he made no attempt.

As the class began to get into the novel Frozen Fire, Peter began to enjoy it more and more, empathizing with the plight of the novel's characters when their snowmobile broke down and they were forced to walk. (Peter had had similar experiences: his snowmobile had also broken down!) He actively participated in cooperative langauge experience stories and didn't mind re-reading and re-writing or engaging in activities utilizing his key words because, he said, "This is easy stuff".

Peter thoroughly enjoyed listening to novels, and he liked to write responses to what he had heard. His daily journal entries became longer as his vocabulary increased and as he felt more confident with spelling. He enjoyed typing with the computer and he wanted to use it for all of his compositions.

In May, Peter completed his longest piece of writing up to that time - a two-page composition on *Friendship*. This achievement had taken him more than a week to do. He wanted to change several parts after reading the first draft because he decided that some of the sentences "didn't make sense". After the final draft came off the printer, he was very pleased with his success.

Peter's sentence structure was now quite good, and his writing also showed creativity. For example: "I like going in the woods with my friends. It's good eating moose and bread and tea at the cabin."

Peter began to attend school - and class - more regularly, and he developed a real interest in writing. During the final month of school, he wrote several stories and poems. His spelling was still poor. But, here, too, he had improved markedly. His reading scores had increased by two grade levels during the five month program, according to his reading posttest (See Appendix 3 - 2). Also, his homeroom teacher commented several times on his attitude change.

Student 8: Don, Age 14.

Don was a ninth grade student referred to the remedial unit because he was "doing nothing in any of his classes."

Lines from a poem that Don wrote mid-way through the program:

> Being me is not good
> I am stun.

Don had very poor writing skills and at the beginning of the program and would write only a few words in his journal entries. For example, as one entry in his daily journal, he wrote "Today is Friday." He also had very poor spelling, especially with word endings, contractions, and non-phonetically spelled words. However, just because Don was a poor writer didn't mean that he was unintelligent. His comprehension was excellent and he knew the meaning of many words even though he was unable to write

them - words such as 'adapt,' 'effective,' 'quality,' 'focus,' and 'relevant.'

Don appeared to be "carrying a very large chip on his shoulder" accompanied by a very poor attitude toward school. He kept creating excuses for not having finished assignments from other classes. His other teachers reported incidents of swearing in their classrooms and of his skipping class.

Pretesting showed Don's reading and comprehension skills to be at the seventh grade level (See Appendix 3 - 2). In comparison with the other students assigned to the remedial unit, his skills were not low. His greatest difficulty, however, was with written language skills, which were not formally assessed for this study. Don was able to recall words that were written and was able to use context effectively in decoding words. However, he had much more difficulty recalling how to write words.

It appeared that he program might not work for Don because of his attitude that this was "kids' stuff." During shared reading time, he often ignored the remainder of the class and he would pick up a magazine and go sit by himself to read.

Don's family owns a small games arcade and corner store, where local teens 'hang out' at night. Don reported that he was in charge of this facility, often citing this as a reason for not having his homework completed.

Don gradually began to pay attention during reading time and he began to join the group. After he became 'involved' in what the class was reading, he took the book with him to read on his own. He was soon ahead of the remainder of the group and he felt pleased when he was able to summarize before the others could.

After finishing his first poem and printing it with the computer, Don began to put more effort into his writing. He still disliked having to edit anything. That activity was "foolishness" to him. However, he was pleased when his work was placed on the bulletin board.

Posttesting showed Don's reading scores to have increased by one grade level during the five month program (See Appendix 3 - 2). He is still reading two years below grade level. If Don maintains his momentum, it is expected that he will be doing average grade-level work within a few months into the new school term.

Student 9: Derrick, age 15.

Derrick was an eighth-grade student who had completely given up on school and, seemingly, on himself. He was making absolutely no effort in any of his classes and he appeared not to care whether he succeeded or not. He usually came in the classroom, sat down, folded his arms, and stared straight ahead. He rarely smiled and spoke only to respond to a question, which he answered in as few words as possible.

