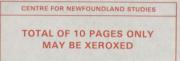# USING A LITERATURE-BASED READING/WRITING PROGRAM IN A GRADE II CLASSROOM TO IMPROVE CHILDREN'S READING ACHIEVEMENT, SELF-CONCEPT, AND ATTITUDES TOWARDS READING AND WRITING

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USING A LITERATURE-BASED READING/WRITING PROGRAM

IN A GRADE II CLASSROOM TO IMPROVE CHILDREN'S

READING ACHIEVEMENT, SELF-CONCEPT, AND

ATTITUDES TOWARDS READING AND WRITING

by

© Catherine Greene B.A. Ed.

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ABSTRACT

This study set out to explore the relationships between reading and writing; to investigate and describe the effect of an integrated reading and writing program on reading achievement, reading attitude, writing attitude, and self-concept as learner; and to report parents' involvement in and reaction to the program. To this end an integrated reading and writing program was implemented in a grade two classroom and evaluated, using a case study design to report the results. The research was based on the following four questions. Does the integrated reading and writing program provide:

1. improved students' performance in reading?
2. improved students' self-concepts as learners?
3. improved students' attitudes towards reading?
4. improved students' attitudes towards writing?

The investigation also sought to explore relationships between reading achievement and (1) self-concept, (2) attitudes towards reading, (3) attitudes towards writing and (4) parental involvement.

The researcher/teacher designed an integrated reading and writing program to accommodate theories

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of language learning presented in the review of the literature. Students were administered pretests and posttests in reading achievement, self-concept, attitudes towards reading and attitudes towards writing to determine if the program affected these variables. Descriptive data were collected throughout the study to ascertain if activities that were specified by the theory were being effectively operationalized and implemented.

Results at the end of the program indicated positive answers to all four questions. Students' performances on the standardized reading pretest and posttest were compared with the norms and showed that the mean gain of the study group in both vocabulary and comprehension was greater than the Canadian national mean gain. Average reading growth in months for the study group was 9.1 months in vocabulary and 12.7 months in comprehension and greater than the expected seven month growth. Statistical analysis confirmed that the gains in comprehension were significant at the .05 level. 88.5% of the students showed an improvement in self-concept. 84.6% showed improved attitudes towards reading and 92.3% showed improved attitudes towards writing.

Statistical analysis showed a positive correlation between reading achievement and (1) reading attitudes and (2) self-concept. The study gave evidence that writing activities can positively affect reading comprehension but there was no significant correlation between reading achievement and writing attitudes. Although parental involvement was high, it was not significantly correlated with the reading achievement of the students.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my family, Pat, Robbie, Susan and Mom. They understood my long absences from our home, and lifted my spirits when they slumped. With them I now share the joy of success.

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CHAPTER I

NATURE OF THE STUDY

Introduction

For several decades researchers and educators have been preoccupied with how children learn to read. A major change in how researchers view reading is now occurring, however, and this has important implications for educators. Traditionally it was thought that reading was a product of formal instruction and could be taught as a series of incremental exercises. But this traditional view is now being challenged as researchers investigate both the active role of the reader in constructing meaning and the social nature of learning to read. Recent research has revealed that reading and writing are related and can develop in the same natural way as spoken language does, provided that the conditions for learning are similar. These conditions include a stimulating environment that reveals the joys of reading and writing and encourages the children to see themselves as readers and writers.

While classroom teachers continue to search for the "best" method to teach reading, researchers

are considering reading in new contexts. Indeed,
reading, as well as the entire language arts area,
is undergoing a period of transition as new ideas
begin to challenge the traditional structured methods
of teaching children to read (Dillon, 1983). Research
is making it clear that reading must be considered
in relationship with the other language arts,
especially writing. According to Robinson, (in press,
cited in Bloome, 1986):

> Reading can no longer be thought of
> as a solitary act in which a mainly
> passive reader responds to cues in
> text to find meaning. It is not a
> unitary skill reducible to sets of
> component skills falling neatly under
> discrete categories but it is a complex
> human activity taking place in complex
> human relationships (p. 70).

Recent researchers (Brown, 1973; Brown, Cazden,
Bellugi-Klima, 1971; Goodman, 1987; Halliday, 1973,
1975; Holdaway, 1979; Lindfors, 1985; McNeill, 1970;
Moskowitz, 1978; Smith, 1982, 1983; and Weeks, 1979)
have helped us to understand how children learn to
speak. All of these investigations point to the
importance of the social and functional nature of

language learning. The emphasis is on the processes that enable the child to become an effective communicator. Researchers (Applebee & Langer, 1983; Baghban, 1984; Clark, 1976; Cohn, 1981; Farr, 1983; Forester, 1980; Greene, 1983; Mellon, 1983; Shuy, 1982; Teale, 1982; Torrey, 1979; Weeks, 1979; and Wells, 1984) have drawn an analogy between learning to speak and learning to read and write. They argue that strategies used in the natural approach to teaching a child to speak can be applied successfully to teaching a child to read and write. Although their findings have far reaching implications for curriculum and instruction, a problem common to education exists. There is often a gap between theory and teaching. Despite all the research that supports the integration of reading and writing with emphasis on the social and functional nature of both processes, teachers continue to teach reading and writing as separate subjects (Wixson, Stock & Robinson, 1985). Reading and writing instruction often focuses on the products of reading and writing from "expressive, errorless oral reading and accurate question-answering to good penmanship, spelling, grammar and punctuation" (Wixson, Stock & Robinson, 1985, p. 170).

Jaggar and Smith-Burke (1985) support the view of Wixson, Stock & Robinson. They maintain:

> The past twenty years have seen an unprecedented amount of research on how children acquire and use oral and written language. Although much is still to be learned, one thing is certain — many materials and practices in use in our schools today are at odds with what these studies tell us (p. 2).

The integrated reading and writing program used as the treatment in this study is an attempt to develop a classroom procedure which reflects new language theories. It is an approach that focuses on language learning (reading and writing) as natural processes which the student uses to understand his/her world and to communicate effectively.

In evaluating a curricular program, consideration should naturally be given to student performance or achievement. This researcher feels, however, that this criterion alone produces a very narrow view of education and its importance. Students' self-concepts and attitudes are other areas which need to be studied.

Research studies show a persistently significant relationship between the quality of a student's self-concept and his/her reading achievement (Aronson & Carlssmith, 1962; Binder, Jones & Strowig, 1970; Brookover, 1964; Hebert, 1968; Marsh, Smith & Barnes, 1985; Singh, 1972; and Wylie, 1961, 1974). It is also known that 'strong self-concepts result not only from academic success but often are antecedent to, and predictive of, reading accomplishment' (Wattenburg & Clifford, 1964).

Attitudes are also important to academic achievement. Cognitive characteristics may determine the limits to a student's development but affective characteristics influence whether or not the attempt is made to reach these limits (Summers, 1977). It is the responsibility of educators to help prepare children to become responsible adults. According to Bruner (1959) the primary objective of every act of learning is that it should serve us in the future. Whatever we do in the classroom, we must endeavour to impart positive attitudes toward the subjects we teach. The student who develops a positive attitude towards a subject will be more likely to put acquired knowledge about that subject to use than will a student with negative attitudes towards it.

Statement of the Problem

During the last few years there has been a surge of interest in the relationship between reading and writing. Educators, through the work of Bissex, 1980; Graves, 1978; Harste, Burke & Woodward, 1981; King & Rentel, 1981, and others, are becoming aware of the important part writing can play in the child's acquisition of literacy. However, many teachers still use a basal reading series, with its emphasis on sequence of skills, controlled vocabulary and directed-reading approach. Many still believe in teaching reading and writing separately. There is a need for curriculum development that will reflect the latest theories of literacy acquisition and a need to help teachers reconceptualize how reading is learned/taught. This study attempted to evaluate an integrated reading and writing program. It tried to determine if writing and the concept of author can help children become better readers with favorable attitudes towards reading and writing in particular, and learning in general.

Answers to the following questions were sought:

Does the integrated reading and writing curriculum provide:

1. improved students' performance in reading?

2. improved students' self-concepts as learners?

3. improved students' attitudes towards reading?

4. improved students' attitudes towards writing?

Purposes of the Study

The purposes of the study were as follows:

1. To explore the relationships between reading and writing.

2. To investigate and describe the effect of an integrated reading and writing program on:

   (i)   reading achievement

   (ii) reading attitude

   (iii) writing attitude

   (iv) self-concept as learner.

Need for the Study

There is an obvious need for investigation of teaching approaches that integrate reading and writing. As will be shown in the review of the literature, recent theory states that reading and writing should not be taught as separate subjects. Paradoxically, most of the studies in the field have investigated

either reading alone or writing alone, and relatively few have investigated the effects of an integrated reading and writing program on reading achievement.

In a report of studies that have assessed the relationship between children's reading attitude and reading performance, Wigfield and Asher (1986) stated that the results were discrepant and rather disappointing. They argued that the reviewed studies lacked many variables of theoretical and practical interest. They suggested a good investigation should include, among other variables, students' attitudes, self-concepts of ability, and parental influences. The present case study addressed this need.

A need for the present investigation was also stated in a local study conducted by Creaser (1975). She said, "A research project investigating the effects on children's attitude toward reading when child created materials (books) are created and produced within the experimental classrooms is strongly suggested" (p. 112). In another local investigation Smith (1979) suggested:

1. the need for further research into the means by which teachers can increase the child's self-concept;

2. the need for further research on the position of parents with regard to self-concept and/ reading achievement; and,

3. the need for further research to involve the parents more closely with the education of their children.

The present study attempted to meet these needs.

Limitations

This is a case study of a group of grade two children in St. John's, Newfoundland. There are some limitations in this type of study, one of which is bias. The researcher/teacher endeavored to minimize bias by the use of an inter-rater to independently rate the subjects on the self-concept scale and the use of objective measures to obtain reading achievement and attitude scores.

Another limitation of this study is its generalizability. Since all children in the class were included and there was no random sampling, what holds true for the subjects under consideration cannot be generalized to other groups.

In order to measure reading achievement, self-concept, attitudes toward reading and attitude toward writing, it was necessary to use certain instruments designed to sample and reveal these phenomena. The findings of this study are limited to the degree of validity these instruments possess.

Organization of the Thesis

Chapter I has provided an introduction to the study, a statement of the problem, and the purposes, need and limitations of the study. Chapter II presents a review of the literature. Details of the research design are presented in Chapter III. Chapter IV provides an analysis of the data. Chapter V summarizes the study, discusses the findings and presents implications and recommendations for teachers and further research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

The aim of this review of the literature is to define the relationships between reading and writing and the factors that influence the development of literacy.

In the past reading and writing have been viewed differently. For a long time reading was seen as decoded meaning, as passive, receptive and imitative. Antithetically, writing was seen as encoded meaning, as active, generative and expressive. But today researchers are presenting arguments for viewing reading and writing as complementary processes, having much in common. Educators are beginning to use teaching methods that capitalize upon the activities and processes that reading and writing share.

The Relationships Between Reading and Writing

Chomsky (1971) argued that early writing via invented spelling can be a beneficial introduction to learning to read and Clay (1979) stated that "many of the operations needed in early reading are practised in another form in early writing" (p. 50). However,

the notion that early reading and writing are related is still a new one. Recently, writers in the field have begun to explore the relationships between reading and writing. Unfortunately, the exact nature of these relationships has not yet been determined.

Tierney and Pearson (1983) claim that not only are reading and writing related but are "similar processes of meaning construction. Both are acts of composing" (p. 568). It is generally understood that writers compose meaning, but these authors argue that readers compose meaning, that "... there is no meaning on the page until a reader decides there is" (p. 569). They describe essential characteristics of the composing process as, planning, drafting, aligning, revising and monitoring, and show how these characteristics are used in reading as well as in writing.

One of these characteristics, monitoring, is synonymous to what Murray (1982) calls the "other self". In the processes of composing and comprehending there is an inner voice that continuously reacts to what is being written or what is being read. Moffett (1983) describes this inner voice as our stream of consciousness. He maintains that:

Reading assimilates one person's composed inner speech into another person's on-going inner stream so that one's composition temporarily restructures the other's consciousness. Writing temporarily restructures one's own consciousness as one focuses, edits and revises the inner stream so as to act on another's (p. 322).

Squire (1983) also refers to reading and writing as composing and comprehending and believes that they are interrelated aspects of thinking. He claims reading and writing are two sides of the same basic thinking process. He states:

Composing is critical to thought processes because it is a process which actively engages the learner in constructing meaning, in developing ideas, in relating ideas, in expressing ideas. Comprehending is critical because it requires the learner to reconstruct the structure and meaning of ideas expressed by another writer. To possess an idea that one is reading about

requires competence in regenerating the idea, competence in learning how to write the idea of another. Thus both comprehending and composing seem basic reflections of the same cognitive process (p. 582).

Frank Smith (1983 a) says that reading and writing, as well as listening and speaking, involve the same processes within the brain. In his endeavour to find out how writers learn to write, he concludes that they learn to write by reading in a special way (Smith 1983 b).

The above writers view reading and writing as processes in which readers/writers actively construct meaning and relate it to prior experience. They are mental processes through which we communicate by composing meaning. However, it has not yet been fully explained how reading and writing are interrelated.

Related Research

Correlational Studies

Very little research has been done to determine the relationships between reading and writing.

Following is a synthesis of the studies reported by Stotsky (1983).

Loban (1963) investigated the relationships between reading and writing and reported a significant relationship between reading achievement and writing ability. In his study of children in the upper elementary grades he concluded that "those who read well also write well; those who read poorly also write poorly" (p. 75). In 1966 Loban studied the same groups of students and reported that "the relationships between reading and writing become more pronounced as the years pass" (p. 82).

A number of other studies have found correlations between reading achievement and writing ability. Some reported high correlations between measures of composition and comprehension (Campbell, 1976; Diederich, 1957; Schonell, 1942). Others reported a significant correlation between measures of composition and comprehension (Baden, 1981; Bippus, 1977; Calhoun, 1971; D'Angelo, 1977; Fishco, 1966; Grimmer, 1970; Grobe and Grobe, 1977; Maloney, 1967; Taylor, 1981; and Thomas, 1976). Piexotto (1946) found low but significant correlations between students' test scores for writing and reading. In

a study which examined the relationship between language ability, socioeconomic status, reading level, sex and free writing, Woodfin (1968) reported that the best consistent predictors of writing quality were reading ability and language scores. Baden (1981), who tested grade three students, found no significant differences between boys and girls on a measure of composition skills but a normed writing test correlated significantly with several variables of reading ability. Fishco's (1966) study of seventh graders revealed that only the girls' creative writing scores correlated significantly with reading comprehension scores when the girls' and boys' scores were examined separately.

A number of studies have found a relationship between writing quality and reading experience. Some reported that superior writers have more reading experience than do poor writers (Donelson, 1967; Felland, 1980; LaCampagne, 1968; Monk, 1958; and Thomas, 1976). The findings of Maloney (1967), who studied grade nine students, and Barbig (1968), who studied students from grades nine and 12, supported the above results but stated that superior writers also tended to be female. Woodward and Phillips

(1967) found that poor writers tended to have less reading experience than do good writers.

Some studies have found significant relationships between reading ability and measures of syntactic complexity in students' compositions (Evanechko, Ollila and Armstrong, 1974; Heil, 1976; Heller, 1979; Johnson, 1980; Perron, 1977; Thomas, 1976; and Zeman, 1949). Other studies, however, reported no positive correlations between the same measures (Evans, 1979; Fuller, 1974; and Siedow, 1973).

In some different approaches to investigating the relationship between reading and writing Lazdowski (1976), attempting to predict reading level from writing level, found that "proficiency in writing ability reflected a corresponding degree of proficiency in reading" (p. 81). Shanahan (1980) found that reading and writing were related but in different ways at different reading levels. In grade two, the relationship was based on word recognition and spelling ability; in grade five, it was based on reading comprehension and other writing variables.

