THE EFFECT OF A LITERATURE ENRICHMENT PROGRAM ON THE VOCABULARY AND READING COMPREHENSION OF GRADE ON STUDENTS

BETTY A BISSELL

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THE EFFECT OF A LITERATURE ENRICHMENT PROGRAM ON THE VOCABULARY AND READING COMPREHENSION OF GRADE ONE STUDENTS

A THESIS

PRESENTED TO

THE FACULTY OF EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT

This study was designed to set up a literature enrichment program in which grade one children were read to on a regular basis and involved in related activities. The main purpose of the investigation was to determine if children exposed to the literature program would have significantly higher achievement in reading comprehension and vocabulary than children who were not involved in such a program. Two statistical hypotheses and four substantive hypotheses were tested. They were as follows:

Statistical Hypotheses

1. $H_o: \mu_1 = \mu_2$ (in comprehension) Reject or not?

2. $H_o: \mu_1 = \mu_2$ (in vocabulary) Reject of not?

Substantive Hypotheses

1. The treatment group will have significantly higher achievement in comprehension than the control group.
2. The treatment group will have significantly higher achievement in vocabulary than the control group.
3. The treatment group will show a greater interest in books.
4. The treatment group will show an increased desire to read independently.

The study consisted of an experimental group and a control group. At the outset all subjects were administered a pretest to determine their level of reading comprehension and vocabulary. For a period of eight weeks the experimental group was involved for approximately one hour each day in a planned literature session which included listening to both a story and a poem being read aloud. After the listening experience, students participated in a follow-up activity such as drama, art, crafts, or creative writing. Parents of children in the experimental group were asked to participate in the study by sharing a daily read-aloud session with their child. Books for these sessions were selected at the school and taken home by the children.

At the conclusion of the eight week period, both groups were given a posttest and the data from that test as well as the pretest were analyzed statistically using an analysis of covariance. The analysis revealed that the experimental group made greater gains in both areas. The gain in comprehension, however, was not significant at the .05 level so the null hypothesis No. 1 was not rejected, but the null hypothesis No. 2 was rejected because the treatment group made gains in vocabulary which were significant at the .05 level.

The two null hypotheses were also presented as substantive hypotheses and tested statistically through the analysis of covariance. This resulted in substantive

hypothesis No. 1 being rejected and substantive hypothesis No. 2 being accepted. The substantive hypotheses No. 3 and No. 4 did not lend themselves to statistical treatment, but observational assessments, teachers' comments, and anecdotal records collected during the investigation provided the necessary data for a descriptive analysis. There was strong evidence to support the idea that children in the treatment group showed a greater interest in books and an increased desire to read independently, so the substantive hypotheses No. 3 and No. 4 were accepted.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The experimental study which was conducted for this thesis and the subsequent writing of the manuscript necessitated the cooperation and assistance of many people. First of all appreciation is expressed to the Newfoundland Government and to Memorial University of Newfoundland for the financial assistance given in the form of a fellowship and bursary. Appreciation is also directed to the Pentecostal Assemblies Board of Education for granting permission to carry out the study in that denominational school system. The principals and teachers of both schools involved in the investigation are to be commended for their complete cooperation.

Special thanks must go to Miss B. Brett, who served so ably as Supervisor of the thesis committee. Never once did she hesitate to take time from her busy schedule to counsel, encourage, and offer helpful criticism. Dr. E. Janes, a member of the committee, must also be thanked for her invaluable assistance. Knowledge that both individuals were working under extreme personal pressure due to private research by one and the lengthy hospitilization of the other makes their expenditure of time and energy most deeply appreciated. Appreciation must also go to those working in the Curriculum Center and the Education Library at Memorial —

they gave not only professional assistance, but generous amounts of encouragement.

Finally, gratitude goes to my family and the many friends who helped by typing, proofreading, and lending moral support. My sister, Sherry, deserves special mention since she is the one who listened most often to my complaints and frustrations, yet believed most firmly that the thesis would reach completion.

DEDICATION

To the memory of

Vern

Death has no power
to claim his spirit.
It moves unfettered,
inspiring this soul
To live, to labor, to love.

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CHAPTER I

AN OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

Background Information

Reading has long held a prominent position in the school curriculum, since proficiency in reading is prerequisite to success in most other subjects. Though the importance of reading goes unquestioned, there are numerous opinions regarding the factors that contribute to success in reading. Included among the factors which appear to be closely related to early reading achievement are: 1) the child's level of language development,[1] 2) the child's "sense of story",[2] and 3) the child's interest in books and desire to read for himself.[3] It seems self-evident, then, that a rich exposure to good literature, started at home during the preschool years and continued later at home and school, could contribute to the child's success in reading.

Educators are becoming increasingly aware of the relationship between oral language and reading competence.

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[1]Carol Chomsky, "Stages in Language Development and Reading Exposure," Harvard Educational Review 42 (February 1972): 1-38.

[2]Arthur N. Applebee, "A Sense of Story," Theory Into Practice 16 (December 1977): 342-49.

[3]Dolores Durkin, "Children Who Learned to Read at Home," Elementary School Journal 62 (October 1961): 15-18.

Studies of kindergarten through grade four children, carried out by Chomsky, suggested that a child's independent reading and listening to books read aloud have a real impact on his language development, since "the child who reads or listens to a variety of rich and complex materials benefits from a range of linguistic inputs that is unavailable to the nonliterary child."[1]

It has been observed by Smith that "children at school are usually not provided with complex written material as part of their reading instruction for the obvious reason that they could not be expected to read it by themselves," but he feels the "specially-tailored-for-children texts" may cause confusion for beginners who are unfamiliar with the artificial language.[2] Lamb, too, condemns the artificial nature of textbook language and feels it should be more representative of oral and written language.[3] The observation that preprimers are stilted in style can hardly be argued, since "the vocabulary, the length of the sentences, the length of the lines, the number of pictures in each

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[1]Carol Chomsky, "Language and Reading," in Applied Linguistics and Reading, ed. Robert E. Shafer (Newark: International Reading Association, 1979), p. 124.

[2]Frank Smith, Understanding Reading: A Psycholinguistic Analysis of Reading and Learning to Read (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1978), p. 185.

[3]Pose Lamb, "Language, Meaning, and Reading Instruction," in Language and Learning to Read, eds. Richard E. Hodges and E. Hugh Rudorf (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1972), p. 193.

story, and the interest area are all controlled."[1]

The fact that basal readers are unlikely to cause children to think of reading as a pleasurable experience is noted by Huck as well as others.[2] The recognition of the discrepancy between what children are given to read in school and what they are likely to enjoy has brought about a renewed interest in teaching literature as part of the early reading program. Huck thinks it should be "the very heart of the reading program,"[3] not merely supplementary material.

There is increasing recognition that "reading" is more than acquiring specific "skills". Barbe, Odland, and Pfau all share the philosophy that teaching the skills of reading must not take priority over the development of a genuine interest in reading. A statement of this concern is made by Barbe:

> The great cry for more attention to skill instruction, which was perhaps needed, has resulted in children who have learned the fundamental skills of reading but have not developed the attitudes toward reading which make this skill useful to them.[4]

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[1]Russell G. Stauffer, "Breaking the Basal-Reader Lock Step," Elementary School Journal 61 (February 1961): 269-76.

[2]Charlotte S. Huck, "Planning a Literature Program for the Elementary School," Elementary English 39 (April 1962): 307-13.

[3]Charlotte Huck, "Literature as the Content of Reading," Theory Into Practice 16 (December 1977): 363-71.

[4]Walter R. Barbe, "Interests and the Teaching of Reading," Education 83 (April 1963): 486-90.

Odland maintains that the reading program must be viewed as "incomplete if there is no evidence that the skills of reading are used."[1] Pfau would agree with Odland's statement because his observation has been that a person's ability to read often has little to do with whether or not he does read and he suggests that one reason more children are not emerging from schools as readers is that they are "strongly influenced by the nature of the materials they encounter while learning to read." He believes it is extremely unlikely that children will learn "appreciation of books or love of reading from a basal text."[2]

During his research Pfau became aware that "many children fail to grasp the idea that reading can be fun, that it can serve as a means of enjoying and enriching daily living."[3] No one has a better opportunity than teachers to impart this knowledge. Teachers can lure children to books through the entertainment value of reading stories. Reading aloud to children not only introduces them to a wide variety of literature; it may encourage them to undertake the trials of learning to read for themselves.[4]

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[1]Norine Odland, "Planning a Literature Program for the Elementary School," Language Arts 56 (April 1979): 363-67.

[2]Donald W. Pfau, "An Investigation of the Effects of Planned Recreational Reading Programs in First and Second Grade," (Doctoral dissertation, Department of Education, State University of New York, 1966), pp. 12-13.

[3]Ibid., p. 21.

[4]May Hill Arbuthnot and Zena Sutherland, Children and Books (London: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1972), p. 650.

Fenner emphasizes, however, that children's introduction to books should occur long before they start school — that children should, in fact, be surrounded by good books from the moment they are able to sit up.[1]

Applebee, with his focus on a child's development of a concept of story, has shed more light on the importance of reading books to small children. It is only as a child hears many stories that he is able to develop his own "sense of story" with the ability to predict what will happen next and how certain characters will behave in different situations. Learning to read should be less difficult for the child who has a well developed "sense of story" because he has the ability to predict which is vital to success in reading.[2] The importance of expectation and prediction in reading is recognized by Goodman, who makes the following comment:

> A good deal of prereading experience with literature will help the child build a strong base for reading literature for himself. Some children grow up in a world of literature: they are surrounded by books; their parents read to them; they acquire favorites which they soon know by heart. By the time such children come to school, they have a feel for the peculiarities of literary language and a sense of what to expect from it. They can predict in literary language as they can in more common language.[3]

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[1]Phyllis Fenner, The Proof of the Pudding: What Children Read (New York: The John Day Company, 1957), p. 26.

[2]Arthur N. Applebee, The Child's Concept of Story: Ages Two to Seventeen (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1978), pp. 47-48.

[3]Kenneth S. Goodman, "Behind the Eye: What Happens in Reading," in Reading: Process and Program, eds. Kenneth Goodman and O. Niles (Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1970), p. 485.

In Johnson's opinion, parents and teachers are the most "vital link between the world of books and their intended audience" and it is extremely important that their manner of sharing books with children serve to "increase the child's appreciation."[1] Cameron, too, feels that parents and teachers play a vital role in bringing children and books together and she addresses first the parents and then the teachers by saying, "Your small child must be read and sung the Mother Goose rhymes at the earliest age, must be read the Beatrix Potter stories and the finest of the picture books . . . and elementary school teachers must involve the child with literature from the moment he can be read to."[2]

If children are going to realize the greatest potential from hearing stories read, it is essential that schools recognize the role of the parents in their child's education. As Tinker points out, "Parents and teachers must be partners if the teaching of reading is to be truly successful."[3]

The importance of acquainting parents with the objectives of the reading program and enlisting their support is expressed by Schickedanz:

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[1]Terry D. Johnson, "Presenting Literature to Children," Children's Literature in Education 10 (Spring, 1979): 35-43.

[2]Eleanor Cameron, "McLuhan, Youth, and Literature," The Horn Book Magazine 48 (October 1972): 433-40.

[3]Miles A. Tinker, Preparing Your Child for Reading (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1971), p. 144.

> The effects of story reading at home may be quite strong, while the effects of even frequent story reading at school may not be. At home, the child is usually on the reader's lap where he or she can see the print and turn the pages of the book; in the classroom children often are seated far from the books in groups of twenty or more, a situation that limits both physical and visual contact with the book.[1]

If parents and teachers cooperate in exposing children to a wide variety of good literature by reading aloud to them, it should not only foster a desire in the children to read for themselves but also contribute to their reading achievement. Smith comments on the important role of parents and teachers in helping first grade children maintain the love for reading which was fostered through hearing good stories:

> The transition from the story book world to first grade reading is a particularly precarious one so far as the love of reading is concerned, for it means a shift from being read to to the job of reading for oneself. Continued storytelling and reading aloud need to be kept up by both teacher and parent so that the child may retain his enthusiasm for what he may be able to read for himself once the skills of reading are mastered. The kinds of material and the challenging vocabulary and ideas of the picture book are often beyond the skill of the first grade reader; yet he needs the stimulation of more literary materials while he is learning to read the simpler stories of everyday life which are controlled in vocabulary to meet the need of the beginner.[2]

Reading is recognized as a very important component of the school curriculum and parents and teachers alike are eager to see maximum achievement in this area. The objective

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[1]Judith A. Schickedanz, "Please Read That Story Again: Exploring Relationships Between Story Reading and Learning to Read," Young Children 33 (July 1978): 48-55.

[2]Dora V. Smith, Selected Essays (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1964), p. 146.

of the school is to produce pupils who enjoy reading while having the necessary skills to do it well. Huck points out, however, that "enthusiasm for books doesn't just happen," but is the result of "an effective instructional program which has definite purposes and a definite place in the curriculum."[1] One reason for a general lack of enthusiasm for books among children could be that reading has become "a tiresome chore of word analysis and other exercises" and has ceased to be either exciting or rewarding.[2] The answer to this dilemma, Chambers suggests, is in providing children with the type of material they will enjoy. He says, "The delightful world of children's literature should be an integral part of any good reading program."[3]

It is evident that a number of activities have taken priority over reading for pleasure and until effective literature programs are established in the schools it is unrealistic to expect trends toward greater interest in reading by pupils. Cullinan recognizes this fact when she says:

> The urgency to acquaint children with high quality literature is intensified by our awareness of competing demands upon their time. The numerous entertainment

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[1]Huck, "Planning the Literature Program for the Elementary School," p. 312.

[2]Joe L. Frost, ed., Issues and Innovations in the Teaching of Reading (Glenview, Illinois: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1967), p. 244.

[3]Dewey W. Chambers, "...Let Them Read," The Reading Teacher 20 (December 1966): 254-57.

> devices that did not exist even a few decades ago and the greater mobility of the modern child combine to intensify the competition for time. The television set is frequently chosen instead of the book for leisure time.[1]

A study conducted with sixth and seventh grade children in 1972, in an effort to determine the amount of reading they do and its relation to reading achievement, gathered information from parents on the daily activities of their children. The information provided indicated that most children read one hour per day in contrast to viewing television three hours per day.[2] This trend does not seem to be changing. Winn's survey (1977), reported by Huck, revealed that all the 500 fourth and fifth grade subjects expressed preference for watching television to reading of any kind. In recognition of this fact Huck says, "If teachers want their students to have the opportunity to practice their reading skills through wide reading, they must reorder their priorities and provide school time for children to enjoy reading."[3] This has not been a consistent practice in schools, as Chomsky discovered when reading one child's report of what she had read during a one week period. The children had been told to enter their books in the appropriate columns — "Books Read at Home" or "Books

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[1]Bernice E. Cullinan, Literature for Children: Its Discipline and Content (Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C. Brown Company Publishers, 1971), p. 3.

[2]John T. Guthrie, "Research Views: How Much to Read," The Reading Teacher 33 (October 1979): 110-11.

[3]Huck, "Literature as the Content of Reading," p. 367.

Read at School." In the "At School" column the child had listed only a few books and added the comment, "'I don't have time to read in school."[1]

Westwater critisizes television because it has "robbed many children of those mutually enriching hours during which parents read to their children."[2] It has also robbed children of the type of literary experiences which should entice them to read widely and with satisfaction. It is essential to cultivate an interest in reading during the formative years if one expects this activity to remain an integral part of life, but as Pfau points out, "exclusive exposure to basal reading materials does not constitute a completely satisfactory method of assuring interest in reading."[3]

Almost twenty years ago Huck stated that "the over-emphasis of the instructional or basic reading program to the neglect of the literature programs may be a major factor for the small amount of book reading."[4] Her views about this have not changed and in a recent article she again points out that even young children can distinguish between

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[1]Chomsky, "Language and Reading," p. 126.

[2]A. Martha Westwater, "With Best Meaning: Restoring Literature to the Reading Program." Journal of Education (Halifax) 4 (Spring, 1977): 18-19.