Pretesting showed Derrick's reading level to be grade three (See Appendix 3 - 2), accompanied by a poor attitude toward reading and toward

school. He exhibited extremely poor writing skills, and his spelling skills were very low with words like 'friend' (frand), and 'want' (whint) causing great problems for him.

Derrick's reading was painfully slow. He read word-by-painful-word, pointing to each word with a finger. He was unable to recall much of what he had read because much of the meaning would be lost during the effort of decoding. His typing, on the computer keyboard, was also slow, as he timidly used only one finger to type. With much practice, however, Derrick's skills began to improve.

It was necessary to give Derrick lots of encouragement because his self-confidence had eroded to an extremely low level.

It took Derrick almost a week to complete and print his first poem, which began:

> I am Derrick.
> I feel sorry when someone
> gets hurt.

Derrick was really pleased when he was complimented on how well he had done. He wrote several more poems, a children's story, using a model, and several short stories, as well as a book report and daily journal writing.

Posttesting revealed that Derrick's reading score had increased by one grade level (See Appendix 3 - 2). However, there was no change in his score on the attitude instrument.

Student 10: Roger, Age 15.

Roger was an eighth grade student whose pre-test scores indicated that he was at a fifth-grade reading level. Roger was a very friendly boy, always co-operative in class, who would read quietly during SSR time. However, when questioned about what he was reading, he was able to recall very little.

Roger's listening recall was much better than his recall from independent reading and he was able to write short summaries of what was read. His spelling skills were very poor, as were his sentence structure and punctuation. Most of the standard writing conventions were absent from Roger's work. Examples of his spelling follow: 'yourself' (your salfe), 'said' (sead), 'answered' (anserd).

Conferencing with Roger showed that he was able to spell with greater facility if words were pronounced slowly for him. He was taught to do this for himself during his writing experiences. He engaged in word building by writing each syllable on a practice sheet, and then assembling and checking the whole word. Roger was given much practice by using many of the basic sight words in writing which encouraged automatic responding. Along with this, repeated readings helped him develop his fluency.

On posttesting, Roger's scores increased by one grade level (See Appendix 3 - 2).

An example of Roger's writing from near the end of the program follows:

WHAT HAVE I GOT?

ME.
Two dogs.
Three gold fish.
Four bright blue sweaters.
Five b/w t.v.s; one each.
Six shiny windows in my house.
Seven fat pigs that eat and eat.
Eight sheep on an island of grass land.
Nine ducks; two have grey feathers
and seven white.
Ten brown doors to shut tight, one
in every bedroom.

Student 11: Shawn, Age 14.

Shawn, in grade seven, was a haemophiliac who had spent a large portion of his life in hospitals. At the beginning of the program he was, practically, a non-reader. Teachers at his elementary school had informed the remedial teacher that Shawn just would not participate in class. He refused to read or write. On his first day of school, in Kindergarten, he announced to his teacher that he would be quitting school as soon as he became sixteen years old because his dad had said that he could. Apparently, he's been reaffirming that ambition each year since then.

Shawn's biggest thrill is "going out on the boat with Dad." One writing assignment, early in the term, was to select a certain animal, common to the local area, do a little research, and write about the information that they had gathered. Shawn didn't know which animal to choose. The teacher suggested the seal, about which he had been talking. He was relishing the anticipation of seeing seals on the coastal ice later on in the spring. He decided on the seal.

Shawn was asked to tell everything he knew about seals (which turned out to be quite a lot). The teacher wrote the information as the student dictated. Then the student was asked to read it. The teacher also read to Shawn from several books that he had selected after which he retold the information as the teacher wrote it down for him.

Shawn worked on a number of these langauge experience stories over the course of the program. He especially enjoyed typing his stories with the computer.

At the beginning of the term, Shawn refused to read or write. When the teacher discussed silent reading time (SSR) with the class, he said that he had never read a novel. When asked why, he responded "Can't read! Don't want to!"

The teacher asked him if he'd like to learn to read a novel. He shrugged and said "No!"