Two new types of studies in 1981 examined reading and writing behaviors during the reading or composing process itself. Atwell (1981), who examined the

role of reading in the composing process of 20 college
students, reported that better writers plan and reread
more during the composing process than do poorer
writers. Birnbaum (1981) observed the reading and
writing behaviors of grade four and grade eight
students and reported:

> Students rated more proficient in one
> process were rated more proficient
> in the other. Further, the more
> proficient readers/writers saw themselves
> as good readers and writers and engaged
> more often in self-sponsored composing
> and reading than did the less proficient
> readers/writers (Quoted in Stotsky,
> 1983, p. 631).

Morris (1981) investigated the relationship
betwen the beginning reading and writing processes
of young children by analyzing their "concept of
word". He found a high correlation between early
reading and writing word-concepts. When this study
was replicated (Morris and Perney, 1980) a significant
correlation was reported. These findings do not,
however, explain the causal nature of this
relationship. Morris (1981) says, "the beginning

reading/beginning - writing relationship is of. a cyclical, mutually facilitative kind, whereby growth in one conceptual area (reading) is reflected in and reinforced by growth in the other area (writing)" (p. 666).

Studies Examining the Influence of Writing on Reading

As reported in Stotsky (1983), Combs (1979) synthesized the results of some studies that investigated the effect on reading when writing is improved through writing instruction. He concluded that the effects are ambiguous. In several studies, however, researchers found that writing activities positively influenced reading comprehension (Barton, 1930; Collins, 1979; Doctorow, Wittrock and Marks, 1978; Dynes, 1932; Glover, Plake, Roberts, Zimmer and Palmere, 1981; Jencke, 1935; Nagle, 1972; Newlun, 1930; Salisbury 1934; Taylor, 1978; Taylor and Berkowitz, 1980; and Walker-Lewis, 1981). Oehlkers (1971) in a study of grade one children and Smith, Jensen, and Dillingofsky (1971) in a study of grade four children found, however, that the use of writing activities did not significantly influence reading comprehension.

Wittrock (1983) discussed the close relations between reading comprehension and effective writing. He emphasized the generative qualities of reading and writing. In research studies of preschoolers it has been shown that very young children can generate their own spoken language and once they know some letter-sound associations they can generate written sentences using their own invented spellings. Wittrock proposed a generative model for learning to read that utilizes some of the same generative skills needed to learn to write. He argued that the teaching of reading and the teaching of writing share subtle and important generative processes. Writing is more than the construction of text for meaning; and reading is more than the construction of meaning for text. Writing is also a process of constructing meaning, which gets revised and made more precise as one edits, revises, and generates. Reading involves reconstructing examples and experiences in the text in familiar terms that allow us to relate our knowledge and memory to the message and to the perspective of the author. In each case the generative thought processes used to relate text and knowledge are related to one another.

After several studies with elementary school
children, junior high school students and college
students (Bull and Wittrock, 1974; Doctorow, Wittrock
and Marks, 1978; Linden and Wittrock, 1981; Marks,
Doctorow and Wittrock, 1974; Wittrock and Carter,
1975; and Wittrock, Marks and Doctorow, 1975), Wittrock
(1983) believed "that learning to read with
comprehension involves acquiring and using some of
the same generative skills needed to learn to write"
(p. 606).

Chall and Jacobs (1983) believed that there
is a need for more emphasis on writing, especially
when teaching low socioeconomic children. They
maintained that "not only is writing important for
itself, but the strong relation of writing to reading
and language suggests that the development of writing
may also enhance reading and language" (p. 625).
They reported on a study conducted by Chall, Snow
et al. (1982) which included a sample of 30 children
of low socioeconomic status who were tested in grades
two, four and six and retested a year later in grades
three, five and seven. The relationships between
the reading and writing of these students were studied
by analyzing various reading and writing measures,

as well as language measures. The analyses revealed
that reading and writing tended to be strongly related
to each other but that writing was more strongly
related to language than to reading.

Studies Examining the Influence of Reading on Writing

In several studies examining the influence of
reading upon writing, although reading comprehension
improved there was no significant difference in
composition skills between the experimental groups
and the control groups (Andreach, 1975; Bagley, 1937;
Belanger, 1978; Calhourn, 1971; Campbell, 1976;
Christiansen, 1965; Clark, 1935; De Vries, 1978;
Elley, Barham, Lamb and Wyllie, 1976; Eurich, 1931;
Heys, 1962; Maat, 1977; Matthews, Larsen and Butler,
1945; Miller, 1974; Mills, 1974; and Schneider, 1971).
One study (Bossone and Quitman, 1976), however, showed
an improvement in students' writing after the use
of reading activities.

Church and Bereiter (1983) investigated the
relationships between reading and writing by focusing
on reading to develop writing style. One of their
aims was to discover how to get students not only

to read but to "read like a writer" (Smith, 1982, p. 179). They studied twelfth grade English students and, as well, conducted a similar study in which the subjects were students ranging from grade five to graduate school (Church and Scardamalia, 1983). The studies did not give the results necessary to determine how we can get students to read in such a way that it helps them to develop as writers. They did report, though, that students who read aesthetically, that is, students who respond "holistically to both content and style" (Church and Bereiter, 1983, p. 474) may be taking the first step in "reading like a writer".

Eckhoff (1983) believed that reading influences writing. She cited studies showing that success in writing is predicted by reading scores (Evanechko, Ollila and Armstrong, 1974; Heil, 1976; Loban, 1970; and Maloney, 1968) and that increased reading practice improves writing (De Vries, 1970; and Mills, 1974). Eckhoff analyzed basal reading texts and writing samples from two second grade classes. She observed that the writing of the children reflected features of the basal series they read and concluded that they (1) used linguistic structures from the texts

they read, and (2) learned about punctuation from their reading. (Calkins, 1980, as cited in Eckhoff 1983, also observed the latter.)

Researchers at the Ohio State University have also examined the influence of reading on writing. Their studies showed how children incorporate story schemata from their reading into their writing (King and Rentel, 1981).

Synthesis

Recently there has been an interest in the relationships between reading and writing. Researchers have begun to look at what reading and writing have in common. The function of both is communication. Both processes require similar abilities, similar analysis and synthesis. Both reading and writing involve comparing and contrasting, connecting and re-evaluating. The weighing and judging of ideas are central to both processes. Unfortunately, the exact nature of these relationships has not yet been determined and more research is needed to examine the influence of writing instruction or writing activity on the development of reading comprehension and the influence of reading instruction or reading experience on the development of writing ability.

The research to date clearly indicates, however, that the more students use reading and writing together, the more they learn from both.

The Influence of Self-Concept On Learning to Read and Write

The confidence children have in their ability to learn to read and write is an important aspect of literacy development. Many factors are involved in learning to read and write, but there is evidence that self-concept is among the most important influences.

Numerous researchers have examined the relationship between academic achievement and self-concept. In two extensive reviews of the literature Ruth Wylie (1961, 1974) analyzed over 2,000 studies. The research findings clearly demonstrated the importance of self-concept to academic achievement.

Wattenburg & Clifford (1964) investigated the relation of self-concepts to beginning achievement in reading. Measures of mental ability and self-concept were obtained for children in their first semester of kindergarten in two Detroit elementary schools. Two and one-half years later, measures were obtained of their progress in reading

and self-concept. The measures of self-concept taken in kindergarten proved significantly predictive of progress in reading but not significantly related to mental test scores.

Williams & Cole (1968) attempted to relate self-concept to several dimensions of the child's experience that are deemed fundamental to effective academic adjustment. Eighty sixth grade students were used as subjects for all phases of the investigation. Significantly positive correlations were obtained between self-concept measures and the following variables: conception of school, social status at school, emotional adjustment, mental ability, reading achievement and mathematical achievement.

Binder, Jones & Strowig (1970) found that self-expectations and self-concept of ability are associated with scholastic achievement among rural high school seniors.

Marsh, Smith & Barnes (1985) studied a sample of 559 fifth grade students and collected measures to assess multiple dimensions of self-concept and academic achievement. The findings showed that academic achievement scores, both objective test scores and teacher ratings, positively correlated with academic self-concepts, and reading achievements were substantially correlated with reading self-concepts.

Mahone (1960) found that persons who have a low estimate of themselves are strongly motivated to avoid failure and tend to set goals so low that they do not need to prove themselves. On the other hand, Mahone found that people high in self-acceptance are willing to prove themselves.

Aronson & Carlssmith (1962) observed that subjects who expected to perform poorly but performed well exhibited more discomfort than did subjects who expected to perform poorly and did perform poorly. They illustrated the power of the self-concept to direct the individual's behavior.

Hebert (1968), who studied high school students, concluded that "those individuals who had low reading comprehension also tended to have low self-concepts" (p. 78).

Shaw & Alves (1963) studied 11th and 12th grade students who had attained an IQ of 110 or above and who were rated from their grade-point averages as achievers or underachievers. Their analysis pointed strongly to a direct association between negative self-attitudes and academic achievement, when ability levels are equal.

One of the most extensive studies in the area
of self-concept and achievement was done by Brookover,
Thomas & Patterson (1962) in Michigan. They found
that self-concept of academic ability is associated
with academic achievement at each grade level. They
concluded that the assumption that human ability
is the most important factor in achievement is
questionable and that students' attitudes limit their
level of achievement in school.

In an attempt to test cross-culturally the results
of Brookover's study, Singh (1972) conducted a study
of over 1200 grade seven students in St. John's,
Newfoundland. He concluded:

> The extent to which a student would
> attempt to achieve in school would
> be functionally limited by a student's
> self-concept of academic ability.
> In this sense, self-concept of ability
> is an intervening variable. The
> expectations and evaluations of others
> do not directly shape the behavior
> of a student in school. But a student's
> own definitions based upon his
> perceptions of what others think of

him as a student, is crucial to his behavior in school (p. 147-148).

Yet, there is research to show that the self-concepts of children are often negatively affected by schooling. As a group, elementary school children have difficulty maintaining positive self-concepts after they enter school (Stanwyck, 1972). Some children develop an increasing negativism as they progress through school grades (Dunn, 1968) and also as they go from the beginning of the school year to the end (Flanders, Morrison & Brode, 1968).

Self-concept has been studied for many years. Early influences in this area (as discussed in Felker, 1974, p. 18-22) are James (1890) and Freud (Hall, 1954). James thought that self-concept was an important variable in understanding human behavior. Freud emphasized the dynamic quality of the self which motivated human behavior. Rogers (1951) and Maslow (1954), with their emphasis on personal growth and self-actualization, have presented a humanistic view of self-concept. Kelly (1955), with his emphasis on the unique way in which each individual views his world, and Diggory (1966), with his emphasis on the way in which individuals evaluate themselves,

have influenced self-concept research by emphasizing the cognitive dimensions of self. Each of these approaches to self-concept has contributed to our understanding of self-concept as "a unique factor in human experience and a powerful influence on human behavior" (Felker, 1974, p. 22).

From the many definitions of self-concept found in the literature, Quandt's definition has been chosen for the purposes of this paper. He stated, "the term self-concept refers to all the perceptions individuals have of themselves; especially emphasized are individuals' perceptions of their value and ability" (1984, p.1). Quandt explained that there are two aspects of self-concept about which most psychologists appear to agree:

1. The perceptions of self that individuals have include their views of themselves as compared to others (self-perception); their views of how others see them (self-other perception); and their views of how they wish they could be (self-ideal);

2. The perceptions of self that individuals have are largely based on the experiences they have had with those people who are important to them

(significant others). Thus, such people can effect change in individuals' self-concept.

In his book, Essays Into Literacy, Smith (1983) argued that most children are capable of much more than they achieve at school. He says children themselves should expect to become much more competent readers and writers than they usually turn out to be.

William W. Purkey in his Self-Concept and School Achievement stated:

> For generations, wise teachers have sensed the significant and positive relationships between a student's concept of himself and his performance in school. They believed that the students who feel good about themselves and their abilities are the ones who are most likely to succeed (1970, p. 14).

In addition, many authors have identified self-concept as an essential and influential part of human personality and behavior (Chapman & Boersma, 1979; Combs, 1962; Coopersmith, 1967; Gergen, 1971; Hamachek, 1978 and Purkey, 1970, 1978). According to Purkey et al. (1984), it appears that self-concept

is learned. By the time a child reaches school age,
the self-concept is already developed and functioning.
Purkey maintains:

> All later experiences will be filtered
> through this self-concept. As this
> filtering process takes place, the
> self-concept itself is gradually altered.
> A major way the self-concept is altered
> is through the addition of self-concept
> as learner (p. 3).

Although the child at the time of beginning
school has already developed a relatively stable
self-concept that has been formed by vital preschool
experiences, the impact of school experiences on
the self-concept must not be underestimated. When
children enter schools they assume attitudes, opinions
and beliefs that relate directly to school achievement
and direct their behavior in school. This aspect
of self-concept has been referred to by Purkey et
al. (1984) as self-concept as learner and by Brookover
(1964) as self-concept of ability.

In terms of language learning and literacy
development children with positive self-concepts
as learners will perceive themselves as capable of

performing at normal or superior levels. These
positive self-perceptions enhance their opportunities
to learn to read and write well. Children with
negative self-concepts as learners will perceive
themselves as incapable, so they may be unable to
perform at normal levels. These negative
self-perceptions may interfere with the ability to
learn to read and write.

As has been shown, self-concept plays a critical
role in determining students' development of language
learning and literacy. Thus, it is important for
teachers to evaluate how students see themselves
as learners and to provide an environment with
experiences that will create positive self-concepts
in all students.

The Influence of Parents and Teachers as Significant Others in Learning to Read and Write

Sullivan (1947) initiated the phrase "significant
others" to refer to people who play an important
part in a child's development. Brookover (1962)
stated "that people significant or important to another
person can profoundly influence that person's concept
of self" (p. 10). The positive relationship between

self-concept of academic ability and perceived evaluations by significant others was indicated by research carried out by Brookover, Thomas & Patterson (1964). Singh (1972) provided a review of studies that support this theoretical position. Clarke (1960) investigated the relationship between college academic performance and expectancies and reported a positive relationship between students' academic performance and the academic expectations held by significant others as perceived by them. Staines' study (1956) demonstrated that the self-concepts of students were changed when their teachers, as significant others, made positive comments to them and created an atmosphere which provided psychological security. In another study conducted by Davidson and Lang (1960) it was found that children's perception of teachers' feelings toward them correlated positively and significantly with the children's self-perception. Studies by Miyamoto and Dornbuch (1956) and Reeder, Donahue & Biblarg (1960) demonstrated a positive relationship between self-concept and perceived evaluations by significant others.

Research makes clear the important role that parents play in the development of the child's

self-concept. Summerlin & Ward (1978), state: "Child development authorities have generally accepted the assumption that parents exert the original and perhaps the most significant influence on the development of the child's present and future emotional health" (p. 227).

Purkey (1970) believed that "together the mother and father are critical in molding and maintaining the child's self-image" (p. 32). Manis (1958) reported from his research that a child's level of self-regard is closely associated with his parents' reported level of regard for him. Similar findings by Davidson and Lang (1960), Shaw and Dutton (1965), and Myers (1966) strongly suggest that a child's behavior is a function of the expectations of others who are significant to him.

To assess the impact of parents on children's achievement, self-concept and related beliefs, Parsons et al. (1982) studied children in grades five to 11 and their parents. They found that the children's attitudes were influenced more by their parents' attitudes about their abilities than by their own past performances. Also, the parents who participated in a parent group - STEP (Systematic Training

Effectiveness Parenting) - showed differences in parental attitudes and the children of these parents showed differences in self-concept (Summerlin & Ward, 1978). These results suggested that the treatment effect experienced by the parents was communicated to their children and resulted in a higher self-concept.

Brookover and his six colleagues (1966) attempted to relate evaluation of significant others (parents, experts, and counsellors) to self-perception of ability and school achievement. They found that positive communication from parents relative to a child's ability led to a significant increment in both self-perception of ability and grade-point average. Communication from experts and counsellors did not, however, have a significant effect on either variable. Brookover's group concluded that it is more efficacious to work through established significant others such as parents than to develop new significant others as bases of influence.