[3]Donald W. Pfau, "Effects of Planned Recreational Reading Programs," The Reading Teacher 21 (October 1967): 34-39.

[4]Huck, "Planning the Literature Program for the Elementary School," p. 307.

books with exciting imaginative stories and basic texts designed for instructional purposes. She is firmly convinced that "the motivation for learning to read comes from the desire to read 'real books' and that imaginative literature must be the content of the reading program."[1]

McCormick fears that teachers, in an effort to produce better readers, have given preference to instructional procedures and as a result, "when time has been limited, reading aloud to children has often been overlooked in favor of other activities."[2]

As children learn to read, independent reading often replaces listening, thus depriving the child of the complex materials which are beyond his reading ability.[3] Most children's reading ability is far below their appreciation level in grade one. It is therefore the responsibility of the adult to promote an interest in literature and to provide enriching literary experiences which will build up the child's vocabulary and reading repertoire. Pfau feels that exposure to good literature causes children to "find it difficult not to want to read."[4] If children can, through listening to stories, become better readers and be

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[1]Huck, "Literature as the Content of Reading," p. 363.

[2]Sandra McCormick, "Should You Read Aloud To Your Children?" Language Arts 54 (February 1977): 139-43, 163.

[3]Chomsky, "Language and Reading," p. 127.

[4]Pfau, "Effects of Planned Recreational Reading Programs," p. 35.

motivated to read for themselves, surely the time which parents and teachers spend reading aloud must be considered worthwhile.

The Problem

Reading is considered by most primary and elementary teachers to be the most important subject in the school curriculum, and much time and effort are spent teaching the skills that are expected to produce readers. In some classrooms little time is devoted to reading quality literature to the children. The emphasis seems to be placed on teaching them how to read rather than on helping them become readers.

It is generally accepted that basal readers do not, perhaps cannot, contain a sufficient variety of content to motivate young children to read. While series of basal readers are prescribed by the Department of Education, these books are not intended to constitute the whole reading program as they so often do. Rather, teachers are expected to supplement those basals with a rich variety of literature.

Parents and teachers may be unaware of the tremendous impact which reading aloud to children can have on their reading achievement and life-long reading habits. There is a substantial body of research to support the belief that hearing good books read aloud regularly not only adds to the child's enjoyment and motivates them to read independently, but also helps them to become more competent in the skills

of reading. Children who are not privileged to hear parents and teachers read aloud are deprived of a rich source of vocabulary and ideas which should ultimately help them to become better readers. This study is designed to determine whether reading to children on a regular basis at school and at home and involving them in related activities has any significant effect on reading achievement as measured by vocabulary and comprehension tests.

Need

The need for teaching strategies or ideas that will help to increase reading achievement and give children the desire to read for pleasure is obvious. According to the results of the Canadian Test of Basic Skills administered in 1978, children's mean reading achievement in Newfoundland is below their grade level and it is unlikely that children will choose reading as a pleasureable pastime if they cannot do it well.[1]

An additional need for this study is to focus the attention of parents and teachers on the value of reading aloud to children. They will be made aware, or at least reminded, of the effect this activity can have on children's reading achievement, desire to read independently, and continued interest in reading.

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[1] Department of Education, Newfoundland Standard Testing Program Grade Four, October, 1978 (St. John's: Testing Branch, Division of Instruction, Department of Education, 1978).

Objectives

1. To select a body of appropriate literature and related activities to enrich the vocabulary of the children.
2. To expose the children to good literature daily by reading aloud to them at school and asking the parents to read to them at home.
3. To involve the children in drama, art, and creative writing activities related to the literary selections.
4. To broaden the interest of the children in books by providing quality literature about a wide variety of topics.
5. To create in children the desire to read for themselves by letting them experience exciting materials which are not dulled by a restricted vocabulary.

Limitations

The experimental and control groups for this study were drawn from a denominational school system in urban areas of Newfoundland. Each group contained approximately 40 first grade students of high, medium, and low achievement in reading. The relatively small sample and the fact that subjects were chosen only from urban areas limit the scope of the experiment. It is believed, however, that certain

generalizations are justifiable, since the groups displayed a wide range of ability and are probably typical of most first grade classes in Newfoundland. The limited time frame of eight weeks in which this study was conducted, nevertheless, restricts the value of generalizations about its effectiveness.

Organization of the Thesis

Chapter I has presented relevant background information to introduce the study, a statement of the problem, and the need, objectives, and limitations of the study. Chapter II presents a review of related literature. Chapter III gives details of the research design. An analysis of the data is presented in Chapter IV. Chapter V summarizes the study, discusses the findings, draws implications, and makes recommendations for further study.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

It is possible that some teachers become so committed to the teaching of reading skills that any practice which deviates from traditional reading instruction leaves them apprehensive lest it result in lowered reading achievement. Reading aloud to children may be one such practice. There is, however, considerable evidence to support the idea that children's reading achievement is not jeopardized but actually improved when they are read to on a regular basis. Section one of this chapter refers to the findings of research studies related to the practice of reading aloud to children.

Section two reviews the literature related to the specific benefits of hearing literature read aloud. There is general agreement that storytelling and reading aloud to children may:

1. Contribute to language development.
2. Develop a child's "sense of story".
3. Provide enjoyment and information.
4. Motivate a child to read independently.
5. Promote understanding of self and others.
6. Refine the ability to recognize and select quality literature.

7. Stimulate creativity.

Section three explores the dual role of the teacher and parents in providing a good reading model and promoting reading achievement by reading aloud to children.

The final section of Chapter II focuses on the selection of appropriate materials and activities for a special literature program.

Related Research

Educators generally agree that proficiency in oral communication is a prelude to success in reading. Exposure to good literature is recognized as one way of introducing children to new vocabulary and thus increasing oral communication skills. Research studies, therefore, which recognize the impact of hearing literature on language development are included in this investigation. Other research material reviewed deals more specifically with the effect which hearing stories read aloud might have on a child's reading achievement, since that was a primary concern of this particular investigation.

Children's Literature and Language Development

Both Irwin and Chomsky were interested in children's acquisition of language and investigated factors which they thought significant to language development. Irwin designed a study to test the hypothesis that systematic reading of stories to infants between ages 13 and 30 months

would increase the children's amount of phonetic production. There was an experimental group of 24 infants and a control group of 10. Mothers of the infants in the experimental group spent 15 to 20 minutes each day reading stories to their children and talking about the books. The investigator made regular visits to both groups and recorded the spontaneous speech of the children.

The data collected revealed that from the thirteenth to the seventeenth month there was little difference between the two groups, but soon after the seventeenth month the curve separated and the experimental group consistently exceeded the control group until age two and a half. The experiment terminated at that age.[1]

Chomsky's study attempted to find the relationship between language development and exposure to books by studying children between the ages of six and ten. She tried to find the answers to such questions as:

1. What books are read to children?
2. What books do children read on their own?
3. How much time do children spend reading or listening to books read aloud?
4. What do children remember from past reading exposure?

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[1] Orvis C. Irwin, "Infant Speech: Effect of Systematic Reading of Stories," Journal of Speech and Hearing Research 3 (June 1960): 187-90.

It was concluded from the data collected that the kind of inputs and exposure provided by the written language does contribute to the child's linguistic development.[1]

Two rather extensive studies were conducted with disadvantaged children in an attempt to discover if language development could be enhanced through exposure to literature and related activities. A program was designed by Cullinan, Jaggar, and Strickland in which the objective was to expand the language of Black children "to include standard English without reducing the level of proficiency in the native Black English."[2] The study included 249 Black students from kindergarten to grade three. The program required that the children be read a literary selection daily and then participate in an oral language activity. The proposed language activities included creative dramatics, puppetry, discussion, and storytelling. The sessions lasted approximately thirty minutes each day for one academic year.

The control group was also involved in a literature program, but instead of oral language activities they did art or music activities or viewed filmstrips after hearing a book read aloud. The main difference between the treatment of the experimental and control groups was the types of follow-up activities in which each group engaged.

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[1]Chomsky, "Stages in Language Development and Reading Exposure," p. 1-38.

[2]Bernice E. Cullinan, Angela M. Jagger, and Dorothy Strickland, "Language Expansion for Black Children in the Primary Grades: A Research Report," Young Children 29 (January 1974): 98-112.

The results of the study indicated that the children in the experimental group showed greater gains in their control over standard English than did the control group. This difference was significant, however, only at the kindergarten level. It was discovered following the experiment that the kindergarten teachers participating in the study used a higher percentage of oral language activities than teachers at other grade levels.[1]

A study by Bailey, which provided material for a doctoral dissertation, was primarily concerned with the improvement of disadvantaged first graders' language ability through participation in a library resource program. One experimental and two control groups were randomly selected for the study with one of the control groups consisting of non-disadvantaged children. The Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities was administered to all groups as a pretest at the beginning of the experiment. The same test was given to all groups at the end of the experimental period as a posttest. The experimental group participated in a library resource program for one hour each day for a twelve week period. The first half hour of the daily program was held in the school library where the group learned nursery rhymes, listened to stories, and looked at picture-books. Books and poems previously introduced were often reread during this period and children were encouraged to select their favorites to retell or act out.

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[1]Ibid.

The second half hour of the program consisted of individual and small group activities which included:

1. Looking at a book while listening to a taped reading of the story.
2. Watching filmstrips on a portable projector screen while listening to the story on a record.
3. Listening to stories read by an elementary student in a one-to-one relationship.
4. Discussing the contents of a previously read book in paired peers.

The two control groups were not involved in the library program but were expected to follow the regular curriculum which suggested that a story be read or told each day.

The results of Bailey's study indicated a significant difference at a .001 level between the disadvantaged experimental group and the disadvantaged control group on the total score of the Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities. There was, however, no significant difference between the disadvantaged experimental group and the non-disadvantaged control group. It was concluded that the total language ability of disadvantaged children could be improved through participation in the activities of a library resource program.[1]

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[1] Gertrude Marie Bailey, "The Use of a Library Resource Program for the Improvement of Language Abilities of Disadvantaged First Grade Pupils of an Urban Community" (Doctoral dissertation, Department of Education, Boston College, 1969).

In order to make recommendations for preschool teaching, Cazden did an extensive review of the research done on language development. She suggested that rather than trying to correct a child's nonstandard form of English, an effort should be made to enlarge the child's linguistic repertoire. One of the most obvious ways of doing this is by reading to the child. Cazden concluded that reading aloud can be a potent form of language stimulation because of the special physical relationship that often exists between reader and listener and because of the conversation which often takes place concerning either the story or pictures.[1]

Children's Literature and Reading Achievement

Plessas and Oakes, Walker and Kuerbitz, and Durkin were all eager to determine if there was a relationship between reading to preschoolers and early reading achievement. Plessas and Oakes attempted to "identify the nature of pre-reading activities that might be associated with early success in reading." Twenty-two first grade teachers in Sacramento, California, were asked to submit the names of students able to read at the primer level when entering first grade. Of the forty names submitted only twenty scored above 2.0 on the California Reading Test, so they

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[1]Courtney B. Cazden, "Some Implications of Research on Language Development for Preschool Education," A paper prepared for the Social Science Research Council Conference on Preschool Education (Chicago: U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1966).

were chosen as subjects for the investigation. Data were gathered through questionnaires sent to parents during January and February requesting information about the subjects' pre-first grade reading experiences. Responses from the parents indicated that all the children had been read to extensively both at home and in kindergarten.[1]

Walker and Kuebitz reported on a descriptive study designed to investigate:

1. The relationship between reading to preschoolers and their success in beginning reading.
2. The effect of the frequency of story-time experiences on success in beginning reading.
3. The extent to which reading gains attributed to story-time exposure persisted through grade three.

The data collected through parents' responses to questionnaire items indicated that children who had participated in regular story-time experiences during preschool years showed greater success in beginning reading than those children who heard stories infrequently. The researchers concluded that "story-time is a positive factor contributing to beginning reading success."[2]

Durkin conducted a longitudinal study of children who learned to read at home before starting school. One of

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[1]Gus P. Plessas and Clifton R. Oakes, "Prereading Experiences of Selected Early Readers," The Reading Teacher 17 (January 1964): 241-45.

[2]George H. Walker, Jr. and Iris E. Kuerbitz, "Reading to Preschoolers As An Aid to Successful Beginning Reading," Reading Improvement 16 (Summer, 1979): 149-54.

the questions she attempted to answer from the research data was: What accounts for preschool ability in reading? Data collected on the forty-nine early readers who were the subjects for her study indicated that none of them learned without help. The help was usually in the form of answering questions about words which children observed in books and newspapers, or on signs, labels and television programs.[1]

Another longitudinal study conducted by Durkin reports the reading achievement during grades one to four of children who had participated in a two year pre-first grade language arts program. Since her previous study had indicated that children who learned to read before coming to school were usually from homes where they were read to frequently and where parents took the time to answer their questions, it was decided that the language arts program would begin each day with a conversation period and at least one story.

At the conclusion of the experiment, the reading achievement of the experimental subjects in grades one and two was significantly beyond that of the control group. The experimental subjects in grades three and four continued to exceed the control group but the differences were no longer significant.[2]

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[1] Durkin, "Children Who Learned to Read at Home," p. 15-18.

[2] Dolores Durkin, "A Six Year Study of Children Who Learned to Read in School at the Age of Four," Reading Research Quarterly 10 (No. 1, 1974-75): 9-61.

From her two studies investigating children who read early, Durkin drew a number of observations. She said:

> The research data indicated the presence of parents who spend time with their children; who read to them; who answer their questions and their requests for help; and who demonstrate in their own lives that reading is a rich source of relaxation, information, and contentment. Whether these same kinds of factors also helped to promote the continued high achievement of the early readers in later grades was not studied. However, the possibility of their positive influence cannot be overlooked.[1]

There appears to be a definite correlation between the amount of exposure to books and a child's reading achievement. A co-operative research project in reading provided information which Sheldon and Carrille used to find relations between children's reading ability and characteristics reported by parents on a questionnaire. This questionnaire requested information about the size of the family, the number of books in the home, and the educational level of the parents.

There were 868 subjects in the study. These subjects represented a selection, made by the teachers, of 5 per cent of the "good" readers and 5 per cent of the "poor" readers from eight schools. Results of the Progressive Reading Test showed that half of those chosen as "good" readers were reading above grade level but only one-fourth of those chosen as "poor" readers were reading below grade level — the rest of those chosen appeared to be average readers.

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[1]Dolores Durkin, Children Who Read Early: Two Longitudinal Studies (New York: Teachers College Press, 1966) p. 136.

The finding that is most significant to the present study pertains to the relationship between the number of books in the home and a child's reading ability, Sheldon and Carrille noted a consistent trend in this area:

> As the number of books in the home increases, the per cent of good readers increases and the per cent of average and of poor readers decreases. It is difficult to tell whether this direct relation results from the attitude instilled in children by familiarity with books throughout their developmental years; from higher status and perhaps higher intelligence of parents and, therefore, heredity; or from a combination of such factors. It seems evident, however, that there is a direct relation.[1]

Lyons and Cohen each investigated the effect of a literature program on reading achievement in the primary grades but the data collected showed dissimilar results. A logical explanation for the significant results of Cohen's study opposed to the insignificant results of Lyons' rests in the length of the treatments. Also, Cohen's subjects were socially deprived and this may have caused them to be more responsive to the treatment, since they may have had little or no exposure to books previous to the study.

Lyons' study used three groups to investigate and compare the influence of a planned program of verbal input and a planned program of verbal output on reading achievement at the first and second grade levels. The verbal input program involved reading stories to children and discussing

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[1]William D. Sheldon and Lawrence Carrille, "Relation of Parents, Home, and Certain Developmental Characteristics to Children's Reading Ability," Elementary School Journal 52 (January 1952): 262-70.

them while the verbal output program provided opportunities for children to use their own language. The control group consisted of children who attended school but were involved in neither of the planned programs.