While the other children wrote or read, Shawn just sat quietly, very lethargic. He was not disruptive in class, and he was always very friendly and cheerful. However, he appeared to have no intention of reading or writing anything.

A typical journal entry for Shawn would be something like "I rid bik the wekend," with no date.

However, Shawn enjoyed listening to a story being read. Around the second week into the first novel, Frozen Fire, by James Houston, he

started to ask, as soon as he came to the classroom "Miss, can we read some of that book today?"

After several more weeks, the class was working on a language experience story, one day - an activity related to Frozen Fire. A chapter had just been read and the group was retelling what had happened as the teacher wrote, exactly as they dictated. Later, during the same class period, the students were asked to read the just-completed dictated story. Shawn asked the teacher if he would be permitted to read it all. He did - and without missing a word! He read words like 'signal,' 'mirror,' and 'roast' with no problem. He was very pleased when the teacher complimented him on how well he had done. He grinned and said "Yeah. I only read that because I knew it!"

In February, Shawn started to read during SSR: very short novels, such as Jody (from the Sprint Reading program), short stories, and comic books. At first, he would read for only about five minutes, pointing at words with a finger, and with lip movements.

Because Shawn enjoyed using the computer, this was capitalized upon. He began to write stories with the computer. He was told that all writing should be edited. He often worked with another student: one would type as the other checked for spelling and punctuation errors.

One day, while working on a legend, *Why the Eagle has a Bald Head*, Shawn typed a paragraph of six or seven lines. Several times he pointed out errors to his computer buddy and articulated the need for capital

letters and punctuation marks. The two students would type a word, such as 'where', and then stop and discuss spelling because one of them had some doubts: "I think it's 'W E R E'." After the problem was remedied, they would resume their typing and collaboration.

Shawn went on to complete several pieces of writing independently, including a children's story, *I was so Mad*, based on a book of the same title by Mercer Mayer. He also completed several book reports, short stories, poems, as well as informational writing.

One day in May, first thing in the morning when he came in the classroom, he said "I've got this to finish today." He was writing a poem, *What Have I Got?* One line read "six small windows, dirty and broken."

What Have I Got?

Me.
Two bikes.
Three big boats.
Four furry, fat dogs.
Five big doors, some creaky.
Six small windows, dirty and broken.

This poem was written independently. The only original spelling error was 'wendos' for 'windows', which he corrected in the final draft.

At the end of the program, Cory was reading at the second grade level (See Appendix 3 - 2) , still far below his grade level. However, there is no doubt that Shawn has made tremendous progress.

Student 12: Nelson, Age 16.

Nelson was the youngest of a family of nine children. He had been assigned to special education classes since his second year at school and looked forward only to going to Toronto to find a job. Nelson said that his sister lives in Toronto and that she would be sending him a plane ticket so that he can fly to Toronto after school finished in June. He said "If I get a job, I won't be back here!"

Nelson was a handsome, bright boy, but one whose social background was such that education was not perceived as having value, unless it brought immediate financial gain, such as giving access to a job where one could work long enough to "earn" the minimum number of "stamps" to qualify for unemployment insurance benefits. Nelson could not see the value of having a full-time job which would require that one get up early every morning to go to work. "I'd rather sleep in" he would say.

Nelson's attitude toward school and toward reading was very poor. Pre-testing showed that he was reading at the fourth grade level (See Appendix 3 - 2). His word recognition was at a bit higher level than his comprehension. It was difficult to determine his true level because he would not cooperate during assessment, responding "Don't know" when asked a question.

It was quite apparent from the beginning of the term that Nelson was completely "turned off" from school and that he had chosen to "tune out" all demands made on him in the classroom. He would sit watching the other

students, commenting often on what they were doing "Why are you doing that? That's foolishness!"

Nelson did enjoy listening to his remedial teacher reading a novel, however, and she often noticed him listening intently, while pretending that he had not been listening at all if the teacher asked him a question during postreading discussions.