In her review of research on parent involvement Becher (1984) states:

> The important role of the parents,
> family and home in determining children's

cognitive development and achievement
has been documented in numerous studies.
In addition, it has been shown that
such factors are far more important
and influential than school factors
for such development (p. 2).

She identified naturally occurring behaviors
of parents and aspects of the home environment that
have been associated with the development of
intelligence, competence and achievement in children.
First, children with higher scores on measures of
achievement, competence, and intelligence had parents
who held higher educational expectations and
aspirations for them than did parents of children
who did not score as high. Parents of the former
children also exerted more pressure for achievement,
provided more academic guidance, and exhibited a
higher level of general interest in their children.
Second, parents of children with higher scores had
considerably more interactions that were responsive
to children or contingent upon their responses than
did parents whose children did not score as high.
Third, children with higher scores had parents who
had perceptions of themselves as "teachers" of their

children stronger than those of parents with lower-scoring children. Fourth, children with higher scores had parents who acted as stronger models of learning and achievement for their children than did parents of children who did not score as high. And, finally, higher-scoring children came from homes in which there was considerably more reinforcement of school behavior than was the case for children who did not score as high.

In addition to the research on the mediating aspects of family and home environments associated with the development of competence, intelligence and achievement in children, Becher summarized a large body of research assessing the effect of parent education programs on such development. She said that there is considerable evidence indicating that parent education programs are effective in improving the intellectual functioning of children, as measured primarily by standardized intelligence tests. There is also evidence that the gains achieved have been sustained for at least 1 year, and in several cases for 3, 4 and 5 years following completion of the

program. Furthermore, there is substantial evidence that parent education programs are effective in improving children's language performance, their performance on standardized achievement tests, and their general school behavior. In addition, parent education programs have produced significant positive changes in (a) parents' teaching styles, (b) their interactions with their children, and (c) their provision of more stimulating home learning environments.

Research indicates the importance of the role of parents in the lives of their children. Parents have a significant influence on their children's development and education. They are their children's first teachers and school educators have much to learn from the teaching strategies used (most times unconsciously) in the home. Educators must acknowledge the crucial role of parents, and help them to be aware of, or more certain about, the positive influences and impact they have on their children. A closer relationship needs to exist between home and school, even to the point of parent education programs, in order to develop the learning potential of the home environment.

The Influence of Attitude on Learning to Read and Write

For the purposes of this study, attitude is defined as the liking or disliking of a given subject in school. The importance of attitude to learning is emphasized by various writers. Combs (1982) considered student attitudes to be an important facet of the learning process and he believed that they must be included in educational planning and practice; and students who value reading are likely to be more effective learners of that subject. Athey (1970) believed attitudinal factors are variables important to the study of reading. Matthewson (1976) proposed a model for the reading process which clearly showed the importance of attitude to reading. Lueers (1983) explained the importance of attitudinal and motivational factors to the study of reading. He commented:

> What we have an interest in is that
> to which we attend. If attitudinal
> and motivational factors do affect
> that which we perceive and attend to,
> then they will also indirectly affect
> the information received by an individual

into one's cognitive structure or
long-term memory and will, in turn,
affect the information already available
in the cognitive structure to be operated
upon (p. 82).

Lueers (1983) synthesized several reading theories
into a more comprehensive framework - the Short Circuit
Model of reading, in an attempt to include a number
of different factors of the reading process into
one model. She says all of these factors - linguistic,
sociocultural, neurological, perceptual and cognitive,
affect attitude and motivation. However, to show
the importance of attitude and motivation, they have
been pictured in the model in the form of a "plug".
Lueers explained: "Without the appropriate attitude
and necessary motivation the system will not be forced
into its operating state. An individual must become
"plugged-into" the Print Setting for the reading
process even to occur" (p. 89).

According to Alexander & Filler (1976) relatively
little research has been done on the relationship
between attitudes toward reading and achievement
in reading. They reviewed the limited amount of
available information - (Askov & Fischbach, 1973;

Bernstein, 1972; Groff, 1962; Healy, 1963, 1965; Johnson, 1965; and Ransbury, 1973) and made these conclusive statements:

1. Some children may perceive that their ability to read is responsible for their attitude, thus making reading improvement programs a high priority for some underachievers;

2. The attitudes of the reader toward the material may affect his level of comprehension of that material;

3. The development of more favorable attitudes may result, for some students, in increased achievement and more reading that may be maintained over time;

4. For some students, a positive attitude toward reading in the lower grades may not be self-maintaining and may lessen over time. Attention to attitude development and maintenance is important at all levels; and

5. Although relationships are sometimes found between achievement and attitudes, there is not always a positive correlation between high achievement and favorable attitudes (p. 5,6).

Heathington and Alexander (1978) investigated the characteristics of positive and negative attitudes toward reading. They interviewed · 60 children individually ranging from first to sixth grade. The comments supplied through these individual interviews were used to construct a quick assessment checklist for teachers to use in observing children's attitudes toward reading. It is a listing of behaviors children themselves feel are indicative of positive and negative attitudes toward reading.

In a study to determine what factors influence reading attitudes, Callaway (1981) surveyed 223 college students. To help the students recall what affected their reading habits when they were younger, they were asked what, if any, factors "turned them off" or "turned them on" to reading in school and in the home. The results indicated that, in school, the nature of the material was not as important as the way the teacher dealt with that material to positively affect students. Oral reading, especially of the "round robin" type, had a negative effect as did the difficulty of the material, how boring it was, isolated drills, and material that was irrelevant.

Investigations by Mosenthal (1983) and Reynolds (1978) also indicated that more than text or reader variables affect reading. They reported that teacher ideology and classroom social situations contribute to reading attitudes.

In a more recent study, Shadle (1985) explored the effects of a school sponsored home reading program on students' attitudes toward reading, reading habits and reading comprehension. The study was conducted in a middle-class suburban school and included 96 grade three students, 95 grade four students and 94 grade five students. All students were randomly assigned, approximately half to the treatment group and the remainder to the control group. Both groups were given a pretest to measure their attitude, reading habits and reading comprehension.

In the classrooms of the treatment students, a school sponsored home reading program was established. This program required parents to read to or with their children for 15 minutes a day, five days out of seven. A home reading record was maintained. Students in the control group had no school sponsored home reading program.

At the conclusion of the study a posttest was given and the results showed a significant difference in favor of the treatment group. Shadle inferred that the school sponsored home reading had a highly positive effect on student reading achievement, student reading habits and student attitude toward reading.

Roberts (1985), attempting to ascertain the relationship between classroom instructional factors and reading attitude, achievement and involvement, reported that classroom teacher instructional factors appeared to have a greater influence on reading achievement than did pupil attitude and/or pupil involvement.

Seaton and Aaron (1978) conducted an investigation with 523 students in grades three to seven. They tried to determine if teachers' positive reinforcing behaviors toward pupils would affect their attitudes toward reading. The results showed no significant correlation between the variables and the authors concluded that the time frame of the treatment was too short to affect such a complex construct as attitude.

With so few studies available, it is difficult
to make valid generalizations about attitudes and
reading. It appears that some instructional programs
can, but do not necessarily affect attitudes. Although
research results are inconclusive, the important
role of attitude in education has been established.

Summary of the Literature Review

The primary aim of education is to help children
become literate adults. Traditionally, many teachers
have believed that reading and writing should be
segmented into separate skills for instruction and
practice in order to gain mastery with language.
But there is a growing awareness among educators
today that only the motivated use of language for
real and worthwhile purposes can lead to full potential
in language development.

The literature reviewed indicates that reading
and writing should develop naturally, the same as
learning to walk or talk. All language use in the
classroom should be meaningful and functional to
the child, with the child exercising as much control
as is feasible over his/her learning. Parents should
be involved in the literacy development of their

children. They should interact in a non-directive, accepting manner, helping their child to test hypotheses and develop competence.

Parents and teachers must work together to ensure that both school and home are places where children can use speaking, reading and writing to do the things they want to do. It is not the task of educators to teach children to read and write, but to create an environment in which reading and writing can occur naturally. Teachers and parents need to be there to listen to what children say, to answer their questions, guide them in solving their problems, and promote their learning about the world in which they live.

CHAPTER III

DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to implement and evaluate a program designed to integrate reading and writing instruction. The program activities focused on the reading and writing of books. In school and at home, children in the study read or listened to well-written books selected from children's literature. They were encouraged to become authors and write their own stories. Parents helped in typing and laminating the children's books. "Published" books were read to the class by the child-authors and displayed along side the commercial books. This program was expected to help children become better readers with more favorable attitudes towards reading, writing and learning. This chapter will provide a description of the research study and its constituent elements.

Research Design

This study was designed as a case study. After an extensive literature review it was concluded that

the more students use reading and writing together, the more they learn from both. The researcher was faced with the question of how to explore the outcomes of teaching reading and writing together. The research strategy chosen to best do this was the case study.

Case Study Research

Case study research provides a way of investigating the how and why of teaching reading and writing together. The essence of a case study, according to Schramm (1971), "is that it illuminates a decision or set of decisions: why they were taken, how they were implemented, and with what result" (cited in Yin 1984 p. 22, 23). In this study, the "decision" was to teach reading and writing conjointly, and the investigator reviewed the work of previous researchers in the field and reported it as a review of the literature to support this decision, devised procedures to implement an appropriate program of reading and writing, and selected instruments and techniques to evaluate the results.

Yin (1984) maintains the case study has a distinctive place in evaluation research and Merriam (1985) describes it as the approach that is best suited for investigating questions important to

education. Both authors argue for the use of a case study approach in educational research where questions of meaning and process can be answered only through understanding the context in which they exist.

In this study the major contribution of case study methodology was the generation of insights into the exploration and description of the relationships between reading and writing. It was a goal of the researcher/teacher to design a reliable case study so that if tested in the future through replications, the theories of this case study might be expanded and generalized.

Definition of Terms

Reading achievement

In reference to this study, reading achievement pertains specifically to the students' scores for the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test, Level B. The pretest, Level B, form 1, was administered in the fall of the school year and the posttest, Level B, form 2, was administered in the spring. The pretest score on the reading achievement test was assumed to represent how well a student comprehended what he/she read before the treatment began. The posttest

score on the reading achievement test was assumed to represent how well a student comprehended what he/she read upon completion of the treatment.

Self-concept

For the purposes of this study self-concept is defined as the student's perception of himself/herself as a learner and as measured by the rating assigned to a student by the teacher on the 23 items of the Florida KEY. The teacher observed students' behaviors in the classroom in relation to four factors involved in the scale. These factors are: relating, asserting, investing and coping.

Attitude

Attitudes have been defined in various ways. For the purposes of this study, attitude is defined as a liking or disliking of a given subject.

Reading attitude

Attitude toward reading is defined in this study as the feelings students have toward three dimensions of reading as measured by a 15-item reading assessment. These dimensions include the following:

1. Overall attitude toward reading,

2. Attitude toward reading difficulties,

3. Attitude toward recreational reading.

Writing attitude

Attitude toward writing is defined in this study as the feelings students have toward three dimensions of writing as measured by a 15-item writing assessment. These dimensions include the following:

1. Overall attitude toward writing,

2. Attitude toward writing difficulties,

3. Attitude concerning why we learn to write.

Assumptions

The major assumptions behind this study are:

1. Students performed in a cooperative manner and tried to do their best on the pre and post-reading achievement tests;

2. The self-concept scale is a valid and reliable technique to infer learner self-concept;

3. The classroom teacher, and cooperating teacher, through direct observation and experience of working with children, were capable of reliably rating each student on the self-concept scale;

4. The reading assessment and the writing assessment were significant measures of student attitude toward reading and student attitude toward writing; and

5. Students were capable of answering the reading and writing assessments honestly.

Objectives of the Integrated Reading and Writing Program

1. To inform parents about the approach to reading and writing used by the teacher so they will be able to support the child's efforts at home.

2. To stimulate children's interest in reading by providing good children's literature and daily reading time.

3. To allow children choices of what to read, and whether to read alone or with friend(s).

4. To establish a daily routine in which children choose their own book for reading at home.

5. To stimulate children's interest in writing by providing writing time every day and allowing them to choose which pieces will be published.

6. To allow children to choose their own topics for writing.

7. To help children see themselves as authors by publishing the stories and poems they write.

8. To encourage children and parents to make homemade books of the stories they write at home.

9. To provide a special space and time for the child-author to share his/her "published" book with the class.

10. To display the children's homemade and school-made books alongside the commercially published books in the classroom.

11. To conduct frequent reading and writing conferences with each child.

12. To conduct frequent individual and group conferences with parents.

Subjects

The subjects for this study were children in a grade two English class at Holy Cross Primary. Holy Cross Primary is one of the inner city schools administrated by the Roman Catholic School Board in St. John's, Newfoundland. The school has a population of about 650 pupils and offers programs in English and French Immersion. The English section has four streams from kindergarten to grade two. The French Immersion section has two streams from kindergarten to grade four. The opinion has been expressed by some teachers and parents of Holy Cross Primary that the French Immersion program attracts most of the children from families with good socioeconomic backgrounds but there has been no official statement to support this claim.

The class studied had 26 children with 12 girls and 14 boys. The children were assigned to this group by their grade one teachers. A relatively small number of children were identified as being either above grade level or below grade level and most of them were identified as working at grade level.

Instruments

Gates-MacGinitie Standardized Reading Tests

The Gates-MacGinitie Reading Tests were used to obtain scores for vocabulary, comprehension and grade equivalents for each child. A pretest, Level B, form 1 was administered in October and a posttest, Level B, form 2, was administered in May.

The Florida KEY

The Florida KEY, an instrument to infer student self-concept as learner in grades one through six, was completed by the teacher and cooperating teacher for each student in October and again in May. The Florida KEY was chosen as the most suitable and efficient way to evaluate how the student perceived his or her learner self. There has been considerable debate among researchers about the measurement of the self-concept. As pointed out by Wylie (1961, 1979), existing self-concept scales are inadequate for valid measurement, especially in studies involving children.

Generally, researchers have used three techniques: self-report; inference based on the observation of behavior; and inference based on projective techniques. Even though many researchers have based their studies

on the assumption that self-reporting by the subject is the most valid and reliable method of evaluation, some critics of this maintain that while the self-concept is what an individual believes about himself, the self-report is only what he is willing and able to disclose to someone else (Purkey, 1970).

Many of the self-report scales reviewed by this researcher were designed for children of age nine or older. Of the few available for younger children none was found, in the opinion of this researcher, to use language suitable to the grade two child.

Combs (1965) advocated perception of the student's self-concept by observing his/her behavior. Courson (1965) has shown that drawing inferences from students' behavior can be a valuable scientific tool. Purkey, Cage & Graves (1973) devised and validated a scale (the Florida KEY) which classroom teachers could use to infer pupils' self-concept as learners, without relying on self-reports. The KEY contains 23 interrogative items that describe student behavior in a classroom. Contextually, the items identify

behaviors that occur more often by students who have a good self-concept as learner. Factor analyses by Fahey (1983) and Purkey, Cage & Graves (1973) have supported the factor structure of the scale; relating, asserting, investing and coping. Relating reflects a basic trust in people; asserting suggests a trust in one's own value; investing implies a trust in one's potential; and coping indicates a trust in one's own academic ability. The four factors of the scale support the position that when a child relates well in school, is able to assert thoughts and feelings, feels free to invest in class and activities, and confidently seeks to cope with the challenges and expectations of school, then this child may be said to possess a "good" self-concept as learner. For the purposes of this study only the total scores were analyzed.

Reading Assessment and Writing Assessment

The Reading Assessment and the Writing Assessment (Anderson, 1982) were completed by each student as pretests in October and as posttests in May.

After a thorough search of the Educational Research Information Center (ERIC) and a review of

all attitude measures for elementary children listed
in Buros (1978) _Mental Measurements Yearbook_ no
satisfactory measure of reading and writing attitude
was found. Therefore, this writer chose two unnormed
assessments designed by Anderson (1982) as the most
suitable for the purposes of this study.