Subjects for the study were drawn from four schools in Ohio where pupils were from similar socio-economic backgrounds. The sample consisted of 269 children. Lyons used a posttest only-control group design, but attempts were made to insure pretreatment equivalence of the groups. The treatment groups received three 20 minute lessons each week for a period of twelve weeks. The California Achievement Test, Level I, Form A was used as a posttest ten days after treatments were concluded and Form B was used as a delayed posttest five months after the completion of the treatment.

A three-way analysis of variance on the word recognition scores for both the posttest and delayed posttest revealed no significant differences among the three experimental programs. The same type of analysis also indicated no significant difference between treatment groups on the measure of comprehension. It was felt that the period of time over which the program was carried out may have been too short to produce significant results.[1]

Cohen used socially-deprived children as subjects and tested for the effect of persistent exposure to story

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[1]Patricia Anne Lyons, "The Effect of Children's Literature and Oral Discussion on the Reading Achievement of First and Second Grade Children" (Doctoral dissertation, Ohio State University, 1972).

reading on the development of vocabulary and reading achievement. The study was carried out from October to June in seven elementary schools in New York City. Form B of the Metropolitan Reading Achievement Test, Upper Primary was used as a pretest and Form C as a posttest of reading achievement. The Free Association Vocabulary Test, validated by Tinker, Hacker and Wesley, was used as a pretest and posttest measure of vocabulary.

Teachers participating in the study were given a manual of suggested story-reading techniques and follow-up activities. They were instructed to read a story and do some related creative activity with the children each day. Books used by teachers in the experimental classrooms were assigned to one of three groups according to level of difficulty. The criteria for assigning books to a particular group included: length, complexity of theme, and complexity of sentences. Teachers were requested to introduce the books to the children in order of difficulty. Teachers in the control groups were given no instructions. It was, therefore, assumed that any books they might read would unlikely be introduced in order of difficulty. At the conclusion of the study the experimental and control groups were compared. The experimental group showed an increase in vocabulary, significant at .005; an increase in word knowledge, significant at .005; and an increase in reading comprehension, significant at .01. The experimental group

also showed a numerical superiority in quality of vocabulary, but there was no significant difference in word discrimination.[1]

Research by Amato, Emans, and Ziegler seems to indicate that independent use of library materials is just as productive as specialized programs which emphasize either creative drama or storytelling. They conducted a two year study with 298 elementary students to investigate the effects of creative drama and storytelling on children's interest and reading achievement. The study took place in nine public libraries in Philadelphia with fourth and fifth grade pupils. The 298 subjects were divided into three groups: library usage was the main activity of the control group, while involvement in creative dramatics was emphasized in one of the experimental groups and storytelling in the other. The experimental groups participated in planned programs while the control group used the library facilities independently. Using the analysis of covariance at the conclusion of the study, they found no statistically significant differences among the groups. They concluded that neither creative dramatics nor storytelling had an effect on children's interest or reading achievement, though both seemed to have a positive effect on the use of the library.[2]

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[1] Dorothy Cohen, "The Effect of Literature on Vocabulary and Reading Achievement". (Doctoral dissertation, New York University, 1966).

[2] Anthony Amato, Robert Emans, and Elsie Zeigler, "The Effectiveness of Creative Dramatics and Storytelling in a Library Setting," The Journal of Educational Research 67 (December 1973): 161-81.

It is possible that the amount of time a child spends reading may also be a major factor in his reading achievement. Concern is expressed by Durkin about the time or "lack of time" which children spend reading. She carried out an observational study in grades three to six in an attempt to determine the amount of time allotted to comprehension instruction during the reading and social studies periods. An interesting sidelight of the study was the observation of three individual subjects from grades three, five, and six. The percentage of time these students spent "reading" (which included following another's oral reading, reading aloud and reading silently) ranged from 12.66 to 14.93 per cent of the reading period. Most of their time was spent doing written assignments and no mention was made of the children's hearing literature read for pleasure as a part of the reading program.[1]

Pfau investigated the effects of independent reading on reading achievement. He conducted a two year study with 170 first grade children, introducing into the classroom 100 trade books, "easy readers", and literature books which were to be used by the students as independent reading materials. In this study the experimental group spent thirty minutes each day in "recreational reading" activities in addition to the usual basal reading instruction. The

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[1] Dolores Durkin, "What Classroom Observations Reveal About Reading Comprehension Instruction," Reading Research Quarterly 14 (No. 4, 1978-79): 481-533.

findings at the end of the second year showed that the experimental group had measurable gains in both reading interest and vocabulary, significant at the .001 level. There was, however, no significant difference in word analysis or comprehension. Teachers involved in the study felt that children in the experimental group became more fluent in their verbal and written interaction.[1]

Little research was found dealing specifically with the use of literature in Newfoundland reading programs, but the project reports of Andrews, Hiscock, and Strong are worth noting. Each of these individuals was responsible for organizing and implementing, in a Newfoundland School, a reading project in which literature was a major component.

Andrews used an individualized reading program in a grade two classroom. The program, which consisted of read aloud sessions, silent reading, record keeping, pupil-teacher conferences, and book related activities, was intended to supplement the basal readers being used in the school. Short portions of a book were frequently read aloud to entice children to read the entire book on their own. The success of the program was revealed, according to Andrews, by the "obvious enjoyment which the children derived from the books they were reading."[2]

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[1]Pfau, "An Investigation of the Effects of Planned Recreational Reading Programs in First and Second Grade."

[2]Judy Catherine Andrews, "Planning and Implementing an Individualized Reading Program In a Grade Two Classroom" (Internship report, Memorial University of Newfoundland, 1975).

A project designed to challenge bright children in the classroom was carried out by Hiscock with six grade three students whose I.Q. scores ranged from 116-130. A major part of the project was devoted to an individualized reading program which provided for special interests of the children. Various genres of literature were introduced and discussed. Although there was no formal evaluation at the end of the project, students, teacher, and parents agreed with Hiscock that the project had been enjoyable and effective.[1]

Strong implemented a project in which she used a variety of books and activities to promote positive reading attitudes in six and seven year old children who had encountered difficulties in reading. The nine subjects in her sample were administered the following reading tests: Gates-MacGinitie Primary Reading Test, Durrell Analysis of Reading Difficulty Test, and Slosson Oral Reading Test. The children in the project also completed Intelligence Tests, a Language Test, and an Inventory of Reading Attitude.

The project leader read books aloud and told stories, but individualized instruction and the use of peer-tutors (chosen from grades five and seven) were also important elements of the study. Because the children were given ample opportunity to select and read books themselves, books

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[1]Clarissa Hiscock, "Challenging the Bright Children in the Classroom" (Internship report, Memorial University of Newfoundland, 1975).

with controlled vocabulary were also included in the collection available to them.

No formal posttesting was done at the end of this project, but a record was kept of each child's reading involvement. The children, the classroom teacher, and the leader of the project all felt that it was successful and there was an observable indication that this was true: whereas the nine children read approximately one book or less each month before the project, they averaged over twelve books per month after the project.[1]

Summary

The studies reported above provide convincing evidence that children, even very young children, benefit from hearing stories read aloud since this contributes to their linguistic development. The research presented substantiates the idea that reading aloud to children has a definite effect on when and how well they will read. Children exposed to many stories as preschoolers were most often successful in beginning reading and it was discovered that children who read early came from homes where parents read to them. A significant relationship was also discovered between the number of books in the home and the child's reading ability. A planned literature program

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[1]Elizabeth Lee Strong, "The Use of Children's Literature to Foster Positive Reading Attitudes in Primary Children with Reading Difficulty" (Internship report, Memorial University of Newfoundland, 1978).

of short duration showed no significant increase in reading achievement but a longer program used with socially-deprived children resulted in significant increases in vocabulary, word knowledge, and reading comprehension.

Benefits Of Hearing Literature Read Aloud

The benefits of hearing literature read aloud are probably inexhaustible but it is important to know why this activity is worthwhile. Schickedanz points out that unless we can answer the question of "why reading to children makes a difference . . . we have little to guide us in determining how best to read to young children or in deciding what additional experiences we might provide to help children learn to read."[1]

Hildreth emphasizes the benefits derived from hearing literature read aloud and also stresses the importance of providing an ample supply of quality literature for young children.[2] It is suggested by Huus that literature should play a prominent role in fulfilling the aims of education. She defines literature:

> Literature refers to the cumulated writings of quality that children can hear or read and understand. It includes fanciful and realistic stories, informational books with literary style and poetry, whether these works are classical or contemporary. It encompasses

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[1]Schickedanz, "Please Read That Story Again." p. 48.

[2]Gertrude Hildreth, Teaching Reading. (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1958), p. 522.

material written originally for children as well as those stories and poems which children have appropriated for themselves.[1]

Only a few of the benefits which result from reading literature aloud to children are considered here, but an attempt has been made to include those which are most likely to have an effect on reading achievement and interest in voluntary reading. The seven specific benefits to be considered are:

1. Contribution to Language Development.
2. Development of a "Sense of Story".
3. Provision for Enjoyment and Information.
4. Motivation to Read Independently.
5. Understanding of Self and Others.
6. Refinement of Literary Taste.
7. Stimulation of Creativity.

Language Development

There is little doubt that a definite relationship exists between oral language development and success in learning to read.[2] The language ability of a child can, in fact, give us clues to his expected progress in reading. "Rapid early language development suggests rapid early reading."[3]

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[1]Helen Huus, "The Role of Literature In Children's Education," Educational Horizons 50 (Spring 1972): 139-45.

[2]Edward J. Dwyer, "Research and Implications Concerning Children's Literature and Reading Instruction," Reading World 18 (October 1978): 33-36.

[3]Frost, ed. Issues and Innovations in the Teaching of Reading, p. 81.

Although Fleming points out that "ability in oral language is hardly the mirror image of ability in reading," he does not deny the existence of a relationship between the two.[1]

Studies such as Bougere's, which investigated "the predictive role of language competency on success in beginning reading,"[2] have given support to those who believe language competency plays a vital role in beginning reading success. The following comments leave little doubt that some are convinced that it does play a vital role:

Edward J. Dwyer: " . . . children must attain competence in oral language before reading instruction can be undertaken with hope of success."[3]

Gertrude Hildreth: "It is doubtful whether a child can become a fluent reader, comprehending fully what he reads, without a good oral language foundation and continued attention to oral language improvement."[4]

James Moffett: "Learning to read and write will depend in large measure on the growth of oral speech."[5]

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[1]James T. Fleming, "Oral Language and Beginning Reading: Another Look," The Reading Teacher 22 (October 1968): 24-29.

[2]Marguerite Bondy Bougere, "Selected Factors in Oral Language Related to First Grade Reading Achievement," Reading Research Quarterly 5 (Fall 1969): 31-58.

[3]Dwyer, "Research and Implications Concerning Children's Literature and Reading Instruction," p. 33.

[4]Gertrude Hildreth, "Linguistic Factors in Early Reading Instruction," The Reading Teacher 18 (December 1964): 172-78.

[5]James Moffett, A Student-Centered Language Arts Curriculum, Grades K-13: A Handbook for Teachers. (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1968), p. 45.

There is an increasing amount of evidence which suggests that reading to children can positively influence their language development and consequently their reading achievement. Pikulski recognizes that a child's language can be enhanced by hearing literature and says, "Read to children. This is an excellent way to build the language foundations and thinking skills necessary for becoming an effective reader."[1] Huck admonishes teachers to accept the responsibility of reading aloud to the children in their classes every day, because she believes that "literature offers the child creative and qualitative opportunities to extend and enrich his language development."[2]

Sutherland and Arbuthnot agree that listening to literature provides an opportunity to increase one's vocabulary, and they comment on the fact that children who are more advanced in language skills are those "who have been sung to, read to, and talked with."[3] Children's quest for new words can be best satisfied through experiences with literature. Huck says, "Books help to fulfill this insatiable desire to hear and learn new words. Hearing writing of good quality read aloud helps the child to

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[1]John J. Pikulski, "Parents Can Aid Reading Growth," Elementary English 51 (September 1974): 896-97.

[2]Charlotte S. Huck, Children's Literature in the Elementary School (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1979), p. 26.

[3]Zena Sutherland and May Hill Arbuthnot, Children and Books, 5th ed. (Glenview: Illinois: Scott, Foresman and Company 1977), p. 62.

develop his full language potential."[1] The necessity of providing activities which contribute to the building of meaningful vocabularies and an interest in words is stressed by Hunter when she says, "Increased proficiency in the use of the spoken language should be recognized as one of the most important tasks of children and youth growing up in the second half of the twentieth century."[2]

Reading to children is not the total answer. If reading is to be effective and worthwhile, the materials used must be selected with care. In an article written almost twenty years ago, Johnson expressed concern over the ever increasing number of "special purpose books", including those with controlled vocabulary. She feels that a minimal exposure to such books would be wise since it is during these early years of childhood that "a lifelong love of reading can be built if the right books are at hand."[3] Wilson and Hall also comment on the vast number of books designed specifically for beginning readers. They feel that these may be valuable for encouraging children to read independently but they condemn the exclusive use of such books by saying, "The use of controlled vocabulary materials

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[1]Huck, Children's Literature in the Elementary School, p. 93.

[2]Eugenia Hunter, "Importance of Children's Oral Language," Grade Teacher 81 (April 1964): 51.

[3]Eleanor M. Johnson, "What Is Happening to Children's Storybooks?" The Reading Teacher 17 (December 1963): 178-81.

as the only constituent of a literature program is alarming. With their vocabularies and limited sentence patterns, this type of book lacks some of the qualities of good literature, especially distinctive language."[1] To support their point they give an example of words which children might encounter when reading about falling rain. It is suggested that in a controlled vocabulary book the word "fell" would likely be used, whereas in Tresselt's book Rain Drop Splash the same action is described by such colourful words as "splashed," "splunked," and "trickled."[2]

It should not be assumed that all young readers will need books with strict vocabulary control, but regardless of the types of books children read for themselves, adults should continue to read high level literature to children.[3] This is particularly true since beginning readers, almost without exception, will have to experience the typical basal readers which are bound by word levels and simple constructions.[4] Pfau points out the necessity of introducing children to supplementary books quite different from basal readers early in their reading careers, since he is convinced that "complete dependence on basal reading materials is

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[1]Robert M. Wilson and Maryanne Hall, Reading and the Elementary School Child. (New York: D. Van Nostrand, 1972), p. 226.

[2]Ibid., p. 227.

[3]Leland B. Jacobs, ed., Using Literature with Young Children (New York: Teachers College Press, 1965), p. 7.

[4]Carol Gay, "Reading Aloud and Learning to Write," Elementary School Journal 77 (November 1976): 87-93.

restrictive of maximum reading growth."[1] Those responsible for developing the better reading programs are quick to admit the limitations which are necessarily imposed on the language of basal readers. A host of supplementary books are listed in the teacher's manual with suggestions for their use. There seems to be unanimous consent that literature has that special quality which can lift a child "from his own level to the level of art and imagination," but whether maximum use is made of literature in the early grades is another question.[2]

Gay is interested in the relationship between reading aloud and learning to write. She believes the two are inseparable and says, "If elementary school teachers fail to read aloud to their students often, regularly, and for reasonably long periods of time, those students are going to be severely handicapped in learning to write."[3] Unless young children are read to they are often exposed exclusively to the rhythms of a basal text which are neither those of speech nor those of writing.

Children are already equipped with oral language when they enter school so they will not learn to talk in the patterns of the basal reader, although they may discover

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[1]Pfau, "An Investigation of the Effects of Planned Recreational Reading Programs in First and Second Grade," p. 17.

[2]Gay, "Reading Aloud and Learning to Write," p. 90.