Nelson's work habits were also very poor; his writing untidy, and his work disorganized. Journal entries tended to consist of one sentence: "I don't know what to write" or "I don't like writing."

However, his spelling skills were better than those of the other students of his group. This strength was pointed out to Nelson after he had described himself as "stun." One day, he mentioned that he had done a social studies test, then said "I knows I failed. I'm stun." Then he added "I don't care. I won't be here next year. I'm going to Toronto."

Nelson was asked to help some of the other students who were typing at the computer. He had no difficulty using the word processing program on the computer after being shown only once. He enjoyed helping other students with their spelling and he worked with much confidence.

Before the end of the first month, Nelson was asking, as soon as he came to class, "Miss, read some of that book, now, please."

In February, the group was working on a piece of writing about the value of friends. It took Nelson several class periods to get started on his work. This was to be his first 'long' piece of writing. Then, he

worked diligently for several days rewriting, changing parts that "Don't sound right", and finally typing and printing the whole thing. He began to read, during SSR time, some adventure stories, the type that he liked best.

By the time the class had finished two novels, Nelson was taking an active part in discussions and writing activities related to the novels. He later wrote an 'Indian Legend;' a children's story, using a picture book model; several poems; and two book reports.

Several days after the social studies test, he came into the classroom, grinning broadly, and announced "Miss, I got 77% on my test. I thought I failed." This was discussed for a few minutes. Then, the teacher asked him how he felt about that mark. He responded "Not too good, cause I knows I won't pass any more this year."

When asked why he felt that way, he answered "Cause I won't. That one was only easy. I wouldn't have passed it if it was hard." After this, the teacher discussed with him why some things only seem to be "hard" or "easy." But, he wasn't convinced. Then, he flippantly said, as he usually did "I don't care. I'm not coming back next year, anyway."

Posttesting showed that Nelson was reading at the seventh grade level (See Appendix 3 - 2).

If Nelson decides to return to school, success is still possible for him, too.

Student 13: Martin, Age 15.

Martin was a ninth grade student who had been referred to the remedial unit because of very poor writing skills and work habits. Even though Martin's oral vocabulary and general knowledge appeared to be normal, his regular-class teachers reported that his written assignments showed extremely low organizational and spelling skills.

Pretesting showed Martin's reading skills to be at the sixth grade level (See Appendix 3 - 2). On attitude, he scored above the class norm.

After working with Martin and his mother, it was obvious that he was feeling some pressure from his parents to do well. He was constantly being compared with his older sister who had "breezed through" school. His parents demonstrated open disappointment that Martin might not do well enough to be accepted at university.

At home and at school, Martin became a victim of his older sister's academic record. His parents and some of his teachers challenged Martin by comparing his performance with that of his sister. Martin was unable to meet the challenge. He would work only with personal encouragement. He was always surprised when he did well at something.

Because he was afraid of failure, Martin was very nervous of anything that he perceived as a 'test.' When asked to do the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test, he said "That's too hard. I don't think that I can do that."

Martin was easily distracted during the testing and at the end, expecting that he might not have done well, he tossed the test booklet on the table and said "I wasn't in the mood to do this. It's stupid anyway."

During group discussion of novels being read in class, Martin's recall of information was obviously excellent, as were his inferencing skills. He paid close attention during reading time, and each day he would look forward to novel reading. However, he did not, at first, enjoy independent reading. During SSR time he would exchange books quite often, and he generally looked bored.

Martin's handwriting was very poor and his composition skills were, also, at a very low level.

Martin soon began picking up the novel being read in class to read during SSR time. he began using the computer for his writing and, like many of the remedial students, found it very motivational. Using picture books to teach literary concepts also appealed to Martin. Book reports completed later in the program demonstrated his knowledge of concepts such as personification, metaphor, flashback, and so on.

Martin's writing began to improve. He began to use more detail and story structure was more evident. His vocabulary and spelling also improved. Posttesting showed Martin to be reading at the eighth grade level (See Appendix 3 - 2).

Student 14: James, Age 15.