The _Reading Assessment_ and the _Writing Assessment_
each has 15 items. They are Likert type scales with
three answer choices for each item: Yes, Not Sure,
and No. The format of each assessment was designed
for young children, with items balanced among three
categories selected to assess reading attitudes:

(i)   overall attitude toward reading,

(ii)   attitude toward reading difficulties,

(iii) attitude toward recreational reading;

and three categories selected to assess writing
attitudes:

(i)   overall attitude toward writing,

(ii)   attitude toward writing difficulties, and

(iii) attitude concerning why we learn to write.

Items from these various categories are listed randomly
throughout each assessment.

Reliability of these instruments was established
using Cronbach's alpha internal consistency reliability
coefficients (Anderson, 1982, p. 52).

Validity of these instruments was established by experts in the fields of reading and language arts from the University of Kansas (Anderson, 1982).

Parent Reaction Questionnaire

A brief questionnaire designed by the researcher/teacher was used to report parents' reactions to the program. It was completed by the parents of the subjects at the end of the program. A copy of this questionnaire is in Appendix C page 183.

Procedure

This study was of eight months duration from early October to late May. In carrying out this study a number of steps were followed:

1. During the first week of October the pretests for reading achievement, reading attitude and writing attitude were administered, and each teacher independently rated the students on the self-concept scale. These pretests and ratings were collected and held until the conclusion of the study. In this way neither the teacher/researcher nor the cooperating teacher was specifically aware of students' scores, attitudes or ratings. During the last week of May

the posttests were administered and the second ratings on the self-concept scale were completed. Then both the pretests and posttests were scored and the ratings were calculated and compared.

2. The teacher and parents met in October for two workshop sessions where parents were given the opportunity to learn the philosophy of the program and the practical aspects of being facilitators in their children's reading and writing development. One of the aims of this reading and writing program — to give pleasure and inspire confidence about learning in general but reading and writing in particular — was emphasized. Parents were shown how to provide an environment in which the child is encouraged to direct his/her own learning and courageously take risks in reading and writing.

3. An area in the classroom was designated as the reading area. Special to this area was the "Author's Chair" (a technique used successfully by Graves & Hansen, 1983). When the teacher read a book, or a child read a book, he/she was seated on the Author's Chair with the class assembled in front on the floor. A routine was established so that the audience, after the reading of any book, responded by complimenting,

making suggestions and asking questions of the author.
When the author was not present, as in the case of
a commercially produced book, the children speculated
as to how the author might answer the questions.

4. Each day the teacher read to the class and there
was a free reading period. In addition, children
chose a book to take home that night. Books were
available in the classroom and came from four sources.
Each child selected and borrowed two books from the
school resource center. These books were displayed
in the classroom and replaced by the children every
sixth school day. The teacher selected 30 books
from the A.C. Hunter Library, St. John's, and 30
books from the Gosling Memorial Library, St. John's.
These books were replaced by the teacher every three
weeks of the study. The teacher also selected some
books, as necessary, from the Curriculum Materials
Centre, Memorial University. Because of the
restriction of a three-day lending period, these
latter books were chosen only if they were unavailable
at the other centers.

The teacher selected appropriate books with
respect to quality, interest and suitability. The
following resources were used to help in this
selection:

(i)   Huck, C.S. (1979) <u>Children's Literature in the Elementary School</u>. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

(ii) Egoff, S. (1975) <u>The Republic of Childhood</u>. Toronto.

(iii) <u>Canadian Children's Literature</u>. Quarterly. Box 335, Guelph, Ont.

(iv) The professional librarians at the A.C. Hunter Library and the Gosling Memorial Library and the teacher/librarian at Holy Cross Primary.

To develop the concept of author, and to familiarize the students with accomplished authors of children's literature, the teacher selected several titles by the same author at one time. For example, for a three week period, several books by Paul Galdone were included in the 60 books displayed by the teacher in the classroom. (See Appendix B page 174 for other authors highlighted in this way.)

5. A routine was established in which two children read to the class daily from commercially published books. When children found a book that they wanted to read to the class, they chose an available day on a displayed schedule for reading times. They were encouraged to prepare at home for this special oral reading.

6. All parents were encouraged to facilitate their children's reading development by reading to their children and/or listening to them read. The first workshop with parents informed them of the (reading approach to be used in the integrated reading and writing program. They were given reading techniques to use at home. (See Appendix B page 171.)

7. There was a writing period every day when the child was encouraged to write a story. Emphasis was placed on meaning and communication rather than technical skills. The teacher never assigned a topic of writing but made suggestions (see pages 117, 118), especially for children who were reticent. At first, the writing periods seemed long and relatively unproductive for some children but the teacher chose one story from the beginning sessions that had a plot or organization suitable to make into a little book. She typed the text, had the author illustrate it and then laminated it. The "published" book was then read to the class by the child-author. This celebration of child-author encouraged and motivated the other children to become authors. It was expected that as the children's notion of author changed from a vague idea about some other person who writes books

to the perception of themselves as authors they would be brought to an understanding of the publishing process of write, proofread, revise, edit, print, illustrate and laminate.

8.   All parents were encouraged to facilitate their children's writing development by making books at home.   These homemade books were celebrated through the same process of sharing with the class.   The second workshop with parents informed them of the writing approach to be used in the integrated reading and writing program.   They were given materials and writing techniques to use at home.   (See Appendix B pages 172, 173.)

9.   The teacher used individual conferences to discuss with the children their activities in reading and writing.   These conferences, although some were brief, along with the child's daily writing samples and silent and oral reading activities, were the basis for anecdotal reports that were kept for each child. This regularly collected data helped the teacher to identify children's strengths and weaknesses. It enabled the teacher to provide instruction when it was needed by the children and meaningful to them. Instruction was given to an individual, small group or whole group.

10. The teacher and parents met once during the months of November to March and once again in May. The purpose of these meetings was to discuss the reading and writing program and the progress of the students. Time was made available for private interviews as needed.

11. Upon completion of the program an open-ended questionnaire was used to assess parents' reaction to the program. This data reported parents' perceptions of the children's interest in reading and writing and their comments about the year's work.

12. A variety of informal information through observation and conversation was gathered during this study. Some of this is included in the discussion of the results.

Collection of Data

Reading Achievement

The Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test, Level B, form 1 was administered as a pretest to all the subjects during the first week in October. During the last week of May, the subjects were given the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test, Level B, form 2 as the posttest and as a means of calculating and

comparing the gains made by the subjects. Both forms of the test were administered strictly according to the instructions in the publisher's manual and scored by hand using the scoring keys provided.

Reading and Writing Attitude

The Reading Assessment and the Writing Assessment forms were completed by each subject as a pretest during the first week of October and as a posttest during the last week of May. These assessments were reported using bar item analyses to depict any changes in attitude.

Self-Concept

The Florida KEY was completed by the teacher and cooperating teacher for each subject during the first week of October and again during the last week of May. The teachers' ratings of each subject were reported and any changes in student behavior in the classroom were calculated and compared.

Parental Involvement and Reaction

Parental involvement in the meetings and workshops was observed by the researcher throughout the study

and a questionnaire designed by the researcher requesting their reaction to the program was administered in late May. These observations and parent comments are described in an analysis of the study.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF THE FINDINGS

Introduction

This study set out to explore the relationships between reading and writing; to investigate and describe the effect of an integrated reading and writing program on reading achievement, reading attitude, writing attitude, and self-concept as learner; and to report parents' involvement in and reaction to the program. To this end an integrated reading and writing program was implemented in a grade two classroom and evaluated using a case study design to report the results. The research was based on the following four questions. Does the integrated reading and writing program provide:

1. improved students' performance in reading?

2. improved students' self-concepts as learners?

3. improved students' attitudes towards reading?

4. improved students' attitudes towards writing?

The investigation also sought to explore relationships between reading achievement and (1) self-concept, (2) attitudes towards reading, (3) attitudes towards writing and (4) parental involvement.

This chapter is divided into seven major topics. The first four topics present the findings that relate to each of the research questions of this study. The fifth topic reports parents' involvement in and reaction to the program. The sixth topic presents statistical measures of the degree of relationship between reading achievement and the four variables under investigation. Additionally, the effects of the program in relation to gender, level of performance and level of parental involvement is presented. The final topic presents the teacher/researcher perceptions of the program.

Reading Achievement

Question #1: Does the integrated reading and writing program provide improved students' performance in reading?

Parallel forms of the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Tests, Level B, for pre and post tests of student reading achievement, were administered according to the guidelines stated in Chapter 3.

Since there was no control group, this case study compared gains in reading achievement with the test results of the standardization group. This

was judged to be capable of reflecting the program's effect on reading achievement. The data collected were analyzed and indicated improved students' performance in the Vocabulary Tests and in the Comprehension Tests.

An analysis of variance confirmed that gains in comprehension were statistically significant (.04) and gains in vocabulary were noteworthy (.07).

When the raw scores of all subjects were compared with the standardized norms for the tests, it was shown that the mean Vocabulary score in this study increased from a position of 6.4 below the Canadian national mean to 4.5 below it. The Comprehension mean showed greater improvement, going from 8.5 below to 1.8 below the Canadian national mean for that test.

Raw scores for reading achievement of each subject are presented in Appendix A (page 158). Table 1 shows a comparison of group mean scores and the standardized norms for the tests.

TABLE 1

Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test - Level B

Mean Scores

| | Vocabulary | | Comprehension | |
	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Study Group	13.6	26.5	11.5	27.2
Normed Group	20	31	20	29
Difference	-6.4	-4.5	-8.5	-1.8

Grade equivalent (GE) scores for the reading tests were calculated. The GE scale of the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Tests reflects the yearly growth of achievement of average students, and is most meaningful for students who are reading at grade level. The expected growth in achievement for these students is approximately seven months between October and May. For students in grade two and with a GE of 2.1 in October, the expected GE in May is 2.8. (The whole number in a GE represents the grade; the decimal fraction represents a month in the school year.) The authors of the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Tests state: "the nature of average dictates that about half the students in a typical class will have scores that are above the national average, and about

half will have scores that are below the national average" (p. 33). In a typical grade two class in October, about half the students will obtain GEs above 2.1 and about half will obtain GEs below 2.1. In a typical grade two class in May, about half the students will obtain GEs above 2.8 and about half will obtain GEs below 2.8.

A ranking and comparison of GEs for the Vocabulary scores of the study group indicated improved reading achievement. The pretest data showed 21 students below the 2.1 Canadian national average and 5 students at or above the national average. The posttest data placed 18 students below and 8 students above the 2.8 Canadian national average.

A comparison of the Comprehension GEs also indicated improved reading achievement. The pretest data placed 23 students below and 3 students above the Canadian national average while the posttest data placed 15 students below and 11 students above the national average.

GEs for each subject are presented in Appendix A (page 159). Figures 1 and 2 show a comparison of group GEs and the standardized norms for the tests. Although posttest results indicate the group under

FIGURE 1

GATES-MACGINITIE READING TEST - LEVEL B
COMPARISON OF GES WITH STANDARDIZATION GROUP MEAN

VOCABULARY

Pretest   Posttest

6.0

5.0

4.0

⊖ indicates mean of
standardization group

Grade
Level

✝ indicates one student

3.0

Note:
students reading at a
level below that recorded
in the norms are placed
below zero grade level

2.0

1.0

0

FIGURE 2

GATES-MACGINITIE READING TEST - LEVEL B
COMPARISON OF GES WITH STANDARDIZATION GROUP MEAN

COMPREHENSION

Pretest   Posttest

6.0

5.0

4.0

Grade
Level

indicates mean of
standardization group

3.0

indicates one student

Note:
students reading at a
level below that recorded
in the norms are placed
below zero grade level

2.0

1.0

0

investigation achieved at a level below that which is expected for the typical grade two class, as represented in the norms, gains measured in grade equivalents evidenced improved reading in vocabulary and comprehension.

GEs were also used to calculate each subject's reading growth (see Appendix A, page 160). Because of extremely low scores in the pretest results the students were divided into three groups:

(1) those reading about at grade level (for whom Level B of the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Tests was most meaningful),

(2) those reading below grade level (for whom Level A of the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Tests would have been more meaningful), and,

(3) those reading at a level below that recorded in the norms (see Table 2).

The mean growth in vocabulary for the group under study was 9.1 months and the mean growth in comprehension was 12.7 months. This growth, compared to the expected seven-month growth, evidenced improved reading achievement for the group under investigation.

TABLE 2

Assignment of Groups (Gates-MacGinitie)

Reading Achievement

Student No.	GE for Total Score (Pretest)	
1	2.7	
2	2.5	
3	2.3	
4	2.0	Group 1 (About grade level)
5	1.9	
6	1.8	
7	1.7	
8	1.6	
9	1.6	
10	1.6	
11	1.6	
12	1.5	Group 2 (Below grade level)
13	1.5	
14	1.5	
15	1.5	
16	1.4	
17	-	
18	-	
19	-	
20	-	
21	-	Group 3 (Below level recorded
22	-	in the norms)
23	-	
24	-	
25	-	
26	-	

The seven students in group 1 showed an average reading growth of 12.4 months for vocabulary and 17 months for comprehension. The nine students in group 2 showed an average reading growth of 8.7 months for vocabulary and 11.2 months for comprehension.

Level B of the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Tests did not indicate a GE for ten of the students in the study whose raw scores were extremely low in the pretest. It did indicate, however, that at that time they were all seven months or more below the national average for their grade level. The posttest results showed these students had an average reading growth of at least 7.1 months for vocabulary and 11.1 months for comprehension.

Table 3 presents the reading growth and means for each group of subjects.

TABLE 3

Reading Growth (in months)

	Vocabulary	Comprehension
Whole Group	9.1	12.7
Subgroup 1	12.4	17
Subgroup 2	8.7	11.2
Subgroup 3	7.1	11.1

The integrated reading and writing program provided improved students' performance in reading. Analysis of pre and post tests of student reading achievement and comparison with the test results of the standardization group indicated improved performance in reading for the group of students in this study.

Self-Concept as Learners

Question #2: Does the integrated reading and writing program provide improved students' self-concept as learners?

To evaluate how each student perceived his or her self as learner at the beginning and end of the integrated reading and writing program, the teacher and a cooperating teacher (acting as inter-rater), completed the <u>Florida KEY</u> in relation to each student. The <u>KEY</u> contains 23 interrogative items that describe student behavior in a classroom. Each item of the <u>KEY</u> was rated in accordance with a 0-5 point scale and scores for the 23 items were totalled and recorded in the direction of high, moderate and low learner self-concepts. If a student scores highly on the <u>Florida KEY</u>, it can be assumed that this person possesses a good self-concept as learner. Similarly, if the score is low, it may be assumed that the student possesses a negative self-concept as learner. High, moderate or low learner self-concept is determined in accordance with Table 4 below.

TABLE 4

Total Score for the Florida KEY Learner Self-Concept

Score	High	Moderate	Low
Range	81-115	35-80	0-34

Appendix A (page 161) presents the _Florida KEY_
scores for each student at the beginning and at the
end of the program. Each student was assigned an
overall rating of low, moderate or high self-concept
as learner by each observer. Using the Pearson
product-moment coefficient of correlation, the
inter-rater agreement was found to be reliable (r=.90).

Appendix A (page 162) presents Florida KEY scores
that were obtained by averaging the scores of both
observers. A comparison of these scores (see Table
5) showed improved self-concept as learners for 88.5%
of the students.

TABLE 5

Florida KEY

	High	Moderate	Low	Mean
October	3	22	1	56.2
May	12	12	2	74.9

Scores from the behavior observed in October indicated
a mean score of 56.2 (mid-moderate self-concept as
learners) and a range of 62 points. Scores calculated
for student behavior in May showed that the mean
score increased to 74.9 (high-moderate self-concept
as learners) and the range to 80 points. Using October
ratings, the KEY identified three students exhibiting
behavior related to a high self-concept as learner,
22 students exhibiting behavior related to a moderate
learner self-concept and one student with a low learner
self-concept. The ratings in May showed improved
self-concepts as learners for all students except
three. One of these latter students was assigned
the same rating before and after the program while
the other two showed a decrease of nine and ten points
respectively on the scale. The rest of the 23 students
showed an average increase of 22 points on the scale.
These gains, however, were not statistically
significant.