[3]Ibid., p. 87.

quite soon that "oral language usage stands in sharp contrast to the language of preprimers and primers."[1] Strickland also points out that "knowing" their language may not guarantee reading success. She says, "Whether this language they have learned is the so called 'standard language' of the teacher and the textbooks or language of a quality foreign to school standards will make a tremendous difference in their attitude toward school and their ability to learn to read."[2] Since many children do not have the same opportunity to hear and assimilate the patterns and rhythms of writing which are available in oral language, it is essential that schools provide this opportunity. Gay does not find it surprising that children use the vocabularies and rhythms of basal readers when they are required to write. After all, she says, "It is unreasonable to expect children to learn to do something they have never seen or heard. Unfortunately in the formative years, the learning years, too many children never hear the rhythms of good prose and are too young to read it for themselves."[3]

Hearing quality literature read aloud daily must certainly contribute to the student's language facility and Gay affirms that writing ability will also be enhanced. She

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[1]Russell G. Stauffer, "Certain Convictions About Reading Instruction," Elementary English 46 (January 1969): 85-89.

[2]Ruth G. Strickland, "Language, Linguistics, Reading," Childhood Education 42 (November 1965): 143-46.

[3]Gay, "Reading Aloud and Learning to Write," p. 89.

feels there will be an increase in: vocabulary word count and comprehension, ability to distinguish between subtle shades of meaning, complexity and sophistication of sentence structure, sense of structure and organization, and motivation for writing.[1]

It is recognized that, in this electronic age, reading aloud to children may seem old-fashioned, but Weiser is convinced that it is "one of the best ways in the world for children to become good readers themselves."[2] She feels that treating a beginning reader to good stories by reading aloud to him will help him realize that his struggle to achieve is worthwhile.[3]

Cazden has done extensive investigation of the child's acquisition of language and she feels that the story-time is an invaluable part of any school program. She admonishes teachers not to let other activities intrude on this experience. She believes that children should be familiar with book language before they try to read, since this activity requires them to go beyond their own words and speech patterns.[4] Cazden reiterates this idea in another publication. She explains that book language may have qualitative

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[1]Ibid., pg. 88.

[2]Margaret G. Weiser, "Parental Responsibility in the Teaching of Reading," Young Children 29 (May 1974): 225-30.

[3]Ibid., p. 229.

[4]Courtney B. Cazden, ed., Language in Early Childhood Education. (Washington, D.C.: National Association for the Education of Young Children, 1972), p. 117.

as well as quantitative significance, since such language differs from speech in both structure and distance from nonverbal context. She says, "Reading to the young may be a particularly potent form of language stimulation."[1]

A child's knowledge of language is important in early reading since this knowledge guides his selection and organization of perceptions.[2] The motivation to read is equally important and it is believed that lack of motivation may stem from a child's limited experiences which leave him with a restricted vocabulary. It has been suggested that literature is the "vehicle best suited to accomplish the dual purpose of stimulating motivation and strengthening oral language."[3]

Hildreth sees oral language as one determinant of a child's readiness for reading. Others support her view, since "a number of reading experts have found substantial relationships between reading problems and other linguistic deficiencies of school children."[4] The necessity of oral

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[1]Courtney B. Cazden, Child Language and Education. (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1972), p. 107.

[2]Rebecca C. Barr, "Perceptual Development in the Reading Process," in Language and Learning to Read, eds. Richard E. Hodges and E. Hugh Rudorf (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1972), p. 134.

[3]J. Allen Figurel, ed., Reading and Realism vol. 13, pt. 1 (Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1969), p. 755.

[4]Gertrude Hildreth, "Interrelationships Between Written Expression and the Other Language Arts," Elementary English 31 (January 1954): 40-48.

language competence in reading readiness is also recognized by Artley, but he considers facility in language to be equally important during the remainder of the school years.[1]

Reading to children helps them to develop the kinds of language patterns which will make learning to read easier for them, since what they hear read "closely approximates the language patterns they must deal with when reading themselves."[2] Markwardt suggests that young children may acquire language patterns from conversation which actually interfere with their learning to read, but if read to frequently they should become accustomed to the language patterns of literature.[3] If such a philosophy is accepted, then "throughout the entire years of schooling there need to be more occasions when teachers read aloud."[4] McCormick would encourage this practice since research indicates that hearing books read "is a strong factor in the linguistic stage of development at all ages."[5]

A child's vocabulary is increased and enriched as he is read to because words are presented in meaningful context.

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[1]Sterl Artley, "Oral Language Growth and Reading Ability," The Elementary School Journal 53 (February 1953): 321-28.

[2]McCormick, "Should You Read Aloud to Your Children?" p. 142.

[3]U. F. Markwardt, "Language Interference in Reading," The Reading Teacher 18 (December 1964): 214-18.

[4]Frost, ed., Issues and Innovations in the Teaching of Reading, p. 17.

[5]McCormick, "Should You Read Aloud to Your Children?" p. 142.

It is generally agreed that vocabulary should not be presented in advance unless understanding of the word is essential to the appreciation of the story.[1] While it is recognized that "unfamiliar words and phrases or familiar words and phrases used in unfamiliar ways represent holes in the web of language," it is not felt that these losses produce a complete lack of understanding.[2] The new term will be partially understood from how it is used in the sentence.

Johnson feels it is beneficial for children to encounter new words in the meaningful flow of language and he offers two reasons for this belief:

1. Struggling to understand a word encountered in the flow of meaningful language is the usual, normal, and natural way that children acquire new vocabulary.
2. It gives the children practice in doing what they must do when they encounter unfamiliar words in their private reading.[3]

Harris makes the point that "children understand the meaning of a word only when they have had enough experience out of which to develop an appropriate concept for the word."[4] It is, therefore, important that teachers accept the children's

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[1] Johnson, "Presenting Literature to Children," p. 42.

[2] Ibid., p. 40.

[3] Ibid., p. 41.

[4] Albert J. Harris, "Key Factors in a Successful Reading Program," Elementary English 46 (January 1969): 69-76.

limited understanding of words and provide a stimulating language environment where they will have occasion to re-encounter and refine word meanings.[1]

One reason that books make a contribution to children's language acquisition is because of the techniques which sensitive authors employ. Cohen believes that the authors most successful in depicting meaning are conscious of what is important to a child and what may be confusing. She discusses some of the techniques authors use to clarify unknown or confusing vocabulary. These include:

1. Piling up examples to illustrate meaning.
2. Description of a function or procedure in detail.
3. Building up mood and anticipating action or feeling.
4. Meaningful context to clarify individual words.
5. Contrast and comparison.
6. Letting a whole story capitalize on the meaning of a word.
7. Simile.
8. Linking familiar experiences to give meaning to an unfamiliar word.[2]

Hall, too, is convinced that it is wise for children to meet new words in meaningful context in their reading since this is what they must do in conversation. She observes

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[1]Johnson, "Presenting Literature to Children," p. 41.

[2]Dorothy H. Cohen, "Word Meaning and the Literary Experience in Early Childhood," Elementary English 46 (November 1969): 914-25.

that the language environment available to a child is not limited but that he is bombarded with language and has the opportunity to select words of high meaning.[1]

The language environment which children encounter through books should equal or surpass that which they meet in everyday conversation. Many people involved in the Head Start Programs have recognized the value of using books to provide a rich language environment for the young children with whom they work. These children are often treated to two or three story periods each session.[2]

Chomsky would encourage such a practice, since she is convinced from the data she has collected "that children do benefit in terms of linguistic development, from the kinds of exposure and inputs provided by the written language."[3]

Children can develop a love for literature along with a wealth of vocabulary, if teachers are committed to the idea of reading stories and poems to them every day. Hildreth especially emphasizes the use of poetry and says, "Daily reading of poetry will contribute to appreciation of good language and sharpen the child's perception of speech sounds."[4]

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[1]Mary Ann Hall, "Language Centered Reading: Premises and Recommendations," Language Arts 56 (September 1979): 665-67.

[2]Bernice D. Ellinger, "Literature for Head Start Classes," Elementary English 43 (May 1966): 453-59.

[3]Chomsky, "Language and Reading," p. 127.

[4]Gertrude Hildreth, Readiness for School Beginners (New York: World Book Company, 1950), p. 193.

Along with the commitment to read every day must come a commitment to use the very best materials available. The very best will not be limited to materials using controlled vocabulary. Hall feels children who have an over-exposure to such materials are deprived and says:

> Often the beginner and the remedial reader receive the poorest reading programs even though the greatest efforts are made for the beginner and the poorest reader. The reason that beginners and remedial readers are subjected to poor programs is that the programs are supposedly simple — simple in the sense that small fragments get the attention instead of having the emphasis on meaning and on purposeful communication.[1]

Children deserve to hear the best in storybooks and it must be remembered that the main purpose of these is enjoyment. Such books are not designed to teach reading skills and are not built with controlled vocabulary. Instead, Johnson describes the vocabulary as one that "sings with words full of vivid sensory impressions."[2] Children who are exposed to these books, rich in vocabulary and ideas, can be expected to show measurable increases on tests of vocabulary and reading comprehension. It is little wonder that Gay declares "The world of books exists . . . we dare not cut our children off from that world."[3]

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[1]Hall, "Language Centered Reading: Premises and Recommendations," p. 665.

[2]Johnson, "What Is Happening in Children's Storybooks?" p. 178.

[3]Gay, "Reading Aloud and Learning to Write," p. 93.

Sense of Story

The roots of literacy begin early and are growing strongly long before schools begin reading instruction. Teachers have the responsibility of building on this base by engaging children in functional written language, stimulating their imagination, and developing their sense of story.[1] Children soon discover, in the process of developing a sense of story, that literary prose employs structures and language devices which are quite different from common language. The strategies learned in listening may transfer well to reading common language but literary language requires modification of some strategies and acquisition of new ones.[2]

Children learning to read, like those learning to spell, need to examine large samples of language in order to generate, test, and modify hypotheses concerning it.[3] Hildreth points out that hearing an abundance of stories and poems not only provides enjoyment but acquaints pupils with literary character.[4] "Through this activity," says Huck,

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[1]Kenneth S. Goodman, "The Know-More and the Know-Nothing Movements In Reading: A Personal Response," Language Arts 56 (September 1979): 657-63.

[2]Goodman, "Behind the Eye: What Happens in Reading," p. 485.

[3]Kenneth S. Goodman, "On the Psycholinguistic Method of Teaching Reading," in Psycholinguistics and Reading, ed. Frank Smith (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1973), p. 180.

[4]Hildreth, Readiness for School Beginners, p. 181.

"children become familiar with 'book language' and slowly develop a sense of story."[1] They gain a sense of structure and organization, since "book language heard through the ears can be assimilated as part of the total experience in which children and story interact."[2]

It is becoming increasingly clear that a child must have extensive experience in listening to literature, if he is to learn to read literature successfully. Adults who share books with children will aid them in the following ways:

1. Feed the child's sense of what a story is and how it moves along.
2. Contribute to the child's growing repertoire of stories, songs, and rhymes.
3. Provide a range of examples of literary language and story structures which enable the child to develop an intuitive awareness of written language and structures.
4. Make it possible for the child to know books — what they are, what they are for, and how they function.
5. Enable the child to find the kinds of satisfaction and enjoyment that are available in books.[3]

Brown urges that children be immersed in stories. This immersion will foster the growth of "sense of story" which may ultimately affect reading comprehension and

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[1]Huck, "Literature as the Content of Reading," p. 364.

[2]Figerel, Reading and Realism, p. 755.

[3]Moira McKenzie, "The Beginning of Literacy," Theory into Practice 16 (December 1977): 317-18.

ability to predict. He feels that listening to stories in the elementary grades is "crucial to reading and writing growth."[1]

Sense of story is described by Brown as "a personal construct which develops and progresses toward a mature internalized representation."[2] Applebee, who has done extensive work with regard to the child's sense of story, says:

> The child's gradual mastery of the formal characteristics of a story is paralleled by a gradual development of understanding of conventions related to story content. The earliest interpretation seems to be that a story is something that happened in the past, a history rather than a fictional construct. This early interpretation is often accompanied by a belief in the immutability of stories — a faith that is eventually shaken by the recognition that behind each story there is a human author who has made it up.[3]

Sense of story is developmental and children gradually adopt in their own language the various features and characteristics of story. For example, the use of the past tense is first to develop. This is followed by formal beginnings, whereas formal endings develop considerably later.[4] Applebee

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[1]Garth H. Brown, "Development of Story in Children's Reading and Writing," Theory Into Practice 16 (December 1977): 357-62.

[2]Ibid., p. 358.

[3]Arthur N. Applebee, The Child's Concept of Story: Ages Two to Seventeen (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1978), p. 38.

[4]Brown, "Development of Story in Children's Reading and Writing," p. 358.

relates that by the age of two years the majority of children are beginning to use simple narrative conventions such as consistent past tense, beginning with a formal opening, and ending with a conventional closing. About 50 per cent of five year olds employ all three of these conventions regularly.[1]

There are other developments in their story-sense and in their own stories as children progress from two to five. The stories become longer, more complex, and progressively further removed from children's experiences.[2] While young children may not be able to fully describe what they expect to find in a story, their attempts at telling stories reflect their expectations.[3] The conventions of story are accepted and used at an early age. Among children reported in Applebee's study, it was observed that even two year olds used some of the conventions in 70 per cent of their stories. Observations also revealed that five year olds used common story characters in their own stories while six year olds could explain their expectations of such story characters as witches, fairies, lions, and wolves. Such expectations grow firmer with age and increased experience with stories.[4]

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[1]Arthur N. Applebee, "A Sense of Story," Theory Into Practice 16 (December 1977): 342-47.

[2]Ibid., p. 343-44.

[3]Applebee, The Child's Concept of Story: Ages Two to Seventeen, p. 36.

[4]Ibid., p. 52.

Applebee points out:

> The extent to which these conventions are recognized and used by children can be taken, to a certain extent, as an indication of the degree to which stories have begun the long march from the child's initial recognition that a story is in some ways different from other uses of language, to the final firmly established recognition of a story as a mode of communication . . . .[1]

Often at 2 1/2 years or earlier a child is able to assume the role of the spectator and use language to entertain, in contrast to the participant role where the purpose of language is to inform. The importance of this is seen by Huck who says, "Essential to the child's development of sense of story is his willingness to assume the spectator role as he tells or writes a story."[2]

Though a child may assume the spectator role at an early age, he will not understand the conventions of story until later.[3] Applebee points out that young children treat stories as inviolable and quickly react if words are changed after they have heard the original. This sense of story is long lasting. Even seven year olds when asked how they might improve a story which they disliked "misinterpreted the task and promptly named a different story that was already better."[4]

Children quickly develop the ability to distinguish between "true" and "not true" stories though both types are

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[1]Ibid., p. 36.

[2]Charlotte S. Huck, "A Review of the Research on the Development of Story Competence," (Unpublished paper, Ohio State University, 1978): 2.

[3]Ibid., p. 3.

[4]Applebee, The Child's Concept of Story: Ages Two to Seventeen, p. 38.

accepted and enjoyed. "Such recognition of nonsense," says Applebee, "both depends on and reinforces a firmly based sense of what is real."[1]

It appears that there is no sudden realization that a story is "just a story". Doubts begin to arise for most children by the age of six, but there are still those who will defend the reality of some of the stories they know. Applebee states:

> The lack of differentiation between fact and fiction makes the spectator role a powerful mode for extending the relatively limited experiences of young children. The stories they hear help them to acquire expectations about what the world is like — its vocabulary and syntax as well as its people and places — without the distracting pressure of separating the real from the make-believe.[2]

Brown suggests that the "extent of a child's sense of story or internalized representation of story affects comprehension and facility in reading and listening to stories, and affects the ability to retell and create stories."[3] Comprehension is aided because the internalized representation permits the child to make a prediction about meaning and what is likely to be stated on a printed page.[4] Brown says, "It appears that the ability to 'move into' and to use the language of story is tied closely to reading achievement . . ."[5]

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[1]Ibid., p. 39-40.

[2]Ibid., p. 52.

[3]Brown, "Development of Story in Children's Reading and Writing," p. 358-59.

[4]Ibid., p. 358.

[5]Ibid., p. 360.