James, in grade eight, was the eighth child in a family of ten. Neither of his parents would consent to come to the school to discuss his progress. His father made it clear that he had 'no use for' the school or the teachers.

Normally a cheerful boy, James sometimes came to class very upset. On several occasions he swore on teachers in the corridor when he felt threatened by them. The only way that James knew how to vent his frustrations was through violence. If provoked or threatened, his face would lose its colour and he might go into a fit of seemingly uncontrollable rage, hitting out at whomever might be within his reach. James appeared to have a lot of anger that he just didn't know how to deal with.

It was suspected that the quality of James's home life may have contributed to his behaviour. He often complained to his remedial teacher about his other teachers saying, on one occasion, "If a teacher ever touches me, I'm going to punch him right in the face. Dad said that's what I should do."

At the beginning of the study, James's independent reading level was second grade, characterized by a lot of difficulty with spelling simple words such as 'they,' 'gone,' 'our,' and 'again.' He ignored word endings both in reading and in spelling. He seldom used capital letters or punctuation. Oral reading was word-by-word with very poor fluency.

James told his remedial teacher, on one occasion, that he did no work in any other class, not even bothering to take a pencil or notebook to class. As long as he was quiet in those classes, however, he was left alone. Teachers had come not to expect anything from him, and they got nothing.

James's main interest was "catching rabbits" during the autumn and snowmobiling in the winter. Several language experience stories were completed on these topics. These themes were also used for repeated reading exercises. He refused to use a tape recorder for this exercise but he was willing to read aloud.

After working with these activities and themes for several weeks, he had no difficulty spelling words such as 'snowshoes,' 'tracks,' 'motor,' 'rabbit slips,' 'skidoo,' and 'trails.' Many of his journal entries dealt with skidoo races or with ice-fishing.

James enjoyed using the computer for his writing activities and, like most of the other students, made an effort to use good story structure, standard spelling, and punctuation when typing with the computer. He would often seek permission from his other teachers to come to the remedial centre to complete a composition that he was developing with the assistance of the computer.

By March, James was working with key words such as 'rougher,' 'garbage,' 'weigh,' 'gallons,' and so on, and he had no difficulty reading them in isolation or in spelling them.

Meanwhile, James continued to come to remedial class with stories of being 'kicked out of' French class, and of being sent to the principal who threatened to expel him from school if his behaviour didn't improve.

One day, as James was writing a summary of a chapter that the class group had read from Frozen Fire, he stopped when he tried to write the word 'stopper' in the sentence "They went over a hump [in the snow] and the stopper came off the gas [snowmobile] tank." He asked the remedial teacher how to spell it. Then, before she could respond, he said "No, don't tell me. I'll get it in a minute." And, he did!

James experienced significant improvement over the course of the five-month program. For him, the program seemed to work very well. Posttesting showed a marked gain in attitude scores (See Appendix 3 - 10) along with a reading scores increase of three grade levels (See Appendix 3 - 2).

James' writing, towards the end of the program, showed much creativity. For example, one story, based on Mercer Mayer's I Was So Mad, began as follows:

> I wanted to go out and sit on the steps
> But Mr Small wouldn't let me.
> I was so mad.
> I wanted to go home
> But the principal said "No!"
> I was so mad.

Student 15: Reggie, Age 14.

Reggie, ninth in a family of ten children, brother to James (Student 14) was repeating seventh grade. He would come to class and slouch down

in a chair looking totally bored with everything. Reggie appeared to have few interests, other than skipping as many classes as possible. When asked what he did at home, he answered "Nothing only watch TV and go to bed." Reggie was apathetic and unmotivated.

Assessment at the beginning of the term showed that Reggie was reading at second grade level (See Appendix 3 - 2). He disliked independent reading, and during SSR, for the first few weeks, would be continuously selecting books, declaring them to be "too boring", and exchanging them for others. His writing skills were very poor and he disliked writing. His daily journal entry was a chore. Each day he would ask "Do I have to do this junk again today?" Obviously, his attitude towards school and towards reading was quite poor.