Attitudes Towards Reading

Question #3: Does the integrated reading and writing
program provide improved students' attitudes towards
reading?

The Reading Assessment (Anderson, 1982) was administered to all students according to the guidelines stated in Chapter 3. The fifteen-item assessment examined student attitudes in three areas which included: (1) overall reading attitude, (2) attitude towards reading difficulty, and (3) attitude towards recreational reading. A score of 15 was possible for each area.

Items on the assessment were worded either positively or negatively. Scoring was done quantitatively with each item carrying a negative or positive weight. For positively stated items, a YES answer was assigned three points, a NOT SURE was assigned two points, and a NO answer was given one point. For negatively stated items, a YES answer was one point, a NOT SURE answer was worth two points, and a NO answer was given three points. A total of 45 points was possible.

Example:	YES	NOT SURE	NO
6. Most books are too long.	1	2	3
8. There are lots of books I want to read.	3	2	1

Table 6 shows the response values assigned to each item on the Reading Assessment. The scores for each student are reported in Appendix A, page 163.

TABLE 6

Reading Assessment

Items	Response Value		
The positive items:	YES	NOT SURE	NO
3,5,8,10,12,13,15	3	2	1
The negative items:			
1,2,4,6,7,9,11,14	1	2	3

Improved attitude was reflected in all areas of the assessment and 84.6% of students reported improved attitudes towards reading with a mean gain of 4.2 points. Students showed most improvement in attitude for the first dimension, Overall Reading Attitude. A difference of 2.9 was found between the pretest and posttest means. Mean gains of 1.7 and 1.9 were found for the other dimensions, Attitude Toward Reading Difficulties and Attitude Towards Recreational Reading.

Figures 3, 4 and 5 depict an item analysis of the Reading Assessment. The greatest change in

FIGURE 3


```
30

25  -   -       -   -       -   -       -   -       -   ?
    -   -       -   +       -   ?       -   -       -   +
    -   ?       -   +       -   ?       -   -       -   -
    ?   +       -   +       ?   ?       ?   -       ?   +
20  ?   +       ?   +       ?   +       ?   -       ?   +
    ?   +       ?   +       ?   +       ?   ?       ?   +
    ?   +       ?   +       ?   +       ?   ?       ?   +
    ?   +       ?   +       ?   +       ?   ?       ?   +
15  ?   +       +   +       ?   +       +   +       ?   +
    ?   +       +   +       ?   +       +   +       ?   +
    +   +       +   +       +   +       +   +       +   +
    +   +       +   +       +   +       +   +       +   +
10  +   +       +   +       +   +       +   +       +   +
    +   +       +   +       +   +       +   +       +   -
    +   +       +   +       +   +       +   +       +   +
    +   +       +   +       +   +       +   +       +   +
5   +   +       +   +       +   +       +   +       +   +
    +   +       +   +       +   +       +   +       +   +
    +   +       +   +       +   +       +   +       +   +
    +   +       +   +       +   +       +   +       +   +

   Pre2 Post2  Pre4 Post4  Pre5 Post5  Pre7 Post7  Pre12 Post12
```

+ = favorable
- = unfavorable   Overall Attitude Towards Reading
? = not sure   (Items 2,4,5,7,12)

FIGURE 4

Attitudes Towards Reading Difficulties
(Items 1,6,9,11,14)

+ = favorable
- = unfavorable
? = not sure

FIGURE 5

30

25

20

15

10

5

Pre3 Post3 Pre8 Post8 Pre10 Post10 Pre13 Post13 Pre15 Post15

+ = favorable
- = unfavorable   Attitudes Towards Receational Reading
? = not sure   (Items 3,8,10,13,15)

attitude took place in item 12 ("I like to read"). During the pretest 12 students answered "YES", 4 answered "NO" and 10 were not sure. During the posttest all students, with one exception, answered "YES". One student was not sure.

Responses to items 4 and 13 also showed a consistent positive change in attitude. Item 4 stated: "Reading is a waste of time." In October students' responses were 17-"NO", 5-"YES" and 4-"NOT SURE". May results showed all students except two answered "NO". Item 13 stated: "Reading a book makes me want to read more." Before the program, 14 students answered "YES", 5 answered "NO" and 7 were not sure. After the program all the class responded "YES" except two who answered "NO".

Responses to items 1, 6 and 7 showed little change in attitude. Pretest responses to the statement: "It is hard to figure out new words in stories", (item 1) were 11-"YES", 6-"NO" and 9 "NOT SURE". Posttest responses were 9-"YES", 6-"NO" and 11-"NOT SURE". Item 6 stated: "Most books are too long." Pretest responses were 3-"NO", 6-"YES", and 17-"NOT SURE". Posttest results showed 3-"NO", 7-"YES", and 16-"NOT SURE". Item 7 stated: "I don't

learn anything from free reading." In October, 15 answered "NO", 5 answered "YES" and 6 were not sure. May results were similar with 15-"NO", 7-"YES" and 4-"NOT SURE".

There was a consistent negative change in attitude in only one item. Item 3 stated: "Reading is a good way to spend free time", and of the twenty students who agreed before the program two disagreed and one was not sure after the program was completed. The student who answered "NO" during the pretest showed no change in attitude, but of the five students who were undecided before the program, one showed no change, one disagreed and three agreed.

There was evidence in the literature review to show that positive attitudes towards reading may not be self-maintaining and may lessen over time (Alexander and Filler, 1976; Askov and Fischback, 1973; Bernstein, 1972; Groff, 1962; Healy, 1963, 1965; Johnson, 1965 and Ransbury, 1973). Therefore, even though there was no control group with which to compare the quality of these results, already described, the researcher concluded that students' attitudes towards reading had indeed improved. These gains in attitude towards reading, however, were not statistically significant.

Attitudes Towards Writing

Question #4: Does the integrated reading and writing program provide improved students' attitudes towards writing?

The Writing Assessment (Anderson, 1982) was administered to all students according to the guidelines stated in Chapter 3. The fifteen-item assessment examined student attitudes in three areas which included:

(1) overall writing attitude,

(2) attitude towards writing difficulty, and

(3) attitude concerning purposes for writing.

Scores of 21, 12 and 12 respectively were possible for each area.

Items on the assessment were worded either positively or negatively. Scoring was done quantitatively with each item carrying a negative or positive weight. For positively stated items, a YES answer was assigned three points, a NOT SURE was assigned two points, and a NO answer was given one point. For negatively stated items, a YES answer was one point, a NOT SURE answer was worth two points, and a NO answer was given three points. A total of 45 points was possible.

Example: YES   NOT SURE   NO

6. I can't ever think of
    anything to write about.   1   2   3

8. We ought to spend more
    time at school writing
    stories.   3   2   1

Table 7 shows the response values assigned to each item on the _Writing Assessment_. The scores for each student are reported in Appendix A, page 164.

TABLE 7

Writing Assessment

Items	Response Value		
	YES	NOT SURE	NO
The positive items:			
1,4,8,9,11,13,15	3	2	1
The negative items:			
2,3,5,6,7,10,12,14	1	2	3

Improved attitude towards writing was reflected in all areas of the assessment and 92.3% of students reported improved attitudes towards writing, with

a mean gain of 8.5 points. Students showed most improvement in attitude for the dimension Attitudes Concerning Why We Write, with a mean gain of 3.1. Similar improvement was evident in Overall Writing Attitude with a mean gain of 3. Attitude Towards Writing Difficulties showed a mean gain of 2.4.

Figures 6, 7 and 8 depict an item analysis of the _Writing Assessment_. The greatest change in attitude took place in item 9 ("Whenever I think of an idea, I want to write it down"). During the pretest 8 students answered "YES", 15 answered "NO" and 3 were not sure. During the posttest all the students said "YES" except for two who were undecided.

Responses to items 2 and 1 also showed a consistent positive change in attitude. Item 2 stated: "Writing stories is too hard." In October, students' responses were 8-"YES", 11-"NO" and 7-"NOT SURE". Results of the posttests showed all of the class disagreed except for one student who agreed and one who was not sure. Item 1 stated: "Writing gives me a chance to say what I think." Before the program only four students answered "YES", six answered "NO" and fifteen were not sure. At the end of the program twenty students agreed with the statement, one disagreed and four were undecided.

FIGURE 6

```
30

      -   ?   ?   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -
25 -  -   ?   ?   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   ?   -   -
      -   ?   ?   -   -   ?   -   -   ?   -   -   ?   -   -
      -   ?   ?   +   ?   ?   -   +   ?   +   -   +   ?   -
20    -   +   ?   +   ?   ?   -   +   ?   +   -   +   ?   -
      ?   +   +   +   ?   ?   ?   +   ?   +   ?   +   ?   -
      ?   +   +   +   ?   ?   ?   +   ?   +   ?   +   ?   -
      ?   +   +   +   ?   +   ?   +   ?   +   ?   +   +   ?
15    ?   +   +   +   ?   +   +   +   ?   +   ?   +   +   ?
      ?   +   +   +   ?   +   +   +   ?   +   ?   +   +   ?
      ?   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   ?   +   ?   +   +   +
      ?   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +
10    ?   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +
      ?   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +
      ?   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +
      ?   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +
5   - ?   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +
      +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +
      +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +
      +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +   +

   Pre Post Pre Post Pre Post Pre Post Pre Post Pre Post Pre Post
    1   1   4   4   8   8  11  11  13  13  14  14  15  15
```

+ = favorable
- = unfavorable   Overall Attitudes Towards Writing
? = not sure   (Items 1,4,8,11,13,14,15)

FIGURE 7

```
30

25        -  ?      -    -        -    -        -    -
          -  +      -    -        -    -        -    -
          -  +      -    -        -    ?        -    -
20        -  +      -    ?        -    -        -    ?
          ?  +      -    ?        -    +        -    ?
          ?  +      ?    ?        ?    +        -    ?
15        ?  +      ?    ?        ?    +        -    +
          ?  +      ?    +        ?    +        ?    +
          ?  +      ?    +        ?    +        ?    +
          +  +      ?    +        ?    +        ?    +
10        +  +      ?    +        +    +        ?    +
          +  +      ?    +        +    +        +    +
          +  +      ?    +        +    +        +    +
          +  +      +    +        +    +        +    +
5         +  +      +    +        +    +        +    +
          +  +      +    +        +    +        +    +
          +  +      +    +        +    +        +    +
          +  +      +    +        +    +        +    +

        Pre2 Post2  Pre3 Post3   Pre6 Post6   Pre7 Post7
```

Attitudes Towards Writing Difficulties
(Items 2,3,6,7)

+ = favorable
- = unfavorable
? = not sure

FIGURE 8


```
30

             ?
25    -    -    -    ?    -    -    -    -
      -    -    -    +    -    -    -    ?
      -    -    -    +    -    -    -    ?
      -    -    -    +    -    -    -    ?
20    -    -    -    +    -    ?    -    +
      -    -    -    +    -    ?    -    +
      -    -    -    +    -    ?    ?    +
15    -    -    -    +    -    +    ?    +
      -    -    -    +    ?    +    +    +
      -    -    ?    +    ?    +    +    +
      -    ?    ?    +    ?    +    +    +
10    -    ?    ?    +    ?    +    +    +
      -    ?    +    +    ?    +    +    +
      -    +    +    +    ?    +    +    +
      -    +    +    +    ?    +    +    +
5     -    +    +    +    +    +    +    +
      +    +    +    +    +    +    +    +
      +    +    +    +    +    +    +    +
      +    +    +    +    +    +    +    +

    Pre5 Post5  Pre9 Post9  Pre10 Post10 Pre12 Post12
```

Attitudes Concerning Why We Learn to Write
(Items 5,9,10,12)

+ = Favorable
- = unfavorable
? = not sure

Responses to items 4 and 5 showed little change in attitude. Pretest responses to the statement: "Writing a story makes me feel good", (item 4) were 19-"YES", 1-"NO" and 6-"NOT SURE". Posttest responses were 21-"YES", 3-"NO" and 2-"NOT SURE". Item 5 stated: "The only reason we need to learn to write is to do our schoolwork." In October the responses were 23-"YES" and 3-"NO". May results showed 16-"YES", 8-"NO" and 2-"NOT SURE".

There was a consistent negative change in attitude in only one item. Item 15 stated: "When I start writing, I don't want to stop." During the pretest fifteen students answered "YES". For the posttest only seven of these students said yes again. Six of them now answered "NOT SURE" and two answered "NO". The four students who were undecided in the pretest answered "NO" in the posttest. There were seven students who said "NO" in the pretest, and while four of them changed to "YES" in the posttest, one of them now answered "NOT SURE" and two of them answered "NO" again.

The comparison of pre and post attitudes indicated a dramatic increase in positive attitudes towards writing. The researcher concluded that the integrated

reading and writing program provided improved students' attitudes towards writing. These gains, however, were not statistically significant.

Parents' Involvement and Reaction to the Program

Parental involvement in workshops and meetings was observed throughout the study. The parents were asked to attend two workshops in October (one for reading and one for writing), and one meeting in each of the months of November, December, January, February, March and May. Attendance was very good and indicated a high level of interest in the innovative program used in the case study. 65.4% of parents attended all workshops and meetings while only 7.7% attended none of them. 76.9% of parents attended both workshops and 78.5% attended half or more than half of all meetings (See Table 8).

TABLE 8

Parental Involvement - Meetings

Number of Workshops & Meetings Attended	Number of Students Represented by Parents
7	17
5	3
4	2
3	1
2	1
0	2

Parents were encouraged to facilitate their children's writing development by making books at home. The participation in "publishing" books at home was good. The average of books published was 4.2. 69.2% of students "published" three or more books at home and only 11.5% did not participate (See Table 9).

TABLE 9

Parental Involvement - Homemade Books

Books	Students
10	1
8	4
7	1
6	2
5	1
4	5
3	4
2	5
0	3

Each child was encouraged to take home a different library book every night. In the workshop on reading parents were given strategies to use for reading at home. (See Appendix B page 171.) Forms to record stories read at home were available (see Appendix

B page 175) and when each one was filled out it was returned to the teacher to be put in the student's reading file. Both parents and students expressed pride and a sense of accomplishment when they saw the number of books read increasing over the school year. Comments from parents about this aspect of the program were very positive. They were delighted with the quality of the books coming home. Many expressed relief with not having to repeat uninteresting passages from a basal reader, and indicated that reading homework had become a pleasant activity, often including brothers and sisters who also loved the stories.

Many of the stories written in school were typed before the children illustrated them. Then they were laminated and bound. Many of the homemade books printed or typed at home by the parents were also laminated before binding. Parents were asked to help with these time-consuming tasks.

At the beginning of this study there was a general feeling on the part of the staff at this school, that parental interest in school activities was low. Attendance at parent-teacher meetings seemed to indicate this. Parents seemed to be busy with their

work commitments and other activities and members
of the staff often discussed the apathy of the parents.
The researcher was pleasantly surprised with the
response from parents who were asked to come to the
school to help. During the writing workshop the
publication needs were explained to the parents.
Six parents volunteered to come to school during
the daytime. They often spent two to three hours
a week in a small room down the hall from the
classroom, typing children's stories. Two of these
parents brought their preschoolers with them. The
children played with blocks and other small toys
while their mothers typed. Two of the mothers
volunteered to come to the classroom during some
of the writing sessions. In the beginning days of
the program they acted as "secretaries", transcribing
the oral stories of the weaker students to give them
a boost into the world of authorship. On a few
occasions they transcribed children's contributions
to class books. (Books written by the whole group
were among the ones most read over and over by the
children.) For example, after enjoying the book
A my name is Alice by Jane Bayer the children wanted
to write a similar book for the class. A mother
sat at the back of the room with a world map, globe,

paper and pencil. Each child in turn went to the parent, chose a letter of the alphabet, looked for a name on the map or globe beginning with that letter and composed a page to follow the pattern. Sample pages from that book are:

J   my name is Jennifer and my husband's name is John. We come from Japan and we sell jokes.