The psycholinguistic view of reading recognizes the value of having a firmly established "sense of story" characterized by expectation and prediction. Goodman makes this clear when he says, "I reached the conclusion that tentative information processing, guessing on the basis of minimal actual information, is the primary characteristic of reading. The reader interacts with an author through a text to construct meaning."[1]

Children, as they develop a sense of story, build a frame of reference about the structure and language of books.[2] Included in the frame of reference are important observations about beginnings, endings, and unity. As Gay points out, "'Once upon a time' is not a cliche to introduce a meaningless fairy tale. It is an object lesson in good form and balance better than any lesson in any language arts workbook or basal reader."[3] It seems to follow that children who have the greatest amount of exposure to books internalize book language and are, therefore, more able to predict what might happen in an unfamiliar story.[4]

The ability to predict is of utmost importance in reading since all readers make predictions and confirm those predictions on the basis of whether they sound right

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[1]Goodman, "The Know-More and the Know-Nothing Movements in Reading: A Personal Response," p. 657.

[2]Huck, "Literature as the Content of Reading," p. 365.

[3]Gay, "Reading Aloud and Learning to Write," p. 93.

[4]Huck, "Literature as the Content of Reading," p. 365.

and make sense. The reader brings a knowledge of his language and his own past experiences to each reading task. If the author's language and experiences differ greatly from those of the reader, the reader's expectations will be vague and he is likely to have difficulty reconstructing the author's message.[1]

Goodman calls attention to the fact that readers can draw on the knowledge of their language and experience and says, "This self evident fact needs to be stated because what appears to be intuitive in any question is actually the result of knowledge so well learned that the process of its application requires little conscious effort."[2] Children have well-developed sets of expectations when they encounter new stories. These may range from predicting what the next word or phrase will be to speculating about the resolution of the problem.[3]

Applebee makes the point that children's "sense of story" includes expectations at both the syntactic and semantic levels; therefore "as the story emerges from the print before them, fulfilling their expectations about what a story should be, it confirms their sense that their reading has been successful."[4]

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[1]Chomsky, "Language and Reading," p. 103.

[2]Kenneth S. Goodman, "Reading: A Psycholinguistic Guessing Game," Journal of the Reading Specialist 6 (May 1967): 126-35.

[3]Johnson, "Presenting Literature to Children," p. 39.

[4]Applebee, "A Sense of Story," p. 347.

Skill in reading is increasingly recognized as the ability to anticipate and predict. Such ability does not come easily for those who have limited exposure to literature. Spencer recognizes this when she says:

> One of the recurrent handicaps of illiterate adults is their inability to anticipate what may happen in a story they are learning to read because they have never learned how the rules of the story are transferred to the print on a page. Most of them were never read to as children.[1]

After reviewing available research on sense of story, Huck sums up her findings in the significant statement which follows:

> There appears to be a positive relationship between a well-developed sense of story and the child's ability to read and write. Knowledge of story frames is particularly useful for prediction and success in reading. It has been suggested that poor readers do not have a well-developed sense of story. All of this research would suggest the increasing importance of children's early exposure to literature.[2]

Enjoyment and Information

Teachers read books aloud to their students for numerous reasons but the primary goal should always be for the enjoyment they give.[3] Listening to a good book read aloud is one of the delights enjoyed by children of all ages and

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[1]Margaret Spencer, "The Role of Fiction," Language Matters (London: The Centre for Language in Primary Education, Vol. 1:4 August 1976), p. 2

[2]Huck, "A Review of the Research on the Development of Story Competence." p. 11.

[3]Robert Whitehead, Children's Literature: Strategies of Teaching. (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall Inc., 1968), p. 92.

as Whitehead points out, "It is this delightful way — learning through listening to literature — that the child increases his fund of useful and general information."[1]

Daily reading by the teacher not only provides the students with enjoyable experiences, but, if books of genuine literary value are chosen, the characters therein will speak to the teacher as well as the students.[2] Way sees this activity as an essential part of the school program at every grade level and says, "Reading aloud is an enjoyment shared. It provides pleasure for the children and the teacher."[3]

The reading ability of most children does not equal their appreciation level until they reach junior high school, therefore "a read-aloud program is crucial to the success of any effective reading curriculum at the elementary school level."[4]

During early primary years the child's own reading activity may be limited to preprimers, primers, and controlled vocabulary books. An investigation attempting to determine how closely children's free-choice reading interests correlated

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[1]Ibid., p. 91.

[2]A. Martha Westwater, "With Best Meaning: Restoring Literature to the Reading Program," Journal of Education (Halifax) 4 (Spring 1977): 18-19.

[3]Olivia R. Way, "How Elementary School Teachers and Librarians Work Together," The Reading Teacher 17 (December 1963): 159-63.

[4]Wanda L. Williams and Arnold L. Williams, "Promoting Reading Enjoyment Through Read-Aloud Books," Reading Improvement 16 (Summer 1979): 90-94.

with the content of preprimers and primers showed the basal readers to contain a much narrower span of reading interests than those mentioned by the children.[1]

Some critics feel that basal readers, with their stilted style, are an insult to the intelligence of young readers. Sentence structure that is unrepresentative of normal speech patterns and vocabulary that is rigidly controlled combine to produce material which lacks interest and other literary qualities.[2]

Goodman is concerned about the intense emphasis placed on sequential skill hierarchies in most basal reading programs and the effect it has on student's interest and enjoyment. He says:

> Even if they should later overcome the fragmentation, they will have been so phonicated, so syllabified, so verbalized that they will always regard reading as dull, tedious, and onerous. They will read only what they must and never of their own choice for pleasure or relaxation.[3]

Huck sees little value in having the ability to read if it is not used and thinks we aim far too low if reading performance is assessed by test scores only. She is committed to the value of using literature in the reading program so

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[1]Ruth C. Smith, "Children's Reading Choices and Basic Reading Content," Elementary English 39 (March 1962): 202-9.

[2]Frost, ed., Issues and Innovations in the Teaching of Reading, p. 232.

[3]Kenneth S. Goodman, "Acquiring Literacy Is Natural: Who Skilled Cock Robin?" Theory Into Practice 16 (December 1977): 309-14.

children can "experience joy in reading." Furthermore, she is convinced that only such programs will produce lifetime readers.[1]

The aim of any reading program should not be to teach children to read the "reader", but to provide the necessary skill to read literature, which is the key to reading enjoyment.[2] Huck is concerned that primary teachers may neglect to show children the many uses of this key. She says, "It is a key which can open the gates to the exciting realms of fantasy, poetry, biography, fiction, and fact."[3] If children are made aware of the pleasure that books can bring to them, their interest in reading will be awakened.[4]

Children want many kinds of information and are eager to learn from their reading, but they also want to be entertained. The read-aloud time should be devoted to books that delight children and that can be brought to life through oral interpretation.[5] Such emphasis on appealing literature should

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[1]Huck, "Literature as the Content of Reading," p. 365.

[2]Dora V. Smith, "Developing a Love of Reading," The Reading Teacher 12 (April 1959): 222-29.

[3]Charlotte Huck, "Objectives for Improving Reading Interests: In Kindergarten Through Grade Three," in Developing Permanent Interest in Reading, ed. Helen M. Robinson (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1956), p. 29.

[4]Hildreth, Readiness for School Beginners, p. 273.

[5]Leland B. Jacobs, "Goals in Promoting Permanent Reading Interests," in Developing Permanent Interest In Reading, ed. Helen M. Robinson (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1956), p. 22-23.

help to fulfill what Cullinan describes as "the major purpose of those who affect children's reading choices." She defines this purpose as being "to build a love for reading and to establish lifetime reading habits in which the search for quality never ends."[1] Goodman maintains that reading is never pursued for its own sake and that it will continue only if the reward is equal to the effort.[2] This makes it imperative that teachers provide materials which give students "the chance to discover what fun it is to read."[3]

Until students have acquired the necessary skills to read literature themselves, it is the total responsibility of adults to add this dimension of joy to their lives. The reader need not feel guilty about choosing a book for the sole purpose of bringing enjoyment to his audience. In fact, this should be done frequently. Huus elaborates on the importance of enjoying literature:

> If literature provides no other contribution than pleasure, it still would be sufficient, for enjoyment is the key to interest, and interest is the key to continued reading. Unless children like to read, like what they read, and can find books they like and are able to read, they will not continue and will miss the many vicarious experiences made possible through books.[4]

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[1]Cullinan, Literature for Children: Its Discipline and Content, p. 4.

[2]Goodman, "Behind the Eye: What Happens in Reading," p. 484.

[3]Johnson, "What Is Happening to Children's Story-books?" p. 181.

[4]Huus, "The Role of Literature in Children's Education," p. 140.

Every child is a unique individual and as Cianciolo says, "there is a need to provide a wealth of literature so that each one can find what he needs to enrich his learning experience."[1] Although children from six to eight are beginning to read for themselves and are eager to do so, their awareness of the world has far outdistanced their reading ability. To add to the knowledge which they already possess, books must be read to them. Arbuthnot and Sutherland point out that parents often complain about the curiosity of children and their need to investigate, not realising that this is a sign of intelligence. "The need to know surely and accurately is a basic hunger and one which books help satisfy."[2]

Johnson encourages the use of literature to enrich other subject areas, but cautions against the indiscriminate use of activities. He feels that activities related to literature should always encourage children to return to the books themselves.[3] While books can be used as avenues to expand topics of interest, the emphasis of literature is on enjoyment and this goal should always be kept in mind. Huus, however, points out:

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[1]Patricia Cianciolo, "The Role of Children's Books in the Open School," Elementary English 50 (March 1973): 409-16.

[2]May Hill Arbuthnot and Zena Sutherland, Children and Books (London: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1972), p. 14.

[3]Johnson, "Presenting Literature to Children," p. 42.

> Though books are meant to be enjoyed, there is nothing incongruous in their also providing information. Stories and factual accounts present facts in an interesting and attractive format, and one book leads easily into another as readers pursue their current interests.[1]

Jacobs maintains that children enjoy the informational as well as the fictional and poetic forms of literature because they all help to illuminate experiences.[2] Whitehead makes the point that poetry should not be overlooked as read-aloud material. He recognizes that some teachers prefer to use poetry in brief moments between subjects or before dismissal but also encourages the "planned period in which poetry is the focal point."[3] Nelson feels that children respond naturally to poetry at first, but will only continue to read and enjoy it if they are given poems which interest them.[4] Arbuthnot and Sutherland recognize the importance of making poetry a thing of enjoyment and say, "The experiences of poetry should come with so much pure pleasure that the taste of it will grow and become a permanent part of a child's emotional and intellectual resources."[5]

The atmosphere in which literature is shared is very important since one purpose for reading to children is to

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[1]Huus, "The Role of Literature in Children's Education," p. 141.

[2]Jacobs, Using Literature with Young Children, p. 4.

[3]Whitehead, Children's Literature: Strategies of Teaching, p. 91.

[4]Mary Ann Nelson, A Comparative Anthology of Children's Literature, (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1972), p. 930.

[5]Arbuthnot and Sutherland, Children and Books, p. 279.

inspire them to read themselves in order to continue getting this satisfying experience.[1] Several components are necessary, according to Jacobs. He says, "For literature to be enjoyable to the young, it takes an appealing book, an eager child, a comfortable setting, and a sensitive enthusiastic adult."[2] Huck suggests that children might be seated on a rug or have chairs pulled together near the reader, since this helps them to identify more easily with the characters and action of the story. She points out, "Proximity to friends who suppress giggles or hold their breaths in anticipation enhances enjoyment."[3]

Last but not least, if children are to enjoy books, they must be permitted free access to them. Books are expensive and children must be taught to handle them with care, but "school personnel must recognize that books, through much normal handling by many children, will become worn and will need to be replaced."[4] Children should not be denied library privileges because an occasional book is lost or misused. Harris supports this view:

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[1]Cohen, "The Effect of Literature on Vocabulary and Reading Comprehension," p. 179.

[2]Jacobs, Using Literature with Young Children, p. 1

[3]Huck, Children's Literature in the Elementary School, p. 712.

[4]Jacobs, Using Literature With Young Children, p. 9.

> I have at times expressed the opinion that the best way to evaluate a library is in terms of the number of books reported as lost or damaged. The higher this number, the more effective the library in promoting reading among children.[1]

Children should be encouraged to acquaint themselves with good books and teachers should have no reluctance about using class time to further acquaint them with literature by reading aloud each day. If children's experiences with literature in elementary school provide them with enjoyment and information, it is likely that they will use books to continue their "self-education throughout life."[2]

Independent Reading

Reading literature aloud has the potential of motivating children to read independently because it provides them with a wealth of vocabulary and ideas which strengthen the skills of reading. It also exposes them to the types of great writing which give one the urge to find more of the same.

Pfau comments on the widespread concern that even capable readers often appear disinterested in reading. He suggests that part of this problem is the result of exposing young children during their formative years to unrewarding reading experiences.[3] There is obviously some truth to this,

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[1]Harris, "Key Factors in a Successful Reading Program," p. 73.

[2]Huus, "The Role of Literature in Children's Education," p. 144.

[3]Pfau, "Effects of Planned Recreational Reading Programs," p. 35.

since the materials children are required to read and which are supposed to stimulate a desire to read do not really satisfy their reading interests.[1] Grambs recognizes the need for providing children with materials which are truly interesting so a base for a lifetime of reading can be developed. Concerning this, she says, "The habit of reading will not flourish if the only nourishment comes from a text."[2] Larrick doesn't deny the importance of reading skills, but feels that wide reading is essential if the skills are to become automatic. She concludes, "This doesn't happen to a second grader with many workbooks and no library books."[3]

The encompassing goal of reading instruction should be, according to Odland and Ilstrup, the development of a desire to read worthwhile materials. They feel, however, that this is often ignored in favor of programs which stress reading skills.[4] Although Grambs acknowledges the necessity of skills as a prerequisite to the development of reading habits, she has observed that "persons with adequate reading skills are not necessarily persons with an enduring habit of reading."[5] Cohen believes that there are more successful

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[1]Smith, "Children's Reading Choices and Basic Reading Content," p. 209.

[2]Jean D. Grambs, "The Conference on Lifetime Reading Habits," The Reading Teacher 12 (April 1959): 218-21.

[3]Nancy Larrick, "The Reading Teacher and the School Library," The Reading Teacher 17 (December 1963): 149-51.

[4]Norine Odland and Therese Ilstrup, "Will Reading Teachers Read?" Reading Teacher 17 (November 1963): 83-87.

[5]Grambs, "The Conference on Lifetime Reading Habits," The Reading Teacher 12 (April 1959): 219.

ways of helping prospective readers than by giving them a steady diet of "skills". She says:

> For the children who are not yet readers themselves in the full sense of the word, stories read to them in which words illuminate other words carry significance for their growth in later reading comprehension. The more words carry meaning to them through their ears the more they will later be able to draw meaning out of the printed page themselves.[1]

Huck suggests that young children are getting ready to read as they hear and enjoy many stories.[2] The same view is held by Weiser who says that "no other medium can possibly take the place of the book in the child's preparation for learning to read."[3] She feels that children should be read to regularly by an adult who will take time and answer their questions.[4] Studies carried out by Durkin, to which reference has been made earlier, reveal that the experience of being read to by a parent or older sibling generated an interest in whole words, with children wanting to know what some words said and where others were found.[5] Chomsky also encourages the practice of reading to children and believes that listening to someone read a story aloud while following along in

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[1]Cohen, "Word Meaning and the Literary Experience in Early Childhood," p. 924.

[2]Huck, Children's Literature in the Elementary School, p. 95.

[3]Weisner, "Parental Responsibility in the Teaching of Reading," p. 228.

[4]Ibid.

[5]Durkin, Children Who Read Early: Two Longitudinal Studies, p. 137.

the text is beneficial for children in the early stages of reading.[1]

There is evidence that the amount of reading aloud to children decreases sharply after first grade and listening is replaced by the children's own reading.[2] This is cause for concern since "the regularity of hearing stories read and the duration of the treatment seem to be factors related to reading growth."[3] As Smith points out, first graders should have the opportunity to read the stories that are within their capabilities to friends and parents. However, books must continue to be read to them on a regular basis.[4]

Chomsky suggests that children are not actually taught to read but are, instead, given the tools so they can teach themselves. She is convinced that "children are prepared to do far more on their own in learning to read than they are usually given credit for."[5] Butler's observation of her own severely handicapped granddaughter, Cushla, causes her to agree with ideas posited by Chomsky. She writes:

> Cushla was not 'taught' to read, unless the provision of language and story, in books and out of books, can be called a method.