As the class progressed to reading a second novel, Owls in the Family, by Farley Mowatt, Reggie began to look forward to novel-reading sessions, reminding the remedial teacher if it appeared that she was forgetting that activity.

One day, during the second month of the term, his homeroom teacher was showing his class a movie and invited the students from Reggie's group to watch it. However, Reggie preferred to come out to the remedial centre to finish some writing that he had begun on the previous day - an anecdote he had written based on the owls in the novel.

Reggie appeared to benefit from langauge experience stories. Because he had such difficulty with written communication, and because his

writing was so poor, he became frustrated very quickly. His writing lacked detail, and did not adhere to other writing conventions. However, Reggie enjoyed writing a cooperative story, reading it, and copying it into his notebook or typing it with the computer. He was generally very careful with spelling and he liked to put his finished work on the bulletin board. He often referred to his word list when writing in his journal or during other writing activities. He usually had little difficulty reading and writing key words.

Slowly, the list of titles in Reggie's reading log grew until he had five titles - all of which he could read with success, and all from the Sprint Reading program.

At the beginning of the program, Reggie had very poor spelling skills. Words such as 'jaw,' 'park,' 'they,' and 'had' were problems for him. He refused to try to spell these words independently, and he became frustrated when encouraged to try to do it himself, to go ahead and try it and have it discussed during conference time. He would often just sit and refuse to go on until someone gave him the correct spelling. Later in the term, he began attempting to figure out how to spell problem words. He was soon writing words like 'paint,' 'wolf,' and 'candle' independently.

Reggie's writing began to show improvement; he became more adept at editing his independent and his cooperative work. He began to realize the need for punctuation as he wrote more dialogue. Through the use of

picture books, he began to understand such story elements as exaggeration, conflict, and similes.

Composing stories using wordless picture books, and using children's books as models for his own writing, were also worthwhile experiences for Reggie. These activities built on his vocabulary and gave him a "sense of story," which had been lacking up to then.

Reggie's posttest scores showed that he was still at a third grade reading level - well below grade level (See Appendix 3 - 2). However, the change in attitude was striking. He seems to have reached a plateau of thinking which, given an accepting environment, can be translated into success for Reggie.

A "haiku", written by Reggie in early Spring:

Soft white snowflakes
Sailing in the sky,
Glistening cold on the ground.

Student 16: Thomas, Age 16.

Thomas, a ninth grade student, was obviously very bored in a situation which appeared to him to be hopeless. He had been failing for so long that he had forgotten what success feels like. He commented, on several occasions, that he didn't pass previous grades, that the teachers "...only put me on to get rid of me."

Thomas was a tall, very mature-looking boy who often wrote accounts of "... being drunk on the weekend." He hung out with people much older than him, and he came to school only if and when he felt like it.

Generally a quiet boy, Thomas would ignore everyone else when he came into the classroom, wanting only to be left alone until the dismissal bell rang, when he would be free again, like a prisoner serving a sentence.

Thomas was referred for remedial assistance because of difficulties in all areas of langauge arts. Pretesting showed him to be reading at a third grade level. His oral reading was very slow, and his comprehension was poor at level four. His writing skills were also very poor. He had difficulty with spelling basic words such as 'woman,' 'who,' and 'school,' which he spelled as 'wouem,' 'how,' and 'schoal.' He had considerable difficulty writing more than a few short sentences which, in any case, contained very little detail. An example from an early daily journal entry follows: "Yesteday I was sik so I didn't do much. I wath tv."

Thomas's greatest enjoyment was being out in the woods around the community with his friends. Later in the term, he wrote about some of these experiences. In contrast to his earlier entry, cited above, in April he wrote the following, copied exactly as he wrote it in his daily journal:

> When we go rabbit catching, we usually take along a bottle of drink [pop] because it is a long walk to our snares. We go over the pond and acros the road to check our 82 snares. We do this two or three time each week. Some of the time we go on skidoo. My friend, Jack, owns a 12 h.p. If it is not working we walk. So far I have got 18 rabbits and Jack got 12. When we went to check our snares yesteday, they were snowed in. Now we have to find them but I think I'll wait.