E   my name is Emily and my husband's name is Eddie. We come from Europe and we sell elephants.

Q   my name is Queenie and my husband's name is Quincy. We come from Quidi Vidi and we sell quilts.

There was another group of seven parents who were available most nights that the researcher came to the school to laminate and bind books. The enthusiasm and energy evident at these work sessions soon dispelled all the negative notions about parents' apathy and friendships were made that will long be remembered.

It was felt that parental involvement was better than expected for the following reasons:

1.   The teacher accommodated busy schedules by surveying parents ahead of time to determine the best time for a meeting. Meetings were often

scheduled for two sessions so parents could choose the most convenient time. The teacher arranged to meet with parents individually when this was necessary.

2. If parents missed an important meeting, for example, one of the workshops, the teacher contacted them by phone, reiterated the need for getting together and set up a private meeting.

3. The teacher informed the parents of the uniqueness of the program and details of the study.

4. The teacher shared the philosophy and the objectives of the program in terms the parents could understand.

5. In the spirit of that philosophy, the teacher interacted with the parents in an accepting manner. Respect for parents as the "significant others" in their children's lives, and as experts in knowing their children better than anyone else, helped establish a rapport in which most parents showed pride in their children and commitment to their responsibilities as primary educators.

6. The teacher reviewed with the parents the activities from the home environment that enabled

their children to learn how to speak and explained elements of the program that aimed to make the learning of reading and writing a natural process.

7. Feedback to parents on the progress of their child in particular and the program in general was frequent. The teacher made a special effort to deal with students' weaknesses privately and constructively, often including suggestions and activities for parents to help their child at home.

The results of a questionnaire (Appendix C, page 183) completed by the parents in late May indicated that all enjoyed taking part in the program. All parents stated that their children were interested in reading and only one stated that the child was not interested in writing. Eighteen parents responded to the invitation to comment on the integrated reading and writing program. All of their comments are in Appendix A (pages 165-169) but the following have been included here:

"I have seen much progress in _____'s reading and her interest in school work in general. I think your program is very worthwhile and should be continued."

"_____ was always interested in reading but it wasn't until you started your program that she took up writing stories. She writes about everything and every place we go. I think it was very good for her."

"I would like to say that I think this program was very interesting and more beneficial to _____ than the normal routine. They seemed to come across a greater amount of words and learned how to spell words above their grade level. I think the above questions (in the questionnaire to parents) should be asked to the kids involved so I asked _____ them. He said he liked being in your classroom and reading different stories. He liked being able to choose what he liked to read. He wasn't too excited about writing stories at first but seems to and says he likes it now. I enjoyed helping write up the stories and helping to make them into little books. I think this program should be continued and hope it will."

"We found that the program was exceptionally good. The books were varied and presented an enjoyment for my child rather than a chore that had to be done. The writing program proved to be an enjoyment in itself. It let the child express his own ideas and

to voice some of the information stored in his head. Also I could see progressive improvement in his reading ability. All in all I would say it was an excellent program."

All the aspects of parental involvement could not be measured but a record of attendance at workshops and meetings was judged by the researcher to be fairly indicative of a parent's total involvement. Many parents who met with the teacher frequently at meetings were also the ones who volunteered help with typing and laminating of books produced by children, and showed evidence of working with their children at home. There were only two exceptions to this: (1) _____'s mother (and sometimes father also) attended all workshops and meetings and said they were interested in the program but the teacher did not observe any other involvement. They did not "publish" any stories at home. (2) _____'s parents did not attend any meetings. The teacher met briefly with his mother twice during the year. However, four of his stories were published at home.

Using the record of attendance at meetings and workshops as the measure, (reported in Table 8) parental involvement was found to be better than

expected. Statistical analysis, however, as described
in the next section of this chapter, indicated that
parental involvement did not significantly affect
the outcomes of the program.

Statistical Significance of the Study

This investigation sought to explore the
relationships between reading achievement and (1)
self-concept, (2) attitudes towards reading, (3)
attitudes towards writing and (4) parental involvement.
The Pearson product moment coefficient of correlation
indicated a positive relationship between reading
achievement and self-concept, where $r=.49$ ($n=26$,
$p=.006$). A stronger positive correlation was found
between reading achievement and attitudes towards
reading, where $r=.67$ ($n=26$, $p=.004$). There was no
significant relationship reported between reading
achievement and attitudes towards writing, and between
reading achievement and parental involvement.

An analysis of variance indicated that the gains
in reading comprehension were statistically significant
($.04$) and the gains for vocabulary ($.07$) and attitudes
towards reading ($.17$), although not statistically
significant, were judged high enough to be considered

practically significant. Gains in attitudes towards writing and measures of parental involvement were not statistically significant.

Analyses were extended by examining the performance of various sub-groups in the class to determine the effect of the program on students with different characteristics. Students were grouped for gender, level of performance (high, moderate, low) on all pretests and level of parental involvement.

The grouping was determined by apparent clustering of scores around the high, moderate and low ranges.

Self-Concept (KEY)

High	80
Moderate	50-79
Low	25-49

Reading Achievement (Gates Total Score)
Same as Table 2

High	- scores at or above grade level
Moderate	- scores below grade level
Low	- scores at a level below that reported in the norms

Reading Attitude (Reading Assessment)

High	40
Moderate	30-39
Low	0-29

Writing Attitude (<u>Writing</u> <u>Assessment</u>)

    High   36

    Moderate   30-35

    Low   0-29

It appears that the program provided for greater gains in self-concept for boys than girls. There was little difference in male and female response to the other variables in the program (See Table 10). Students who performed at a low level on each variable before the program began showed greater gains in each variable except for self-concept where the moderate students showed most improvement. Students who performed at a low level in the reading achievement pretest exceeded the gains of other students in the moderate and high groups (See Table 11).

Researcher/Teacher's Perceptions of the Program

One of the purposes of this study was to quantitatively evaluate the effect of an integrated reading and writing program on the students' reading achievement, self-concept and attitudes towards reading and writing. Practically significant insights of the value of this program, however, were gleaned

TABLE 10

Gender Comparison of Mean Gains

	Boys	Girls
Reading Achievement	28.07	29.95
Parental Involvement*	5.7	5.5
Self-Concept	21.7	15.4
Reading Attitude	6.1	5.5
Writing Attitude	7.7'	9.5

* not gains - attendance

TABLE 11

Mean Gains in Reading Achievement
(Sub-Groups)

	Low	Moderate	High
Reading Achievement	33.5	26	25
Parental Involvement	30.8	17	29.8
Self Concept	26.5	30.2	25.4
Reading Attitude	31	28.9	24.5
Writing Attitude	32.7	26.4	22

from observing the involvement and reaction of the students as they participated in the program's activities.

Reading and writing were truly integrated with the program under study. The students read as writers and wrote as readers. They looked to professional writers as models for their writing. They read many books, their classmates' books included, looking for ideas for their own books. They began to read as writers and their writing became a purpose for reading. When they wrote, they attended to communicating a message. They wrote as readers. Concern for a responsive audience increased the effort and care which went into their writing. They displayed an intrinsic motivation that gave them a delight in reading and writing, and a desire to grow in their ability to read and write.

Through the activities of this integrated program, reading and writing instruction became personal and eliminated the possible negative side effects of ability grouping for instruction. Except for a few of the weaker students who didn't achieve as well as they had hoped, it was observed that the students' self-concepts as learners increased. They displayed

pride and a sense of accomplishment upon seeing their stories in print and in reading to the class. These children felt confident that they were readers and writers and enjoyed engaging in these activities.

The "Author's Chair" as described by Graves and Hansen (1983) proved to be the highlight of each school day. With the class gathered around the special author's chair, newly "published" books were shared by the child-authors. After the reading, students were given an opportunity to make statements or pose questions to the author. The children would raise their hands if they had a comment or a question, and the child-author would give them permission to speak, one at a time. The authors enjoyed sharing their books and playing the role of the teacher and expert. All the students cooperated well during this activity. The teacher was free to observe and make anecdotal notes. The students were encouraged to offer positive comments and make all criticism constructive. As the program progressed, these grade two students became fairly sophisticated in their comments and questions. Some examples are:

"I loved your illustrations!"

"Your story was interesting but what happened
to Freddie after he got to the farm? You should
write another book about him because I would
like to know more about Freddie."

"Why did the boy's father die? I really felt
sad for him but you didn't tell us why his father
died? People don't just die! There has to
be a reason."

The "Author's Chair" was also used for the reading
of commercially published books to the whole group.
The teacher sat there at least once each day to read
a book she had selected. These were books that were
considered too good for children to miss both in
the quality of theme and the quality of the language.
It was an attempt to provide a balance to what children
were choosing to read on their own. Time was arranged
for at least two students to read to the class daily.
It was the responsibility of the children to choose
a book they wanted to read, sign up for an available
time on a displayed schedule and to prepare at home
for this special oral reading. Very few of the
children needed teacher help with this task. A few
times a child chose a book that he or she was unable
to read fluently. Rather than allow any embarrassment

to be prolonged or subject the class to tedious
listening, the teacher intervened on these few
occasions and suggested an individual conference
to make a better selection with the teacher's help
and/or help prepare the child for the task. Most
of the time children chose suitable books and were
well prepared to present their story satisfactorily
to the group. Again, the opportunity to play the
role of teacher motivated them. Parents told the
teacher how some children practised their reading
of the book at home, anxious to do a good job. They
were both surprised and pleased with the vocabulary
being learned. The teacher observed that this
technique for oral reading produced better accuracy,
fluency and expression than she had expected in a
grade two classroom.

After the reading, students were given the
opportunity to react, making statements or posing
questions about the book. The reader of the book
was considered the expert and answered the questions
or gave opinions as to how the real author would
have answered.

Several interested staff members at this school
observed the class during the "Author's Chair"

sessions. All expressed favorable comments about the children's involvement, mature interactions and level of achievement in oral reading. Some adapted the technique for use in their own classrooms.

Every three weeks at least one author of children's literature was highlighted among the books borrowed from libraries for classroom use. The teacher gave a brief biographical sketch, where possible, and besides the usual discussion following book sharing, focused the students' attention on the author's style, themes, illustrations, format, similarities to and differences from other authors. The children soon came to know a few of the best authors, developed preferences in their choice of books and would often ask the school librarian for a book by a particular author. This attempt to develop the concept of author as a real person "who writes stories and poems the same way as we do" was judged to be successful. A brief story from the anecdotal data collected illustrates this.

The school secretary made an announcement on the public address system one morning informing the students that someone's lunch had been left in the office. It was in a brown paper bag and had the

name Paul written on it. One of the students in class shouted, "I know who owns that lunch. It belongs to Paul Galdone!"

Many of the program's activities required that the children be able to follow directions, take responsibility for certain defined tasks and work independently. Most of the students enjoyed the routines of the day and soon after the program started were able to work for long periods of time, independently. This gave the teacher the freedom to move about the room for individual reading and writing conferences.

The teacher used individual conferences to discuss with the children their activities in reading and writing. These conferences, although some were brief, provided the teacher with data to identify each child's strengths and weaknesses. According to the needs of the children, instruction could be with individuals, small groups or the whole group.

Except for a few of the weaker students, who had neither the skills nor the confidence to work for long periods by themselves, this grade two class used their time productively. Most exhibited a keen interest in the reading activities (choosing books

to read, reading silently alone or orally with others)
and the writing activities (writing a first draft,
proofreading, editing, sharing with a friend, asking
help from others for spelling etc. and illustrating).
This independence of the group allowed the teacher
to provide much-needed remedial instruction for the
weaker students.

One day a visitor from the School Board Staff
spent about half an hour discussing the program with
the teacher. Then he moved freely about the room
talking with the children about their work. After
his visit, he remarked how surprised he was that
all the students kept busy at worthwhile tasks, moved
about the room purposely and quietly and interacted
in such a mature fashion. This was typical of the
classroom atmosphere during the program and, as a
result, the classroom was a happy place to be,
attendance was very good and the teacher experienced
very few behavioral problems.

Many parents expressed their pleasure in seeing
a different library book coming home every day.
To accomplish this without loss of class time, each
library book had an identifying card in its pocket
and each child had a pocket on the wall. To borrow

a book at any time all the child had to do was remove the card from the chosen book and put it in his or her pocket on the wall. The children were faithful to an early morning routine. As soon as they came into the classroom they took from their bookbags the books they had taken home the day before, replaced the cards, returned them to the display, made new choices, put those cards in their pockets and the new books into the bookbags.

The teacher made special arrangements to borrow books from two public libraries. The librarians were cooperative and often helped with book selection. An attempt to borrow many books by the same author for comparative purposes in the classroom was hindered by one of the libraries where the librarian was reluctant to allow this practice, explaining that it was not fair to other patrons. Students were responsible for collecting books from a particular library just before due date. Teacher, parents and students were all proud that during the year, there was no loss of books.

Every day a free reading period was scheduled. At this time children could read alone or with friends. It was observed by the teacher that most students

became good at choosing books at their reading level, weaker students chose more capable readers to read with them and they freely asked others words they did not know. If reading a classroom published book, the reader would go to the child-author for help with an unknown word.

Students were encouraged to record the titles and authors of the books they read. Appendix B, page 175 contains a copy of dittoed sheets that were available in the classroom. When a sheet was completed it was added to the child's reading file. This proved to be a motivational tool, as the students were able to actually see their reading accomplishments.

Every day a writing period was scheduled. The children were always encouraged to choose their own topics for writing. The teacher sometimes made suggestions. For example, after the reading of Judith Viorst's A Terrible, Horrible, No Good, Very Bad Day, many of the children shared with the class details of their very bad days. The teacher said these reflections would make very interesting stories to publish and share with others. The children were often encouraged to write about things special to them (the arrival of the new baby, the death of a

grandparent etc.) or about a theme being studied in another area of the curriculum. But always, the final choice of topic was left with the child. The children seemed to enjoy this freedom and one of them was always sure to point it out to a visitor. They treated it as a special privilege, which seemed to contribute to their notion of themselves as authors.

The children wrote on loose sheets of paper available in the room. Every sheet was dated and signed by the child before it was put in the writing folder. After the approximately 150 days of the program, some of these folders were very fat and the children were very proud of their accomplishments. But the children not only wrote during the specified writing time. They wrote in other areas of the curriculum such as religion, health, science and social studies. It was not unusual to see a child writing during recess period and several would take advantage of lunch period to write. Sometimes the children worked together so that the published book would have two or three authors. It was observed that the motivation to write their stories with the hope of being published made some children avid writers during the school year under study. Many pages of

writing were often produced at home, especially during the weekends. One child returned to school after the Easter holidays with a story handwritten on almost 40 pages.

Not all of the stories were published. Indeed, not all of the stories were edited. The child always chose the ones from the writing folder that he or she would like published. Edited copies were submitted and the teacher made the final selections for publication. Selections were based on the merit of content and the goal of publishing at least one book for each student every six to eight weeks.

Always, the primary emphasis in writing was on communication, rather than form. In an effort to encourage fluency and avoid line-ups to the teacher for help, students were told to spell difficult words the best way that they could. Initially, this process caused frustration for some children because they wanted to be sure they knew the correct spelling and continually requested spellings from the teacher, from friends or would spend considerable time searching through books for them before finishing the story. But the teacher persisted and, with continued encouragement, soon all students focused more on content than form.

The following are examples of one student's work, given here to illustrate the growth.

_____ was experiencing problems in her writing because of frustration with spelling. Her stories were not natural, as shown in these early attempts:

> My Flower
>
> My Flower needs ran and sun.
>
> I Love My Flower fere moe?
>
> I Love Mom.
>
> My mom loves me.
>
> I Love Dad.
>
> I Love my house.
>
> I Love Flowers.
>
> I Love rane.
>
> I Love sun.