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[1]Chomsky, "Language and Reading," p. 123.

[2]Ibid., p. 127.

[3]McCormick, "Should You Read Aloud to Your Children?" p. 142.

[4]Smith, Selected Essays, p. 146-47.

[5]Chomsky, "Language and Reading," p. 116.

> I believe it can, and that it is the best method of all. It produces children who experience reading as a joyous process, natural to the human state; children who absorb ideas as sponges absorb water.[1]

Stauffer's conviction about the importance of school libraries fits easily into the philosophies of reading expressed by Chomsky and Butler. He says, "A school library is more essential to sound reading instruction than any basic reader series can ever be."[2] Wilson and Hall suggest that children from kindergarten through sixth grade should have a minimum of one visit weekly to the school library.[3]

Barbe recommends not only centralized school libraries, but insists that each class should have a library as well. He supports this by saying:

> The development of classroom libraries is essential to good reading instruction. Instead of competing with the school library, the classroom library actually supports and encourages the further use of the school library.[4]

Chomsky, too, advocates having a large variety of reading materials available in the classroom, saying, "It is difficult to motivate practice in reading in classrooms offering few materials the children consider worthy of reading."[5] Wilson and Hall agree that the library or free-

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[1]Dorothy Butler, Cushla and Her Books (Boston: The Horn Book, Inc., 1980), p. 105.

[2]Stauffer, "Certain Convictions About Reading Instruction." p. 87.

[3]Wilson and Hall, Reading and the Elementary School Child, p. 232.

[4]Barbe, "Interests and the Teaching of Reading," p. 489.

[5]Chomsky, "Language and Reading," p. 111.

reading corner should be a focal point of every classroom. In addition to an abundance of frequently changed books, they suggest displaying dioramas, mobiles, art objects, and interesting book displays.[1]

Libraries are recognized as an aid to reading growth; therefore, children should be encouraged to secure a library card from the public library and to use those facilities in addition to the ones provided at school and in the classroom.[2] Eaton describes the children's room of a public library as "a gateway to a world they would not otherwise know."[3] And it is suggested by Larrick that new worlds can be opened to young children who experience a story hour in the pleasant atmosphere of a school library.[4]

Children must be provided with the opportunity to hear and use books. Wilson and Hall point out: "From pre-reading to the attainment of independence in reading, experiences with literature and opportunities for personal reading are essential elements of the reading curriculum."[5]

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[1]Wilson and Hall, Reading and the Elementary School Child, p. 233.

[2]Pikulski, "Parents Can Aid Reading Growth," p. 897.

[3]Anne Thaxter Eaton, Reading With Children. (New York: Viking Press, 1940), p. 54.

[4]Larrick, "The Reading Teacher and the School Library," p. 151.

[5]Wilson and Hall, Reading and the Elementary School Child, p. 217.

It is obvious that a child cannot enjoy reading until he knows how to read, but Barbe sees no reason why the learning should be an unpleasant task. In fact, he believes that early reading instruction provides an opportune time for the teacher to develop in children meaningful, lifelong interests in reading.[1] The interests of young children can be affected by reading aloud to them. It has been observed that after children learn to read, they are most eager to read books previously read to them or books of the same type.[2] Huck stresses the same point by saying, "Once a child has heard a good book read aloud, he can hardly wait to savor it again. Reading aloud thus generates a further interest in books."[3] Having access to books which have been read to them is thought to be beneficial to children learning to read, since it provides an opportunity for them to match the story they heard with the printed words.[4]

Johns admonishes teachers to read to their students daily and make it an integral part of the instructional program. He says:

> Teachers who read orally to students provide an experience that can motivate students to explore new areas of interest and find additional books by the same author.

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[1]Barbe, "Interests and the Teaching of Reading," p. 487-90.

[2]McCormick, "Should You Read Aloud to Your Child?" p. 141.

[3]Huck, Children's Literature in the Elementary School, p. 208.

[4]Schickedanz, "Please Read that Story Again: Exploring Relationships Between Story Reading and Learning to Read," p. 51.

Most importantly, students are given an opportunity to enjoy reading.[1]

Huck maintains that the "enjoyment and appreciation of the world of literature will facilitate the transition from hearing stories to reading stories independently."[2] To do this successfully requires what Jacobs refers to as "the art of making reading a tremendously satisfying experience —— one to which a person comes again and again with pleasurable anticipation."[3]

Huck feels that stories provide one of the best ways into literacy for young children and the first desire to read will be because they want to read stories. This desire will not be satisfied by the non-stories of the basal reader, for they want "real stories where something happens to believeable characters."[4] Children will work hard, Huck believes, to master the ability to read stories which give them enjoyment. She says, "Reading like learning to swim takes hours of practice, but the practice must be in a real book that gives back as much personal satisfaction as plunging into the cool water of a lake gives to the swimmer."[5]

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[1]Jerry L. Johns, "Motivating Reluctant Readers," Journal of Research and Development in Education 11 (Spring 1978): 69-73.

[2]Huck, Children's Literature in the Elementary School, p. 94.

[3]Jacobs, "Goals in Promoting Permanent Reading Interests," p. 23.

[4]Huck, "Literature as the Content of Reading," p. 364.

[5]Ibid., p. 364.

Howes identifies interest as a key factor in reading success and says, "When moved by a high degree of interest children show increased energy to work persistently at reading until satisfaction is gained from accomplishment."[1] For this reason it is critical that children be exposed to materials which interest them. That is why "the teacher in the early grades reads and reads to the children — all kinds of literature — in an effort to whet the reading appetites of this widely divergent population of youngsters."[2]

Children, without exception, enjoy listening to someone read if the selection is appropriate and interesting. Such pleasurable experiences can create an interest in books that will continue on through adolescent and adult years.[3]

Stauffer makes the statement, "Love for reading is not taught; it is created. Love for reading is not required, but inspired; not demanded, but exemplified; not exacted, but quickened; not solicited, but activated."[4] It is unlikely that anyone has greater potential for fostering a love for reading among children than the teacher. This, however, can only be accomplished by displaying such an enthusiasm for books that it becomes contagious.

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[1]Virgil M. Howes, "Children's Interests.— A Keynote for Teaching Reading," Education 83 (April 1963): 491-96.

[2]Frost, Issues and Innovations in the Teaching of Reading, p. 244.

[3]Sutherland and Arbuthnot, Children and Books, p. 524.

[4]Stauffer, "Breaking the Basal-Reader Lock Step," p. 271-72.

Teachers who are concerned about reading competence should feel obligated to promote children's literature, since "the entertainment attraction of stories is probably the most significant factor in motivating children to read independently."[1] Not all teachers feel such an obligation. An unpublished dissertation (Tom, 1969), referred to by Huck, points out that an overcrowded curriculum caused teachers to feel guilty about time spent reading aloud to students and, frequently, only a minimal amount of reading was done. It is obvious that these teachers equated reading aloud to children with entertainment rather than education. Huck clarifies her position by presenting what she considers to be the two most important factors in helping children become readers. These include a time for children to read books of their own choice and the opportunity to hear good books read aloud by an enthusiastic teacher.[2] It should then follow that if children are "exposed to a rich diet of literature which has childhood appeal and allows them to respond and become emotionally involved . . . their desire to read will be so great that they will meet us more than halfway as we offer them the specifics of the skills."[3]

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[1]Wilson and Hall, Reading and the Elementary School Child, p. 219.

[2]Huck, Children's Literature in the Elementary School, p. 708.

[3]Figurel, Reading and Realism, p. 757.

Understanding Self and Others

Literature is described as being concerned with feeling in addition to knowing. All kinds of emotions are experienced as children empathize with book characters and the lives they live.[1] Meeting book people and experiencing their tragedies and joys give the readers a better understanding of themselves.[2]

All the experiences of childhood can be matched in story and poetry and while literature is no substitute for living, it adds immeasurably to the enrichment of children's lives.[3] Literature is a valuable experience for even the very young, for as Hunter points out:

> Concepts of self and others are enriched when young children have many satisfying experiences with adults who read to them 'what it says' in the picture-book or story-book, or who share their enjoyment of nursery rhymes and poetry.[4]

Wilson and Hall are convinced that the pre-readers and beginning reader are not too young to develop an understanding of others through the use of picture-story books. They use as an example the story Crow Boy. It has been observed that children in kindergarten and first grade are able to relate to this story and feel the isolation of

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[1]Huck, "Literature as the Content of Reading," p. 365.

[2]Arbuthnot and Sutherland, Children and Books, p. 646.

[3]Constantine Georgiou, Children and Their Literature (New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1969), p. 10.

[4]Hunter, "Importance of Children's Oral Language," p. 91.

Chibi, the main character.[1] Since "literature is a mirror for all human experience, it is possible to choose stories that are real, yet comprehensible to children."[2]

One satisfaction children gain from hearing or reading fiction is that they identify with the situation presented, or as Jacobs says, "They read to put themselves inside the skins of others, the better to know their own skins."[3] Johnson remarks, "Fiction offers myriad opportunities to gain insight into the human condition."[4] Because of their inexperience, children may miss some of the subtle effects intended by the author, but Johnson believes that even the young and inexperienced "can identify the particular problem of a particular character in a particular story."[5]

Huus feels that literature has a contribution to make to today's children who are struggling to find a sense of identity. As they identify with characters in books, they may gain insight into their own actions.[6]

Since children learn from all they read or hear and particularly from those things which they enjoy, important

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[1]Wilson and Hall, Reading and the Elementary School Child, p. 220.

[2]Figurel, Reading and Realism, p. 755.

[3]Jacobs, "Goals in Promoting Permanent Reading Interests," p. 22.

[4]Johnson, "Presenting Literature to Children," p. 37.

[5]Ibid., p. 38.

[6]Huus, "The Role of Literature in Children's Education," p. 140-42.

books do not have to teach. Children learn even from fairy tales and pure fantasy, or perhaps it should be said they learn especially from these because they make a special demand on children's creative powers and thus provide for growth.[1]

A teacher using good books with children will not need to tell them what the story means because when an author portrays the characters with sensitivity the message comes through. The teacher's task may be to help children crystalize their own ideas which they have gleaned from the book.[2]

Huck and Kuhn suggest that literature provides new viewpoints when they say, "Literature develops insight into human behavior. All books for children may not tell why the characters behaved as they did, but the reader is led to think about the causes of behavior."[3]

Children's books offer a wide range of familiar situations for readers to experience vicariously — situations which encourage readers to probe their own thoughts, attitudes, and behaviors.[4] Relationships within the family are often

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[1]Ruth Hill Viguers, Margin for Surprise (Boston: Little Brown and Company, 1964), p. 102.

[2]Jane E. Porter, "Reflections of Life Through Books," Elementary English 50 (February 1973): 189-96.

[3]Charlotte S. Huck and Doris Young Kuhn, Children's Literature in the Elementary School. (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1968), p. 652.

[4]Masha Kabakow Rudman, Children's Literature: An Issues Approach (Toronto: D.C. Heath and Company, 1976), p. 14.

explored. For example, Brown portrays the special love and understanding between mother and child in The Runaway Bunny.[1] Keats, Zolotow, and Hoban write many stories dealing with sibling relationships.[2] And in recent years, numerous books have been published for children describing the problems as well as the positive characteristics of the aged. Zolotow, for example, has successfully portrayed a feeling of closeness between children and the elderly in both William's Doll and My Grandson Lew.[3]

Children entering school have many emotional adjustments to make and they often get angry and upset. Some books focus on experiences which provoke children to anger and portray it as a normal emotion. Examples of such books are: The Smallest Boy by Beim, Stevie by Steptoe, Where the Wild Things Are by Sendak, and The Quarrelling Book by Zolotow.[4]

This section devoted to the understanding of self and others is summed up in Lickteig's statement, "Through reading, people have vicarious experiences which can help readers understand themselves, others, and their relationships with others."[5]

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[1]Myra Pollack Sadker and David Miller Sadker, Now Upon A Time (New York: Harper and Row Publishers, 1977) p. 15.

[2]Arbuthnot and Sutherland, Children and Books, p. 11.

[3]Sadker and Sadker, Now Upon A Time, p. 77

[4]Ilomay Jacobs, "Young Children, Books and Anger", Elementary English 49 (October 1972): 846-47.

[5]Mary J. Lickteig, Introduction to Children's Literature (Columbus: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1975), p. 333.

Literary Taste

The ability to recognize and distinguish between quality and non-quality literature must be developed. Eakin discusses the necessity of guiding children until they have mastered such a skill:

> Unfortunately children are not born with inherently good taste in their choice of books. Faced with a shelf filled with mediocre titles and one good book, the typical reader, whether bright, poor, or average student, will read the mediocre books first; he may never even find the one good book. Children do not of their own accord and with no adult guidance, tend to choose good books in preference to mediocre or poor ones. They will remember the good ones longer and with greater pleasure, but they will not voluntarily choose them without considerable guidance from some adult in whose judgement they have confidence.[1]

Reports indicate an increase in the quantity of reading done at the elementary school level but there is little evidence of an increase in the quality of books chosen.[2] Since a large assortment of books is available, guidance in selection is essential. Cullinan expresses her concern that children discover the quality literature among the vast amounts of poor and mediocre to which they will likely be exposed. She says, "If they are not guided in their selections from this literary wealth, they may still become poverty-stricken readers, reading only books of poor quality."[3] It is encouraging

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[1]Mary K. Eakin, comp., Good Books for Children (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1966), p. x.

[2]Cullinan, Literature for Children: Its Discipline and Content, p. 3.

[3]Ibid., p. 2

to note that children read as widely and as happily from shelves containing only quality literature as they do from shelves filled with poor and mediocre materials.[1] Such evidence is especially welcome, since there is currently a widespread concern over the literary quality of the materials which constitute the bulk of the basic reading program.[2]

It is possible, even at the primary level, for children to begin learning worthwhile literary skills. Through hearing many stories read aloud, children will learn to follow the plot, interpret characters, react emotionally, react to words and recognize different literary forms.[3] Cullinan suggests that this is a critical period for shaping children's literary tastes and advises parents, teachers, and librarians to assume an active role in the development of an appreciation for literature.[4] A basic part of the education process, according to Whitehead, is the development in children of a love for good books. He feels this can only be achieved through a well-defined literature program which includes an inspired, knowledgeable teacher and a wealth of good literature. "Such a plan views literature as a functional part of the total reading program," says Whithead,

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[1]Eakin, Good Books for Children, p. xi.

[2]Westwater, "With Best Meaning: Restoring Literature to the Reading Program," p. 18.

[3]Whitehead, Children's Literature: Strategies of Teaching (Englewood, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1968), p. 60.

[4]Cullinan, Literature for Children: Its Discipline and Content, p. 2.

"making a significant contribution to both reading and the building of an appreciation for literature."[1]

Gay proposes, "Only by hearing good literature can a child come to realize what it is . . . ."[2] It is essential, then, that young children be read to if they are to develop a taste for literature with an increasing ability to evaluate printed material.[3] Teachers who provide a wide and varied reading program acquaint children with their literary heritage and "provide a firm foundation for future literary experiences."[4]

Jacobs believes that children know what they like in literature, but he does not accept the idea that they know everything they might like. It is, therefore, the responsibility of the teacher to provide stimulating literature in a variety of categories.[5] Sutherland and Arbuthnot agree that children need opportunities to respond to a great range of literature if they are to develop as mature readers with an increased sense of literary form.[6]

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[1]Whitehead, Children's Literature: Strategies of Teaching, p. 1.

[2]Gay, "Reading Aloud and Learning to Write," p. 93.

[3]Weiser, "Parental Responsibility in the Teaching of Reading," p. 228.

[4]Huck, "Planning the Literature Program for the Elementary School," p. 310.

[5]Jacobs, Using Literature with Young Children, p. 61-62.

[6]Sutherland and Arbuthnot, Children and Books, p. 524.