Because Thomas was writing about something that was meaningful to him, the product was of much higher quality, in terms of spelling and sentence structure. He used his word list to spell words which he found to be problematic.

Towards the end of the program, Thomas was writing for periods of up to a half hour at a time. He wrote several poems, a 'legend,' several short stories making use of dialogue, and several book reports. He enjoyed listening to novels and he read several short novels from the Sprint Reading program during SSR time.

Posttesting showed Thomas's reading level to be sixth grade, an increase of almost three grade levels over the five month program (See Appendix 3 - 2).

With support and encouragement, it is possible that Thomas will become functional as a reader and as a writer - if he doesn't become another drop-out.

Thomas is another example of the type of student who, due to simple lethargy, just cannot keep up. He has developed an 'easy-going' personality, content to sit back and be overlooked in a classroom of other students demanding the teachers time and energies.

Student 17: Anthony, Age 15.

Anthony was a grade eight student from a transient family. His father has always had to move fairly often in order to find employment.

Their latest stint had been to Alberta, returning just after Christmas after having been away for six months.

Pretesting showed that Anthony had fairly good word recognition skills. He could read well at level 4 (See Appendix 3 - 2). However, he had difficulty recalling information, using vocabulary, and inferencing beyond level 4.

Anthony was referred for remediation because of very poor writing skills. His writing showed weak organizational skills, poor spelling and grammar, and barely-decipherable handwriting. Anthony was generally very pleasant, however, and enjoyed using the computer for his compositions.

Writing responses to what was read aloud worked well for Anthony. Key words were selected from class-composed and independent summaries for independent vocabulary activities (as described in Chapter 1). Since he was quite interested in snowmobiling, writing activities were planned for him utilizing that theme. He spent a considerable amount of time reading snowmobile advertising brochures secured from a local sport shop and writing about the features of the various brands of machines. He also compared and contrasted various brands and models of snowmobiles and wrote opinions of which machines were best.

Anthony had good thinking and verbal language skills. He was able to formulate logical answers and participated well in discussions. However, he had much more difficulty using written language. Once, while

searching for the right words to describe an event in writing, he said "I got it in my head. But, I can't get it down."

Anthony enjoyed listening to stories being read. After listening to Frozen Fire, he read independently another novel by the same author. Although his writing did improve, he has not yet reached the stage where he enjoys the activity.

Anthony's Posttesting indicated sixth grade level reading skills (See Appendix 3 - 2).

Student 18: Lloyd, Age 18.

Lloyd was a ninth grade developmentally delayed boy who had two outstanding characteristics: He was always pleasant and cheerful, and he was always patient. Being afflicted with a muscle disorder, Lloyd was very slow-moving. His co-ordination was poor and he had difficulty grasping small objects. However, Lloyd's handwriting was surprisingly good. His speech was slightly impaired, contributing to his ability to read only very slowly.

Lloyd rarely finished an activity in step with the remainder of "his group", but usually plodded on and finished in his own time. Lloyd also had the advantage of having parents who were concerned about their son's future and who have a strong desire to see him develop and grow academically and to his fullest potential. His parents gave him support and encouragement when it was needed. They commented, on several

occasions, on their surprise and pleasure that Lloyd had managed to stay in school, considering the poor prognosis of earlier years.

Pretesting indicated that Lloyd's reading ability was at the sixth grade level (See Appendix 3 - 2). His posttest scores revealed that overall grade levels did not change during the course of the program. His reading skills remained at the sixth grade level. Grade scores did change, however, with average comprehension scores increasing from 82.5% to 92.5%.

Lloyd was an avid hockey fan and liked to keep up-to-date on sports events. During SSR time, he liked to read the sports section of the newspaper, and he would write, in his journal, commentary on sports events. The fact that Lloyd was not able to function on ice-skates did not lessen Lloyd's enthusiasm for playing street hockey, which he thoroughly enjoyed playing with his friends.