She was using school language that she had learned in grade one. She was sacrificing meaning for form. A month later there was evidence that she was getting over this block to her communication when she wrote:

> JANE DOE   Nov. 4
>
> Mary and Dad
>
> true story
>
> My Dad and my seder have a problem.

My Dad tard her out.

My Dad wand lite her in the house.

She kam out to the house easdaday.

Johnny told on her.

Mary donot kere about Dad

My mom lats her out in the house.

My Dad nos that she comes out to the house.

I fel like ciaering.

I am sad.

My Dad do no she babysiting.

My Dad isnt gon to han his miad.

Mary and Dad (true story)

My dad and my sister have a problem. My
dad turned her out. My dad won't let her
in the house. She came out to the house
yesterday. Johnny told on her. Mary does
not care about Dad. My mom lets her out
in the house. My dad knows that she comes
out to the house. I feel like crying.
I am sad. My dad knows she's babysitting.
My dad isn't going to change his mind.

The students were only expected to edit the writing pieces that they submitted for publication or the ones that would be needed for special purposes, as in a wall display or letters to people outside the classroom. After their first drafts, the children were encouraged to proofread and edit by themselves. They often searched the print-rich walls or a posted list of one hundred of the most frequently used words in our language for the spelling of words they needed. Then they could get help from their peers or the teacher. Many of the individual writing conferences involved editing a piece of work and some instruction in skills as needed.

For publication, the story or poem would be typed technically correct even though this involved skills that the children had not learned. It was felt by the researcher, that anything less would not be good models for the young readers. It was observed that as children read from their published books, as well as the commercial books, they became aware of many of the conventions of writing such as quotation marks, paragraphing or titles. They asked questions about technical details and it was evident that the writing process in the classroom

created in many students a desire to learn the skills needed to become good writers.

Correcting the child's work for the conventions of writing never involved a change in the child's language. If there was a mistake in syntax the teacher would point it out to him or her and instruct the child in the correct usage. For example, "Me and my brother like riding horses", was discussed with the child. The teacher explained the rule and the child was able to write the sentence correctly, but still feeling that it was his or her own sentence.

A local publisher made a big impression on the students during a classroom visit when he explained the process of editing. After his visit students showed an increase in the desire to make changes, improving by adding and deleting as well as checking for spelling, syntax and conventions.

A close look at the contents of the writing file at the end of the program showed much growth in writing ability for most children. However, the freedom of "doing it anyway you want" during the first draft to increase fluency and natural language did not encourage good penmanship or tidy papers. For some fellow teachers this was a negative aspect

of the program but the researcher judged that the quality of content produced and the relaxed nature of the task could not be sacrificed.

The researcher/teacher observed a high positive attitude towards the writing activities. During "Spirit Days" for example, the class was viewing a Walt Disney movie that had been chosen as a recreational break from school routines. As the children sat on the floor in front of the television, the teacher noticed that a group of three girls were in a prone position and writing. When questioned they stated that they would rather write their stories than watch the movie.

During the last week of the school year some students continued to write stories. Because the teacher was concerned about any misunderstanding and impending disappointments from inadequate time for publication, she again explained to the students that there was too little time left to have any more stories typed and she suggested that they spend their time at reading activities. But they said that they just liked to write and wanted to continue.

It was obvious through observation that students were active in controlling their own learning. They

used reading and writing for real and worthwhile purposes, thus the activities were meaningful and functional for each child.

Instruction was individualized, with children working at their own level and pace. Time was available for enrichment for high achievers as well as for remediation for low achievers. Teacher time after hours was increased from previous teaching experience but proved to be satisfying. Parent-teacher relations were above average and parent involvement was judged to be very good. It was obvious that some parents understood the reading and writing philosophy of the program and were helping their children at home in a non-directive, accepting manner.

Thus, the integrated reading and writing program was judged by the researcher to be successful in improving reading achievement, self-concept, attitudes towards reading and attitudes towards writing for the group under study.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Summary and Discussion

The researcher/teacher designed an integrated reading and writing program to accommodate theories of language learning presented in the review of the literature. Implementation of the program took place in a grade two class of 26 children in St. John's, Newfoundland, and lasted for eight months. The case study design was used to evaluate the innovative program. Gains in reading achievement, self-concept, attitudes towards reading and attitudes towards writing, as well as program implementation, were major considerations.

Students were administered pretests and posttests in reading achievement, self-concept, attitudes towards reading and attitudes towards writing to determine if the program affected these variables. Descriptive data were collected throughout the study to ascertain if activities that were specified by the theory were being effectively operationalized and implemented.

The study sought answers to the following questions: Does the integrated reading and writing program provide:

1. improved students' performance in reading?

2. improved students' self-concepts as learners?

3. improved students' attitudes towards reading?

4. improved students' attitudes towards writing?

Data were derived from the pretest and posttest scores on the following instruments:

1. Gates-MacGinitie Standardized Reading Test, Level B, forms 1 and 2

2. The Florida KEY - a scale to infer learner self-concept and

3. Reading Assessment and Writing Assessment (Anderson, 1982) - Likert type scales for self-reporting of reading and writing attitudes.

Results at the end of the program indicated positive answers to all four questions. Students' performances on the standardized reading pretest and posttest were compared with the norms and showed that the mean gain of the study group in both vocabulary and comprehension was greater than the Canadian national mean gain. Average reading growth in months for the study group was 9.1 months in vocabulary and 12.7 months in comprehension and greater than the expected seven month growth. Statistical analysis confirmed that the gains in comprehension

were significant at the .05 level, which is noteworthy
considering the study's small sample. Analysis of
sub-groups of students indicated that students who
performed at a low level in the reading pretest
exceeded the gains of other students in the moderate
and high groups. These results do not corroborate
with statements of the editors of the Gates-MacGinitie
Reading Test who comment: "Students who are
considerably above average, however, typically grow
in achievement at a faster rate; students who are
considerably below average typically grow at a slower
rate [page 32]." An explanation for this discrepancy
may be that, since it was an objective of the program
to meet the individual needs of each student, the
students displaying the greatest needs received more
instructional time than did other students. Perhaps
the books used were more appropriate than basal readers
because of interest and predictability. The tasks
required in the program might have been more meaningful
to these students than tasks from basal workbooks.
Indeed, the total content of this type of pedagogy
might be more appropriate for low achievers than
traditional teaching methods.

It appears that the program was effective in providing more remedial help in reading than traditional methods might have. The extra attention afforded the low achievers may also explain greater gains in reading attitude and writing attitude for these students.

The review of the literature discussed the influence of writing on reading. According to Barton, 1930; Collins, 1979; Doctorow, Wittrock and Marks, 1978; Dynes, 1932; Glover, Plake, Roberts, Zimmer & Palmere, 1981; Jencke, 1935; Nagle, 1972; Newlun, 1930; Salisbury, 1934; Taylor, 1978; Taylor & Berkowitz, 1980; and Walker-Lewis, 1981, writing activities positively influence reading comprehension. The work of Oehlkers, 1971 and Smith, Jensen & Dillingofsky, 1971, found, however, that the use of writing activities did not significantly influence reading comprehension. The present study supports the former finding and gives evidence that writing activities can positively affect reading comprehension.

Self-concept is an important influence in academic achievement and is positively correlated with reading achievement. This statement is supported by the findings of studies conducted by Brookover, 1964; Brookover, Thomas & Patterson, 1962; Hebert, 1968; Marsh, Smith & Barnes, 1985; Purkey, 1970; Purkey

et al, 1984; Singh, 1972; and Williams & Cole, 1968.
The present study agreed with the literature and
found that there was a weak positive correlation
between self-concept and reading achievement (r=.49,
n=26, p=.006). It was judged that 88.5% of students
in the study group showed an improvement in their
self-concepts and that boys made greater gains than
girls.

As explained in the review of the literature,
self-concept often decreases in elementary school
children. After they enter school, children have
difficulty maintaining a positive self-concept
(Stanwyck, 1972). Some children develop an increasing
negativism as they progress through school grades
(Dunn, 1968). Studies have shown that children's
self-concepts become more negative as they go from
the beginning to the end of the school year (Flanders,
Morrison and Brode, 1968). It appears then that
the methods of teaching in the integrated reading
and writing program were more effective in improving
students' self-concepts than traditional methods
might have been.

Results from the study confirmed that attitudes
had improved. 84.6% of the students showed improved
attitudes towards reading and 92.3% showed improved

attitudes towards writing. Statistical analysis showed a positive correlation between reading, achievement and reading attitudes ($r=.67$ ($n=26$, $p=.004$)). This result corroborates findings by Askov & Fischbach, 1973; Alexander & Filler, 1976; Bernstein, 1972; Groff, 1962; Healy, 1963, 1965; Johnson, 1965; and Ransbury, 1973. Their work found that attitudes towards reading affect comprehension, and development of more favorable attitudes may result in increased achievement.

It was not surprising that the gains in attitudes towards writing were so dramatic. The young students in the study, at the beginning of grade two, had experienced instruction in reading skills with very little attention to their writing development. They had not been in school long enough to develop any deeply imbedded negative attitudes towards writing. They may, however, have been apprehensive and doubtful about their ability to write. The use of writing and authorship as the salient feature of the program under study was purposely aimed at engaging the child in many writing activities in an accepting and nourishing environment. Observations clearly indicated that most students enjoyed and looked forward to their writing activities. However, there was no

significant correlation found between writing attitudes and reading achievement.

The validity of the attitude assessments used in the study was considered. From observations made during administration the researcher felt that, even though each item of the forms was read to the group, some students did not understand the meanings of some statements. It is possible that they did not consider them carefully. It was also felt that some items, for example, "I don't learn anything from free reading", were misunderstood because some grade two children may not yet have the cognitive ability to be able to understand such negative statements. Furthermore, this style of testing was novel for the group and perhaps some practice and discussion with similar kinds of self-reporting assessments would have increased the validity for these students.

Although the data showed that parental involvement was high, it was not significantly correlated with the reading achievement of the students. This finding differs from studies conducted by Becher, 1984; Brookover et al, 1966 and Parsons et al, 1982, that suggest parents have a significant positive influence on the reading achievement of their children. This discrepancy may be explained by the inadequacy of

the measure, i.e. attendance at workshops and meetings, used to reflect parental involvement. Perhaps an instrument could be designed to state specific activities of parent-child interactions: for example, reading to/with the child, proofreading the child's stories, taking the child to the library. Such an instrument might more adequately measure the parents' involvement in the activities of the program.

The program was judged to adequately reflect the latest theories of literacy acquisition. Reading and writing were integrated, with writing playing an important role in classroom activities. In contrast to a basal reading program, language use was meaningful and functional, skill development was geared to the needs of each child, vocabulary was not controlled, teaching was child-centered and learning was child-directed. The teacher was aware of the educational importance of self-concept and attitudes and provided a classroom environment with an accepting and nourishing atmosphere. Teacher and parents worked together to develop the learning potential of both home and school contexts. The descriptive data showed that the elements which the theory specified as necessary for literacy development were present.

Conclusions

The conclusions in this study, while informed by the results of analyses, are not statistical statements but judgemental ones. Since the complex interrelationships of the reading and writing processes cannot be removed from the context of teaching/learning interactions, generalizations in a traditional sense of being context-free propositions are not possible. Conclusions have been drawn, not in terms of generalizations but in terms of propositions that seem to be borne out in this study. One cannot assume, however, that they would be borne out in other contexts as well. It is hoped that the reader will come to a better understanding of the theory upon which the program is based and will determine for himself/herself the information's applicability.

Many of the problems in reading instruction today are misunderstood because learning to read has been treated as a matter of acquiring a series of skills. So much time is spent on basal readers, controlled vocabulary development and skills' workbooks that there is very little opportunity for natural language learning. This program was designed to

develop and test the notion that learning to read and write can be as easy and as natural as learning to walk or talk.

As shown in the literature review, (Chapter II), most children learn to talk easily and by age four are highly competent. Studies have established that oral language develops out of a functional need to communicate. In this program functional need was seen as the key to reading and writing. If children feel a real need to be literate because of changed roles, values, opportunities, or experiences and if written language becomes truly accessible and functional then many of them will become literate easily and well (Goodman 1987).

The integrated reading and writing program described in this study developed the students' awareness of the personal and social functions of written language. Reading and writing activities with real books enhanced and enriched the classroom, making it a highly literate environment. Through print students were continually in meaningful interactions with each other, the teacher, parents, visitors and with unseen authors. Through the use of whole, real, relevant, and meaningful language

the program developed self-confidence and positive attitudes towards reading and writing that facilitated risk-taking, meaning-seeking and hypothesis-testing. Instruction was still important and skill development was still necessary. It was always, however, meaningful and related to each child's functional needs for written language.

Although the integrated reading and writing program for this study was not subjected to the rigors of an experimental design, it appears logical that, if the theory is correct, children exposed to this program would make more gains in reading achievement and would develop more favorable attitudes towards reading, writing and learning than children being taught a traditional basal series program. It also appears logical that children who are exposed to this kind of environment at a young age and throughout the primary and elementary grades will move more quickly and easily to control over reading and writing.

Implications and Recommendations

For Teachers

For those who are committed to improving the reading and writing ability of their students, this

case study can be useful as a guide to setting up their own literate environment where learning to read and write can develop naturally.

For Further Research

It is recommended that this study be replicated to further develop the propositions hypothesized concerning the nature of literacy acquisition. Writing was a salient feature of the program, yet it was not tested. Future researchers should include a measure of writing achievement.

The program should be used with various groups. A study of preschool and kindergarten children should be conducted to see if they will read and write earlier and/or better as a result of the program. A study of older children who may have negative attitudes towards reading and writing may determine if the program is effective in changing these attitudes and improving reading and writing at a higher grade level. Because of the positive results for low achievers in this study, it is recommended that its use for remedial students who have displayed failure in reading and writing skills be studied.

A significant gain in reading achievement (comprehension) was indicated in this study. It is recommended that a similar longitudinal study be conducted to determine if this gain can be retained in later years.