It is obvious that not everyone has developed a taste and appreciation for literature. Loban observes, "Many people read literature only to find out what happens next. Unless they grow beyond this level, these readers soon tire of literature and turn back exclusively to first-hand experiences in the world beyond books or to ephemeral programs on television."[1]

Oral reading allows the teacher to expose children to such literary qualities as "solid characterization, finely wrought plot, beautiful language, and noteworthy styles of writing."[2] Experiences with quality literature are vital since pupils who hear good books are not likely to settle for less, even though they may be unable to tell, at first, why they prefer one book over another.[3] Gradually children learn to examine their responses to literature and perceive what it is in the work which causes them to respond in a particular way.[4] The concepts may still be difficult to put into words but children intuitively learn "to recognize the deeper meanings an artist is signaling to them so indirectly — and therefore so much more powerfully than if

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[1]Walter Loban, "Balancing the Literature Program," Elementary English 43 (November 1966): 746-51.

[2]Whitehead, Children's Literature: Strategies of Teaching, p. 91.

[3]Huus, "The Role of Literature in Children's Education," p. 143.

[4]Odland, "Planning a Literature Program for the Elementary School," p. 366.

an attempt had been made to state the meaning directly."[1] Children react to quality of language and context when they are exposed to it. Eventually their discrimination becomes more precise and allows them to cite reasons for superiority. This is a milestone in their literary development for "once children begin to develop discrimination and can justify their choices, they are well on the way to becoming lifetime readers."[2]

Odland believes that the major effort of teachers should be directed toward providing children with the opportunity to hear and read many types of literature. The choices must be books which are examples of the finest literature and which also appeal to the interests of the children.[3]

The task of reading to children is not to be taken lightly. Jacobs provides a brief glimpse of the possible outcomes:

> Those who read to children accept both a wonderful opportunity and a fair-sized responsibility. For through reading aloud to children one can share the joy and wonder of broadening acquaintances in the world of books and whet their appetites for more stories and poems as well as influence — hopefully — their literary tastes that will last a lifetime.[4]

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[1]Loban, "Balancing the Literature Program," p. 750.

[2]Huus, "The Role of Literature in Children's Education," p. 143.

[3]Odland, "Planning a Literature Program for the Elementary School," p. 366.

[4]Jacobs, Using Literature With Young Children, p. 11.

Creativity

Reading literature to children can be a means of stimulating creativity. Wilson and Hall discuss some of the possibilities:

> Books can lead to creative expression through art and through dramatic experiences. For example, children usually enjoy illustrations, murals, mobiles, dioramas, and puppets which correlate with favorite books. They are enthusiastic about dramatic interpretations of a favorite incident or memorable conversation in a book, or the pantomime of a favorite character.[1]

The stories and poems which have been read aloud may become more vivid and meaningful if children are encouraged to react to them.[2] Literature may also provide a creative stimulus for original writing, which is not to be misinterpreted as a "book report." As Huck points out, "There are so many ways, other than the deadly dull book report, that children can share their favorite stories and poems."[3] Children may choose to write about their own joys, or about fears and problems they are experiencing. Regardless of the topic chosen, "consistent exposure to fine writing will be reflected in children's increased skill in their own oral and written expression."[4]

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[1] Wilson and Hall, Reading and the Elementary School Child, p. 235.

[2] Huck, "Objectives for Improving Reading Interests: In Kindergarten Through Grade Three," p. 28.

[3] Ibid.

[4] Huck, "Planning the Literature Program for the Elementary School," p. 310.

The more children are read to, the more creative possibilities will be theirs because they will have a world of experiences from which to draw. Children should never feel compelled to respond creatively to a book but the opportunity to interpret literature in a variety of ways should be available to them.[1] Huck elaborates on this point:

> They may want to share their enjoyment in many different ways but children should not feel that they always have to do something with a book to celebrate its completion. Reading books should be a natural part of children's lives and not such a momentous occasion that we must shoot off firecrackers in the form of book reports, mobiles, or dioramas each time a book is completed.[2]

Johnson discourages the use of activities which lead only to surface responses to literature and suggests that activities selected for use should enable children to make in-depth responses to books.[3] This view is supported by Huck who believes that "children should have an opportunity to interpret books in ways which will take them more deeply into the meaning of the story."[4]

It is evident that "exciting stories, sensitive descriptions of beauty, and vivid characterizations are the 'stuff' of the creative environment that motivates children's responses in writing, creative dramatics, and art activities."[5]

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[1]Huck, "Literature as the Content of Reading," p. 368.

[2]Huck, "Planning the Literature Program for the Elementary School," p. 308.

[3]Johnson, "Presenting Literature to Children," p. 36.

[4]Huck, "Literature as the Content of Reading," p. 368.

[5]Huck, Children's Literature in the Elementary School, p. 642.

If the activities associated with literature are to be meaningful, the selection must take into account the maturity of the children, the manner of presentation, and the nature of the particular work.[1]

Whether students choose to express themselves individually through painting, sculpture, and writing or whether they enjoy group activities like panels, puppet shows, and skits is a matter of personal preference and one that should be respected.[2] If a child should choose to do none of these, his decision should still be respected, for creativity does not depend solely on such involvement. Allen concludes, "When one listens to a story, one is being creative by lending to it his own imagination."[3]

Summary

The many and diverse benefits of reading aloud to children cannot be minimized. There is evidence that reading aloud makes a powerful contribution to language development. This is particularly significant since the degree of language development is a strong indicator of reading achievement. Children's "sense of story" is also developed through hearing many stories and the story sense consequently makes possible the anticipation and prediction which are so vital to reading

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[1]Johnson, "Presenting Literature to Children," p. 42.

[2]Howes, "Children's Interests — A Keynote for Teaching Reading," p. 493.

[3]Arthor T. Allen, "Literature for Children: An Engagement With Life," Horn Book Magazine 43 (December 1967): 732-37.

success. Reading aloud to children exposes them to materials which provide enjoyment and worthwhile information and as a result children may be motivated to become readers so they can avail themselves of books at any time. An understanding of self and others is gained as children identify with many book characters in a variety of situations, and literary taste is developed as children have the opportunity to experience many books and refine their ability to recognize and select quality literature. Creativity can be stimulated by reading to children, thus affording them the opportunity to explore and develop their potential in writing, art, and drama.

Hearing literature is an important element of any curriculum and one that should be scheduled daily. It is not suggested that other school subjects be neglected, but time must be redistributed to allow for planned encounters with literature. There can be no legitimate argument against such a proposal for as McCormick states:

> In this age of accountability, time spent reading to children can be justified since the activity does promote measurable growth in achievement. At the same time, when children hear literature read, we are satisfying the goals of educators who value the equally important aesthetic and subjective reasons for reading aloud to children.[1]

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[1]McCormick, "Should You Read Aloud to Your Child?" p. 143.

The Role of the Teacher and the Parents

The role of the teacher and the parents in providing children with literature is similar in many respects. Certain responsibilities, however, seem more relevant to a particular role so the two are considered separately at times.

Of the many possible ways of drawing children to the enjoyment of reading, one of the most effective appears to be the child's desire to please and copy the adults present in his life. Parents who enjoy reading and make a practice of reading to their children are the primary influence, but since a large portion of the child's time is spent in class, the teacher also has a significant influence. Teachers who encourage their students to read and show by their actions and words that they enjoy reading themselves do much to foster independent reading.[1]

Johnson's observation that "adults who come into contact with children are crucial to the child's joyful and productive entry into the world of literature"[2] seems very fitting when one considers how influential adults are in determining the next generation's reading habits. Parents contribute to this through their own reading habits, through the quality of language used in the home, and also by the number and quality of books they make available to their

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[1]Williams and Williams, "Promoting Reading Enjoyment Through Read-Aloud Books," p. 90.

[2]Johnson, "Presenting Literature to Children," p. 42.

children. Teachers contribute by screening newly published books and choosing their favorites from previous publications in addition to guiding children in book selection.[1] Since children's book preferences are influenced greatly by the adults in their environment, it is essential for parents and teachers to provide reading models and make appropriate books accessible.[2]

It is evident that adult leadership is important if a child's habit of reading for pleasure is to be established. One of the primary requirements, if adults are to be successful in this venture, is that they be enthusiastic. Jacobs comments on this basic requirement:

> The young child's enjoyment of literature is stimulated by the enthusiasm of the adults who introduce books to him. For full enjoyment of books, they must be shared with someone who also enjoys the experience. Hearing prose and poetry read aloud, looking at pictures together, discussing what a book prompts children to want to talk about, rereading favorites — these are activities in which an adult makes possible the pleasure that books can bring into the child's experience.[3]

Adults, both teachers and parents, should read to children books which are too difficult for them to read themselves. The reader should prepare by acquainting himself with the book to be read, but the most important consideration is that the reader enjoy the book thoroughly.[4] The importance

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[1]Cullinan, Literature for Children: Its Discipline and Content, p. 1.

[2]Wilson and Hall, Reading and the Elementary School Child, p. 223.

[3]Jacobs, Using Literature with Young Children, p. 3.

[4]Ibid., p. 13.

of the last point is emphasized by Huck when she says, "Dislike of a book can be as easily communicated as enthusiasm."[1]

The ideas which children entertain about reading are often indicative of the attitudes gleaned through exposure to adults.[2] Concern has been expressed because some adults appear to be so preoccupied with the development of reading skills that they have "forgotten to open the doors to the romance, adventure, pleasure, information, and satisfaction, that reading can bring to the individual."[3] These doors will never be opened unless teachers and parents put forth the time and effort to choose appropriate, worthwhile books and make them available to the children for whom they are responsible. As Smith points out, in our culture adult audiences stand between children's books and their intended audience, and parents, teachers, and librarians are ultimately responsible for the books children will encounter.[4]

It is possible for children to make significant discoveries about reading before learning to read themselves. Hildreth declares, "A child who observes his elders reading does not have to be reminded that reading is fun and well

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[1]Huck, Children's Literature in the Elementary School, p. 712.

[2]Pfau, "An Investigation of the Effects of Planned Recreational Reading Programs in First and Second Grade," p. 21.

[3]Frost, Issues and Innovations in the Teaching of Reading, p. 243.

[4]James Steel Smith, A Critical Approach to Children's Literature (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1967), p. 66.

worth doing."[1]

It has been suggested that the ability to read does not appear automatically in response to a learning situation but has its beginnings in infancy. This would indicate that parents play a vital role in laying the foundation for reading readiness.[2] Sutherland and Arbuthnot affirm the important role of the parents by saying, "Infants may enjoy a mother's voice or a father's lap before they appreciate what's being read to them, but the association of books with pleasure can begin in infancy."[3] Reading aloud to children "from the time they can sit up and enjoy looking at pictures," is seen by Huck, as "the best preparation for school that parents can give."[4]

Since children's first experiences with books and reading usually occur before they enter school, parents bear the responsibility for creating a favorable atmosphere for the development of language skills and positive attitudes toward books.[5] Freshour is convinced that parents should continue to be an important part of their child's learning environment and feels that schools are failing to make use of parents as a resource. He says, "It seems only logical that a concentrated effort backed by teachers and parents

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[1]Hildreth, Teaching Reading, p. 522.

[2]Frost, Issues and Innovations in the Teaching of Reading, p. 81.

[3]Sutherland and Arbuthnot, Children and Books, p. 62.

[4]Huck, "Literature as the Content of Reading," p. 366.

[5]Sutherland and Arbuthnot, Children and Books, p. 62.

would improve reading readiness and achievement . . . ."[1] The combined effort of teachers and parents is also advocated by Tinker who feels that schools must assume the responsibility of acquainting parents with the program, goals, and methods of the school, if teaching is to be maximally effective.[2]

Although it has been said, "A parent is a parent — not a teacher,"[3] Tinker contradicts this by saying, "Parents are not only the first teachers of their child but are likely to be the most important ones he will ever have."[4] Olmsted, Webb, and Ware describe a joint effort by home and school to improve the child's education. This effort supports Tinker's views of the parent as teacher. In fact, "the program grew out of the realization that parents are the child's most important teacher and that much of what a child accomplishes in school is predetermined by what has gone on in the home."[5]

McKenzie observes that the children who are most successful in school are "those who have the most going for them at home."[6] Such children are taken places and talked

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[1]Frank W. Freshour, "Beginning Reading: Parents Can Help" Reading Teacher 25 (March 1972): 513-16.

[2]Tinker, Preparing Your Child for Reading, p. 144-45.

[3]Freshour, "Beginning Reading: Parents Can Help," p. 516.

[4]Tinker, Preparing Your Child for Reading, p. 153.

[5]Patricia P. Olmsted, Rodman B. Webb, and William B. Ware, "Teaching Children at Home and School," Theory Into Practice 16 (February 1977): 7-11.

[6]McKenzie, "The Beginning of Literacy," p. 315.

with, they own books and have stories read to them regularly, and most important of all they see their parents read. All these experiences nurture knowledge and give children an appreciation and understanding of books and the written language.[1]

Independent reading is motivated when reading is an important activity in the home. Freshour feels that parents should be encouraged to turn the television set off and set aside a time for reading to their children.[2] Unless parents limit their child's television viewing and encourage leisure time reading it is likely that the school's efforts to promote independent reading will fall short of its goal.[3]

Wilson and Hall point out the impact of the home influence on school performance as it relates to reading:

> Children who enter school having had pleasant experiences with books and reading are more likely to be motivated to read than those who have not been read to in the home. Children who are exposed to books have an early advantage in vocabulary and other aspects of language development, general knowledge background, and imaginative thinking. Even after children have learned to read, the enjoyment of reading in a family situation has many values.[4]

Parents are admonished by Tinker to begin reading to their children at an early age and to continue this practice

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[1]Ibid.

[2]Freshour, "Beginning Reading: Parents Can Help," p. 516.

[3]Harris, "Key Factors in a Successful Reading Program," p. 73.

[4]Wilson and Hall, Reading and the Elementary School Child, p. 315.

without interruption during the years that follow.[1] He considers the child fortunate whose parents awake in him an interest in books at an early age and give him a generous amount of book experience during the preschool years.[2]

Children who learn to read easily in school are the same children whose parents have read to them at home. Smith says, "Parents should be helped to understand that associating books with a good time and with all the experiences of the child's day is infinitely more important for later success in reading than teaching him to find the the's and and's in the newspaper."[3]

Frequent reading, from the time children are able to listen, has been described by Huck as the best way to interest children in books. She refers to the difference between children who have shared in listening experiences and those who have been deprived, by saying, "The child of a book-loving family may have heard over one thousand bedtime stories before he ever comes to kindergarten, while some children may never have heard one."[4] Hildreth points out that there are those who recognize the value of bedtime stories, for "in some households reading aloud before bedtime is as much a

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[1]Tinker, Preparing Your Child for Reading, p. 154.

[2]Ibid., p. 113.

[3]Smith, Selected Essays, p. 144.

[4]Huck, Children's Literature in the Elementary School, p. 708.

part of retiring for the night as is brushing the teeth."[1]

It appears that reading, along with many other skills, can be learned through imitation. This is exemplified by children who learn to read at home with no apparent instruction.[2] Hildreth makes the point that parents may not realize how much they influence reading development simply by reading to their children and listening attentively when children attempt to read themselves.[3] Weiser feels that parents' respect for reading is evident by the way they speak of books and by the time they devote to reading and to developing their children's interest in reading. She feels the time factor is essential and says, "It is not enough just to surround the child with reading materials. He needs the attention of a significant adult."[4]

It is the responsibility of the parents to supply their children with worthwhile books. This will require financial support as well as time devoted to reading aloud. Johnson suggests that adult reading should continue long after children begin to read on their own and says, "Controlled vocabulary books have their place at school. But the child is poor indeed if his home library is limited to easy-reading books

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[1]Hildreth, Teaching Reading, p. 522.

[2]Pat Cunningham, "Imitative Reading," The Reading Teacher 33 (October 1979): 80-83.

[3]Hildreth, Teaching Reading, p. 246-47.