Lloyd wrote a poem, midway through the program, expressing his desire to play hockey. Part of the poem follows:

I'm "up" when I can
play hockey.
I'm "down" when
I'm bored.
I need to skate
to keep me happy.
Without skates
I'm useless.

Student 19: Charles, Age 16.

Charles was a ninth grade student who was referred for remedial reading assistance because he refused to anything in his regular class.

Charles was a sullen, brooding, explosive boy who had the ability to do much better academically. However, He refused to try. His regular-class teacher reported that Charles continually avoided classes, attending only occasionally. Most of his time at school was spent in the cafeteria with several of the other "discipline problems." As long as they created no disturbance, these students were allowed to remain in the cafeteria. One teacher remarked "At least my class is a little more peaceful without him! He usually has to be sent outside when he does come to class, anyway, because nobody can get along with him."

Charles would never bring a book or writing materials to class. He reported, on a number of occasions, that he "...never does anything in any classes, anyway." His file revealed a record of suspensions from school for "deliberately picking fights" and for disruptive behaviour in the classroom. A stereotypic "discipline case," Charles was placed in a slower-learning group out of desperation on the part of the school's administrators.

Like many other "discipline cases," it was obvious that Charles's unacceptable classroom behaviour was, at least partially, the result of boredom. As his successful experiences became "fewer and farther between," his desire to make an effort diminished concomitantly. He spent his days with students like himself, who understood him in a way that his teachers could not.

Charles' pretest reading scores showed that his reading functioning was at the third grade level (See Appendix 3 - 2).

For the first two days that Charles was in the remedial class, he refused to co-operate in any manner. On the third day, he didn't appear. The remedial teacher went to look for him and found him in the cafeteria playing cards with three other students. He was so surprised that someone would come to look for him, that he made no protest whatever but, when requested by the teacher, came to the classroom and sat quietly. That day he co-operated during assessment.

For the next three days, the remedial teacher had to go to the cafeteria to find Charles. He would always return to class with the teacher, quietly and without complaint. During these days, the remedial teacher did not berate Charles or threaten him in any way. The teacher really believed that coercion or attempts at intimidation would not work with him. (Besides, he was much bigger than the teacher!)

On the seventh day, Charles, much to the teacher's surprise, came to class promptly at the bell. When the teacher told him that she was happy to see him because "I really didn't feel like walking way down to the cafeteria, today," Charles muttered "I figured I might as well come on in, rather than have you come after me again." Then he asked "Miss, how come you come looking for me? Why don't you leave me alone like other teachers?"

The teacher and Charles chatted briefly about why it was important that he come to class. After playing a game of Scrabble, he was in a more pleasant mood and asked if we could read "...some of that book" today.

The teacher never again had to go to the cafeteria to look for Charles. He always came to class. Every day, he would ask to have some reading with the teacher. On some days, they read together for the whole period.

Charles wasn't always in a pleasant mood. On many days, he regressed to his sullen ways, and refused to co-operate, especially when he became frustrated with a piece of writing. But, usually, a word of encouragement or praise would help lift his spirits.

On one occasion, Charles came to class and said "I'm not in the mood for this, today."

The teacher responded "Come on, Charles. It's Friday, and a beautiful day for skidooing after school. What a nice sweater you're wearing, today. You look great!"

Charles grinned, and after a few minutes he was writing intently.

Charles's greatest need was to be accepted. When he was recognized for making an effort, when his efforts were recognized as valuable, he really put a lot of effort into his work. He would work diligently if success was anticipated.

The program worked well for Charles - strategies like experience writing, shared reading, and using children's books as models for writing

all helped develop Charles's spelling skills and served to give him some confidence in his own ability. This appears obvious from his skills increase from the third grade level on, pretesting, to the sixth grade level, on posttesting (See Appendix 3 - 2).

The following excerpt is from one of Charles' poems later in the program:

> I need someone in my life
> to keep me moving on.
> Without hope I
> am lost.
> But with hopes I can be myself.

There are many Charles to be found in classes of slower learners.