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APPENDIX A

ASSESSMENT RESULTS

Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test - Level B

Raw Scores

Student	Vocabulary		Comprehension	
No.	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
1	37	44	23	35
2	28	33	26	35
3	26	38	21	35
4	24	35	14	34
5	18	34	18	25
6	21	37	14	31
7	17	29	13	30
8	12	36	15	32
9	16	30	11	33
10	13	25	14	24
11	17	26	9	30
12	11	33	14	32
13	12	25	12	21
14	13	19	10	23
15	11	15	11	17
16	11	18	10	17
17	9	19	11	20
18	12	16	5	27
19	8	24	8	28
20	3	22	13	26
21	8	24	7	27
22	9	24	3	31
23	8	24	4	28
24	6	28	4	24
25	3	17	4	24
26	0	14	6	19
Mean	13.6	26.5	11.5	27.2
National Mean	20	31	20	29

Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test - Level B

Grade Equivalents

Student	Pretest				Posttest		
No.	Vocabulary	Comprehension	Total		Vocabulary	Comprehension	Total
1	3.6	2.3	2.7		6.0	4.4	5.3
2	2.6	2.5	2.5		3.0	4.4	3.5
3	2.4	2.2	2.3		3.7	4.4	4.1
4	2.3	1.7	2.0		3.3	3.9	3.5
5	1.9	1.9	1.9		3.2	2.5	2.7
6	2.1	1.7	1.8		3.6	3.2	3.5
7	1.8	1.6	1.7		2.6	3.0	2.7
8	1.5	1.7	1.6		3.5	3.5	3.5
9	1.7	1.5	1.6		2.7	3.7	3.1
10	1.6	1.7	1.6		2.4	2.4	2.4
11	1.8	-	1.6		2.4	3.0	2.6
12	1.5	1.7	1.5		3.0	3.5	3.3
13	1.5	1.6	1.5		2.4	2.2	2.3
14	1.6	1.5	1.5		2.0	2.3	2.1
15	1.5	1.5	1.5		1.7	1.8	1.7
16	1.5	1.5	1.4		1.9	1.8	1.8
17	-	1.5	-		2.0	2.1	2.0
18	1.5	-	-		1.7	2.6	2.2
19	-	-	-		2.3	2.7	2.5
20	-	1.6	-		2.2	2.5	2.4
21	-	-	-		2.3	2.6	2.5
22	-	-	-		2.3	3.2	2.6
23	-	-	-		2.3	2.7	2.5
24	-	-	-		2.6	2.4	2.5
25	-	-	-		1.8	2.4	2.1
26	-	-	-		1.6	2.1	1.7

Gátes-MacGinitie Reading Test - Level B

Reading Growth (in months)

Student No.	Vocabulary	Comprehension
1	24	21
2	4	19
3	13	22
4	10	22
5	13	6
6	15	15
7	8	14
8	20	18
9	10	22
10	8	7
11	6	16
12	15	18
13	9	6
14	4	8
15	2	3
16	4	3
17	6	7
18	3	12
19	9	13
20	8	9
21	9	12
22	9	18
23	9	13
24	12	10
25	4	10
26	2	7
Mean	9.1	12.7

Florida KEY Scores

Student No.	Pretest				Posttest			
	Teacher 1		Teacher 2		Teacher 1		Teacher 2	
	Score	Rating	Score	Rating	Score	Rating	Score	Rating
1	82	H	84	H	105	H	110	H
2	80	M	74	M	98	H	96	H
3	86	H	88	H	92	H	87	H
4	56	M	84	H	90	H	110	H
5	43	M	46	M	72	M	64	M
6	63	M	63	M	73	H	94	H
7	48	M	47	M	96	H	92	H
8	51	M	56	M	64	M	54	M
9	57	M	55	M	93	H	87	H
10	66	M	57	M	63	M	64	M
11	58	M	69	M	107	H	111	H
12	63	M	64	M	92	H	100	H
13	40	M	38	M	84	H	64	M
14	56	M	51	M	49	M	64	M
15	34	L	41	M	54	M	58	M
16	38	M	35	M	62	M	62	M
17	82	H	79	M	79	M	82	H
18	40	M	38	M	53	M	61	M
19	83	H	84	H	99	H	110	H
20	26	L	24	L	30	L	38	M
21	55	M	54	M	70	M	72	M
22	36	M	34	L	59	M	54	M
23	48	M	40	M	90	H	84	H
24	36	M	39	M	26	L	31	L
25	51	M	41	M	31	L	41	M
26	81	H	79	M	90	H	96	H

Florida KEY - Average Scores

Student No.	Pretest		Posttest	
	Score	Rating	Score	Rating
1	83	H	107.5	H
2	77	M	97	H
3	87	H	89.5	H
4	70	M	100	H
5	44.5	M	68	M
6	63	M	83.5	H
7	47.5	M	94	H
8	53.5	M	59	M
9	56	M	90	H
10	61.5	M	63.5	M
11	63.5	M	108.5	H
12	63.5	M	95	H
13	39	M	74	M
14	53.5	M	56.5	M
15	37.5	M	56	M
16	37	M	62	M
17	80.5	M	80.5	M
18	39	M	57	M
19	83.5	H	101	H
20	25	L	34	L
21	54.5	M	71	M
22	35	M	56.5	M
23	44	M	87	H
24	37.5	M	28.5	L
25	46	M	36	M
26	80	M	93	H

Reading Assessment Scores

Student No.	Overall Reading Attitude Pre	Post	Attitude Towards Reading Difficulties Pre	Post	Attitude Towards Recreational Reading Pre	Post	Total Pre	Post
1	12	13	14	13	15	15	41	41
2	15	15	11	14	12	15	38	44
3	15	15	11	14	15	15	44	44
4	11	15	7	13	10	15	28	43
5	14	11	11	12	15	15	40	38
6	12	15	6	10	9	15	27	40
7	15	15	11	13	13	15	39	43
8	10	13	8	9	14	12	32	34
9	11	13	10	10	12	15	33	38
10	8	15	6	7	10	15	24	37
11	15	15	13	12	13	14	41	41
12	11	15	8	10	11	15	30	40
13	12	12	10	11	14	14	34	37
14	12	15	5	13	13	15	30	43
15	13	15	9	13	14	13	36	41
16	11	14	8	10	11	13	30	37
17	13	13	12	12	12	14	37	39
18	11	9	12	9	6	11	28	29
19	11	13	9	8	10	12	30	33
20	13	14	11	10	15	11	39	35
21	11	15	8	11	12	15	31	41
22	6	15	6	12	7	15	19	42
23	12	13	10	10	12	14	34	37
24	14	15	9	12	12	13	35	40
25	10	14	10	10	13	11	33	35
26	11	15	7	9	12	14	30	38
Mean	11	13.9	9.3	11	12	13.9	33.1	37.3

Writing Assessment Scores

Student No.	Overall Writing Attitude		Attitude Towards Writing Difficulties		Attitude Concerning Why Write		Total	
	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
1	17	19	12	10	8	10	37	39
2	13	20	12	12	6	12	31	44
3	19	21	11	11	9	10	39	42
4	14	19	9	12	9	12	32	43
5	15	19	9	10	4	12	28	41
6	15	21	7	12	8	10	30	43
7	18	19	11	12	9	12	38	43
8	13	20	6	7	4	8	33	35
9	14	19	7	10	7	10	28	39
10	18	20	6	12	6	10	30	42
11	15	15	11	10	8	10	34	35
12	19	19	4	12	6	8	29	39
13	14	19	8	9	8	9	30	37
14	14	19	9	12	7	12	30	43
15	13	21	8	12	5	10	26	43
16	19	9	9	5	8	5	36	19
17	14	20	9	12	7	11	30	43
18	15	13	5	7	6	6	26	26
19	13	19	5	10	9	8	27	37
20	16	19	7	10	10	12	33	41
21	16	18	7	12	6	10	29	40
22	13	13	6	11	7	10	26	34
23	13	17	8	6	7	12	28	35
24	20	21	8	12	4	10	32	43
25	16	19	8	11	5	9	29	39
26	14	19	5	12	4	10	23	41
Mean	15.4	18.4	8.	10.4	6.8	9.9	30.2	38.7

Parent Comments

1. I think writing those books helped to improve their reading and writing as well.

2. I have seen much progress in _____'s reading and her interest in school work in general. I think your program is very worthwhile and should be continued.

3. _____ said she really enjoyed the program, and she enjoyed writing the stories and I really was pleased she did a lot of reading.

4. Me and _____ really enjoyed writing the books.

   I feel _____ is reading a lot better and she enjoyed writing and thinking up different things or subjects to write the book.

5. The reading and writing programs were very interesting and fun to do. I feel it should be taught in every class room for grade two.

6. My child has certainly picked up on her reading, also she enjoys it very much. In my opinion it was a very successful project.

7. _____ was always interested in reading but it wasn't until you started your program that she took up writing stories. She writes about

everything and every place we go. I think it
was very good for her.

8. I was very happy with the reading program this
year for I could see an interest in reading in
_____ I have never seen befoe. The only
disappointment is that it has to end.' I would
really like to see it go ahead again next year.
Let me also take this chance to thank you for
all you have done for _____ this year. It
was a pleasure knowing you. (_____ repeated
grade 1)

9. I think _____ was more interested in her reading
this year, because she had to write her own stories
and had to read to her family. _____ has made
a big improvement and I am very proud she was
in your program.

10. _____ seems to enjoy reading very much. He
has read nearly every book in the house. His
sister is in grade 4 and he has even read her
books. As far as writing, he doesn't have that
much interest in it. I have tried to encourage
him but it didn't work. It has been all I could
do to get him to concentrate on the bit of homework
he had to do. I found his attitude towards school

in general has changed for the better, but I
guess in time he will pick up other interests.

11. With this program _____'s reading and writing
improved a lot. He is further ahead in both
reading and writing than his brothers were when
they were in grade two.

12. I think it was a wonderful program, and I sincerely
think it should be in all the classrooms. It
keeps the children interested in reading. I
know my child, _____, was really happy with
it. Every evening she couldn't wait to show
us the book and read it to us or with us.

13. I would like to say that I think this program
was very interesting and more beneficial to _____
than the normal routine. They seemed to come
across a greater amount of words and learned
how to spell words above their grade level.
I think the above questions should be asked to
the kids involved so I asked _____ them. He
said he liked being in your classroom and reading
different stories. He liked being able to choose
what he liked to read. He wasn't too excited
about writing stories at first but seems to and
says he likes it now. I enjoyed helping write

up the stories and helping to make them into little books. I think this program should be continued and hope it will.

14. We found that the program was exceptionally good. The books were varied and presented an enjoyment for my child rather than a chore that had to be done. The writing program proved to be an enjoyment in itself. It let the child express his own ideas and to voice some of the information stored in his head. Also I could see progressive improvement in his reading ability. All in all I would say it was an excellent program.

15. I think the program is great. It really gets the children interested and not boring. The only thing I think it should continue on for at least grade six.

16. I thought this program was great. I really think _____ enjoyed writing those stories he did. I thought he did well for his age. An interesting program.

17. The program was very interesting. I think that _____ really enjoyed reading the story books each night.

18. I feel that the reading program was and is good.
It does inspire the child to read more and improves
his reading ability. I found my child
to like reading books - either he read or I would
read or we both read. He did become interested.
He has not become all that interested in writing
stories. Hopefully that will follow as he matures.

As a mother with two older boys with a reading
problem, I feel this program could of helped
them if there had been such a program going on
at the time.

It is a good reading and writing program.
I hope it continues.

APPENDIX B

INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES

Reading Strategies

1. Give your child time to read the story silently. Then ask him or her to tell you the story without looking at the original.

2. Listen while your child reads the story to you. Then ask him or her to tell you the story without looking at the original.

3. Listen while your child reads to you, a part of the story. Then your child listens while you read the next part of the story — and so on. Then ask your child to retell the story.

4. Your child listens while you read the story to him or her. Ask him or her to retell the story.

5. Talk with your child about the story and W-5. Ask him or her WHO? WHERE? WHAT? WHEN? WHY? HOW?

6. Ask your child to read many things — food boxes and cans, road signs, the newspapers — TV guides, anything and everything!

It is not enough for your child to know how to read. We must encourage him or her to be a reader!

Writing Strategies

1.   Encourage your child to write a story by himself
or herself using invented spelling where necessary.
The child should be in a quiet area away from
distractions. When the story is finished, have
your child read it to you.

Following the process we discussed at our
workshop together, ask your child questions when
it is necessary to clarify the message. When
your child is pleased with the story, transcribe
it onto the paper provided, using correct spelling
and punctuation, and leaving spaces for
illustrations.

Then have your child read the printed story
and complete the illustrations.

2.   You may sometimes act as secretary for your
child as he or she narrates a story to you.
When the story is transcribed, have your child
read it to you and encourage editing if necessary.

As you transcribe the "published" copy,
encourage your child to decide the text to go
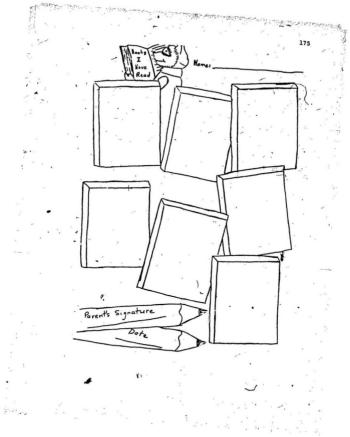on each page and where the illustrations will
be.

3.   As was discussed in our workshop at school,
always allow your child to choose his or her
own topics for writing. You may wish, however,
to make suggestions from which your child can
choose. '

Remember that this should be a pleasurable
task. Do not choose a time that is not good
for you or your child.

Authors Highlighted in the Program

Edith Fowke	Jack Kent
Aileen Fisher	Steven Kellogg
Jack Prelutsky	Mordecai Richler
John Burningham	Lois Lenski
Paul Galdone	Dennis Lee
Charlotte Zolotow	Leo Lionni
Martha Alexander	Arnold Lobel
Hans Christian Andersen	Mercer Mayer
Margaret Wise Brown	Bill Martin
Wayne Carley	Peggy Parish
Beverly Cleary	Beatrix Potter
Roger Duvoisin	H.A. Rey
Russell Hoban	Ann Blades
Syd Hoff	Brian Wildsmith
Ezra Jack Keats	Maurice Sendak
Judith Viorst	

175

Books
I
Have
Read

Name: _____

Parent's Signature

Date

APPENDIX C

COMMUNICATION WITH SCHOOL BOARD AND PARENTS

Holy Cross Primary
145 St. Clare Ave.
St. John's
September 25, 1986

Mrs. G. Roe
Assistant Superintendent
R.C. School Board St. John's
Bonaventure Ave.
St. John's

Dear Mrs. Roe,

As part of the requirements for the M. Ed.
program in Curriculum and Instruction I am planning
to conduct a study with my grade two students at
Holy Cross Primary. The study is designed to implement
and evaluate an innovative language arts program.

I am, therefore, asking your permission to
allow me to conduct this study. I thank you in
advance in anticipation of your consent.

Yours truly,

Cathy Greene (Mrs.)

Roman Catholic School Board for St. John's

BELVEDERE
BONAVENTURE AVENUE
ST. JOHN'S, NEWFOUNDLAND
A1C 3Z4

Mrs Cathy Greene
Holy Cross Primary
145 St. Clare Ave.
St. John's. Nf

Dear Mrs. Greene.

Permission is granted for you to conduct a study at Holy Cross Primary
School. I understand that this study, designed to implement and
evaluate an innovative Language Arts Program with Grade Two students,
is part of the requirements for a Master's Degree in Curriculum and
Instruction.

Best wishes for success in your work!

Yours truly,

Geraldine Roe
Associate Superintendent
Curriculum/Instruction

GR/gfp

1986 02 10

September 25, 1986

Dear _____

    I am pleased to have _____ in my class this year. I hope it will be a happy and successful year for your little one. I believe that together we can help your child to do his or her best.

    I am inviting you to meet with me Monday, September 29th at 7:30 p.m.

    At this time I will be discussing a new program that your child will be involved in this year. It is very important that I see you, so if you are unable to come to school on Monday at 7:30, please let me know and we can arrange another time to meet.

    Thank you.

_____

Catherine Greene

Wednesday, Oct. 1, 1986

Dear _____

I am sorry you did not get to visit me yet this week. It is important that I talk to you about the new reading program your child is doing in school.

I will be at school again tonight at 7:30 p.m. If you cannot come at this time please write a short note telling me of a more convenient time for us to meet.

Thank you.

Catherine Greene

October 17, 1986

Dear Parents:

I am so glad you were able to visit me at school. We talked about your child's reading program and how you could help.

Now, I would like to meet with you again. I wish to explain to you the process of writing we will be following this year.

I will be at school Wednesday, Oct. 22 at 7:30 and Thursday, Oct. 23 at 3:00. Please indicate when you can come to school and return this slip to me on Monday.

Thank you.

Catherine Greene

We will come Oct. 22 at 7:30 _____

We will come Oct. 23 at 3:00 _____

We cannot come at either of these times.

A better time for us would be _____

Name _____

Phone number _____

Dear Parents,

The school year will soon be over and I have enjoyed working with your child. Your cooperation, your efforts home with your child, as well as your attendance the meetings we have had this year were certainly appreciated.

As you know, I have been watching the progress of the children in reading and writing for a project I am doing at Memorial University. In this regard, I am once again asking for your help. Please take the time to answer the questions on the attached sheet and return it to school tomorrow.

Thank you very much.

PROGRAM QUESTIONNAIRE

This year you and your child participated in a special reading and writing program.

1. Did you enjoy participating in this program?

   _____

2. Do you think your child is interested in reading?
   yes _____ no _____ a little _____ a lot _____

3. Do you think your child is interested in writing?
   yes _____ no _____ a little _____ a lot _____

COMMENTS: Please write any comments you may have about the program.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____