[4]Weiser, "Parental Responsibility in the Teaching of Reading," p. 229.

because Mother or Dad is too busy to read the richer literature aloud."[1] It is also the responsibility of the parents to establish regular visits to the public library. Weiser believes that such visits might persuade children that the "library is as important as the gas station or the grocery store."[2]

Wilson and Hall propose that the best way for parents to help their children become readers is to be readers themselves. They feel that enjoyment of reading is communicated through actions and that parents are presenting a negative model if they provide books for their children but do not use their own leisure time for reading.[3] Whether children become good readers and continue the activity is viewed by Weiser as being primarily the responsibility of the parents and she maintains, " . . . it is not too much to claim that the family who values reading will produce children who can read well."[4]

Parents have an enormous influence on the reading interests and ability of their children, but this in no way lessens the impact which a teacher may have on these same

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[1]Johnson, "What is Happening in Children's Storybooks?" p. 180.

[2]Weiser, "Parental Responsibility in the Teaching of Reading," p. 229.

[3]Wilson and Hall, Reading and the Elementary School Child, p. 316.

[4]Weiser, "Parental Responsibility in the Teaching of Reading," p. 230.

children. The teacher is the one who must be convinced that literature is a legitimate part of the school curriculum. His role is crucial since he is responsible for designing, planning, and implementing the program.[1]

In planning a literature program, teachers must have the imagination to perceive children's purposes for reading and provide for those purposes.[2] It is not enough simply to provide the books that will meet students' needs. The availability of books is negligible if children are not given the time to read them or listen as someone else reads them. Teachers should ensure that recreational reading is a part of the daily program for all grades, including kindergarten, since "one book in a child's hand is worth ten on the shelf."[3]

Huck is aware that many children come from homes where they have had little or no access to books and she suggests, therefore, that pre-school and kindergarten children have a story period three or four times a day. Teachers who share books aid children's language development and contribute to their growing sense of story. These objectives are important enough to recommend literature as the central focus of the reading program.[4]

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[1]Odland, "Planning a Literature Program for the Elementary School," p. 367.

[2]Jacobs, "Goals in Promoting Permanent Reading Interests," p. 23.

[3]Huck, "Objectives for Improving Reading Interests: In Kindergarten Through Grade Three," p. 27.

[4]Huck, "Literature as the Content of Reading," p. 366.

Concern about the role of literature in the school's daily time table is expressed by Chambers. He says, "Too often literature for children is approached as a 'free time' activity, to be enjoyed after all the work has been done. It is relegated to the area of 'not important.'"[1] He believes such an attitude is particularly significant since children learn from attitudes and are therefore likely to assume that literature is not a valued part of the curriculum.[2]

Hildreth maintains that a large place in the primary program should be occupied by the "imperishable treasure of children's literature." She says, "In these grades there is a place for folk tales and fairy stories, poetry, traditional stories, and the best modern books."[3] Johnson believes such books should be available for recreational reading but does not advocate using them for teaching reading skills as this would "rob them of their time-honored role as a source of entertainment and pleasure."[4] No such complaint can be leveled against children's "hearing" stories and Hildreth points out the benefits to be gained:

> Hearing the teacher read from great literature goes far beyond the enjoyment of a good story or the rhyme of a poem. Reading aloud stimulates children's thinking and gives vitality to words which become a part of the child's own vocabulary.[5]

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[1]Chambers, " . . . Let Them Read," p. 255.

[2]Ibid., p. 256.

[3]Hildreth, Teaching Reading, p. 287.

[4]Johnson, "What Is Happening to Children's Storybooks," p. 180.

[5]Hildreth, Teaching Reading, p. 287.

By reading to children, teachers open a delightful way to the world of literature. Through this experience teachers reveal their own love for books and may, by reading choice tidbits from certain books, entice students to read for themselves.[1] Teachers who wish to arouse a love for reading in students must read widely themselves and have an unquenchable enthusiasm for children's books. They must also have a thorough knowledge of children in order to choose books which relate to the everyday experiences of childhood. And finally, they must seize every opportunity to bring books and children together.[2] Wilson and Hall agree that the key to creating a love for books within students is a teacher who communicates an enthusiasm for literature through his own example. They say, "In those classrooms where teachers are enthusiastic about books, and where stimulating contacts with literature are an integral part of the school experience, children are more likely to become avid readers."[3]

The success or failure of a literature program rests largely with the teacher. Few teachers can inspire children to do and enjoy things which they dislike themselves. According to Grambs, a teacher who is a non-reader is one of the "most significant factors influencing the potential reading habits

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[1] Smith, "Developing a Love of Reading," p. 224.

[2] Ibid., p. 225.

[3] Wilson and Hall, Reading and the Elementary School Child, p. 229.

of young people."[1] He expresses concern over this, since observation reveals that many teachers do not exemplify the kind of lifetime reading habits they are attempting to promote.[2] Teachers who are not themselves staunch examples of avid readers will not fully execute their responsibility of giving the gift of reading to their students. This responsibility is, as Chambers points out, " . . . to develop a literate society that will read, not just know how to read."[3]

Teachers who do not read themselves or recognize the value of it are unlikely to allot a significant amount of time for the activity. Huck reports the following experience which suggests the lack of priority reading activity has in some classrooms. During a Book Week when reading is supposed to be given special emphasis, she visited seven schools and looked at the displays they had assembled. At the conclusion of her visits Huck says, "I watched and I waited for two whole mornings and I never saw a single child have time to look at or read any one of those books."[4]

Books make it possible for pupils to learn many things they would not otherwise know and Hildreth feels that teachers have the responsibility of imparting this knowledge.[5] Such

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[1]Grambs, "The Conference on Lifetime Reading Habits," p. 220.

[2]Ibid.

[3]Chambers, " . . . Let Them Read," p. 257.

[4]Huck, "Planning the Literature Program for the Elementary School," p. 311.

[5]Hildreth, Readiness for School Beginners, p. 274.

a task cannot be accomplished in a haphazard manner. It requires that books and children be brought together on every possible occasion. It also requires many read-aloud sessions. These sessions should be planned just as are other parts of the curriculum. The teacher should have an objective for reading each book — though the objective may legitimately be pure enjoyment. And after deciding that a particular book is suitable and worthwhile for a read-aloud session, the teacher should practice it before attempting to read, so the book will be an enjoyable experience to a class.[1]

Children are capable of understanding many books which they are unable to read, so Smith suggests that they be read "something slightly beyond the power of the listener to read to himself, something to lift him above his own capacity."[2] As Moffett points out, the practice of reading large quanities of stories and poems to children will both nourish and satisfy children's appetite for literature. He feels the benefits are even more far-reaching than that and says:

> It also makes reading a common part of everyday life and shows many children of nonreading parents what books are all about and what pleasure can be associated with them. And it puts the teacher in a giving position. While receiving this gift, the children become possessed of the urge to do themselves what the teacher does. In this respect he becomes a model to emulate.[3]

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[1]Williams and Williams, "Promoting Reading Enjoyment Through Read Aloud Books," p. 91-92.

[2]Smith, "Developing a Love of Reading," p. 228.

[3]Moffett, A Student-Centered Language Arts Curriculum, Grades K-13, p. 99.

Teachers who prize books and their content, but who fail to communicate this feeling to their pupils, are not fulfilling their task. Jacobs maintains, "It is the chief task of the teacher of young children to spread the contagion of enjoyment to be found within books . . . ."[1] Jacobs discusses several ways of spreading this "contagion of enjoyment." It is done by:

1. The way the teacher reads.
2. The way teachers handle books.
3. The way teachers synchronize literature with everyday life in the classroom.
4. The way the teachers talk about books, and the way they seek and accept the children's reaction to books.
5. The way teachers encourage independent reading.[2]

The tendency to equate teaching with instruction may cause primary grade teachers to feel that time is being wasted if they are not actively teaching and so, as Jacobs points out, it is doubtful that there will be much teaching of literature in the early grades.[3] Gay suggests that many teachers feel guilty when they read to their class because they do not consider reading aloud a part of the "real" curriculum.[4] She says, "We've got to get over our guilt

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[1]Jacobs, Using Literature With Young Children, p. 54.

[2]Ibid., p. 56.

[3]Ibid.

[4]Gay, "Reading Aloud and Learning to Write," p. 87.

feelings. We've got to rid ourselves of the notion that because children love hearing a story to indulge them by reading to them is pedagogically unsound."[1]

Summary

The teacher and the parents fulfill an important role in introducing children to literature. These adults are largely responsible for familiarizing children with books and poetry by reading aloud and making materials available to them. Since small children in particular are prone to copy the actions and attitudes of adults who are important to them, the responsibility increases. The role of these significant adults must be one that creates a love and respect for books and one which stimulates children to gain independence in reading for themselves.

Selection of Appropriate Material and Activities for the Literature Program

The selection of appropriate materials and activities for a literature program is of utmost importance if the program is to be a success. A great deal has been written about this topic and many selection aids are available to help those attempting to plan such a program.

Whitehead insists that it is not paradoxical to say that choosing books to read to children is more difficult and also easier than it has previously been. The explanation

[1]Ibid., p. 88.

for the seeming paradox is that the greater number of books on the market makes choosing more difficult but the many reliable aids available provide considerable help with book-selection. Although he recognizes the value of the varied selection aids available, Whitehead maintains that the teacher is the most reliable source for matching the right book with the needs and interests of students.[1] He suggests that the following selection criteria should be kept in mind when choosing materials to read aloud:

1. Is each book quality literature?
2. Does the book make a significant contribution to the child's world today?
3. Does the book spark the imagination of the children?
4. Does the book itself gain from being shared orally because of its humour, its thought-provoking qualities, its colorful phrases, or its truths?
5. Is the book suitable to the ages and stages of development of the students?
6. What piece of literature is most suitable to the various class groups from the standpoint of length?[2]

Reading aloud is the technique most frequently used to expose children to good books. It gives teachers the opportunity to convey their own enjoyment of books and introduces children to a variety of types, topics, and writing styles. Wilson and Hall maintain that "oral reading by

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[1] Whitehead, Children's Literature: Strategies of Teaching, p. 93.

[2] Ibid., p. 93-94.

every teacher should be a standard procedure every day in every elementary classroom."[1] The selections must be made carefully, however, for as Way points out, "it is important that what the teacher chooses to read aloud has quality and purpose."[2]

Standards for evaluating quality in literature are particularly important since many of the books available must be classified as poor or mediocre. Wilson and Hall feel that plot, theme, format, language quality and characterization must all be considered when choosing a good children's book and they maintain that books worthy of reading aloud must have "credible, lifelike characters, excellent craftsmanship, originality, arresting plot and substantial content."[3]

A worthwhile literature program must also be a well balanced program. It is recognized that the development of adequate reading skills, no less than the development of appreciation and taste, necessitates the habit of wide reading beyond the confines of any one set of books. Harris insists that "children need a balanced reading diet as much as they require balanced food intake. One form of reading

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[1]Wilson and Hall, Reading and the Elementary School Child, p. 231.

[2]Way, "How Elementary School Teachers and Librarians Work Together," p. 160.

[3]Wilson and Hall, Reading and the Elementary School Child, p. 224.

malnutrition," she believes, "is based upon the assumption that reading can be learned entirely from basal readers."[1] Huck contends that books which teachers select to read aloud "should provide a balance to what children are reading on their own."[2]

Balance in children's individual reading and in what is read to them is seen by Guthrie, too, as being just as important as the balance of food intake required for human nutrition. He feels that the intake of information through reading must be considered in terms of its content (the quality), and its quantity.[3]

Jacobs suggests that a well-balanced collection for young children might include:

1. Some good Mother Goose and ABC books.
2. Classics enjoyed by generations of readers.
3. New books with fresh different approaches.
4. Some humorous, even ridiculous stories — just for fun.
5. Much realism, but also some touches of the fanciful.
6. Books of information to which children will turn for the answering of questions and the satisfying of their need to know.
7. Some well-illustrated anthologies of poetry and single author's collections.[4]

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[1]Harris, "Key Factors in a Successful Reading Program," p. 72.

[2]Huck, "Literature as the Content of Reading," p. 369.

[3]Guthrie, "Research Views: How Much to Read," p. 110.

[4]Jacobs, Using Literature With Young Children, p. 8.

While no one book must be read by all children, Huck feels that many books are too good for children to miss and she points out that "there is a body of children's literature which is worthy of a solid place in the curriculum."[1]

The children themselves should be the first concern in book selection. Knowledge of individual backgrounds, attitudes, abilities, reading skills, and interests should all be considered. Even with such knowledge, one may not always be successful but, as Sutherland and Arbuthnot point out, "youngsters are skilled at rejecting what is not for them."[2]

Research studies indicate that children of different age levels generally indicate preferences in reading material. For example, primary children usually prefer stories with familiar settings and experiences, fairy tales, real and fanciful animal stories, and funny stories about familiar situations. Howes points out, however, that although these studies are valuable they "are not substitutes for careful continuous assessment of the individual interests of particular children."[3]

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[1]Huck, "Planning a Literature Program for the Elementary School," p. 310.

[2]Sutherland and Arbuthnot, Children and Books, p. 18.

[3]Howes, "Children's Interests — A Keynote for Teaching Reading," p. 492.

The value of "self-selection" is explored by Barbe who says that "the belief that all children of a particular age are interested in the same type of reading material, or indeed that they master reading skills best by reading the same material, is being seriously challenged."[1] He also maintains that children cannot be classified at a single reading level since it has been proved that children are able to read at much higher levels when the material is of vital interest to them.[2] Goodman is also concerned that children be given more opportunities for self-selection and says:

> In aiding children to see the significance of reading, we should avoid the temptation of preselecting all the materials for them. Children, like adults, have varied tastes and interests. What most children like or profit from may be totally uninteresting to one child. If a child is to find himself in reading, a wide range of topics, formats, and even quality must be represented in the material available to him.[3]

Viguers and Huck both stress the role of the informed adult in making books of excellence available to children. "Children must depend on the adults of their world to make available the books that belong to them," Viguers points out, and she insists that "if children are going to find the excellent, more adults must set themselves to find it."[4]

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[1]Barbe, "Interests and the Teaching of Reading," p. 488.

[2]Ibid.

[3]Goodman, "Behind the Eye: What Happens in Reading," p. 495.

[4]Ruth Hill Viguers, Margins for Surprise (Boston: Little Brown and Company, 1964), p. 31.

Huck reiterates the viewpoint in her statement that "currently, there are over 40,000 children's books in print. It is possible that a child may have read widely and never have read a significant book."[1]

Johnson discusses what he refers to as the "timeless elements in good children's literature."[2] These elements have been identified by analyzing some of the best loved children's stories. She lists eleven of the most important elements thus:

1. Children like a quick beginning.
2. Children like conversation — dialogue which is fast moving and easy to follow.
3. Children like fast story action which contains suspense.
4. Children like simplicity of plot provided there is substantial content.
5. Children like true-to-life characters with whom they can identify.
6. There should be an economy of episodes, a steady progression to a definite conclusion.
7. Quaint expressions, ejaculations, amusing names, occasional exaggerations, and absurdities appeal to the child reader.
8. Choice of words should be appropriate to the spirit of the content and to the child's level of development.

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[1]Charlotte S. Huck, Children's Literature in the Elementary School (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1979), p. 37.

[2]Johnson, "What is Happening to Children's Story-books?" p. 179.

9. Each story should have original content — its own new and distinctive elements.

10. Stories for children must have integrity.

11. Great literature for children has spirituality — morality without moralizing.[1]

There are many excellent selection aids for those who want guidance in selecting material which is of high literary merit and at the same time meets the needs and interests of children. Huck lists many valuable aids to selecting books for children in Appendix B of Children's Literature in the Elementary School. Among those included are:

Adventuring With Books: A Booklist for Pre-K-Grade 8. Patricia Cianciolo and the NCTE Committee on the Elementary School Booklist. National Council of Teachers of English, 1111 Kenyon Road, Urbana, Illinois 61801 or Scholastic/Citation Press. 1977.

Bibliography of Books for Children. Sylvia Sunderlin, ed. The Association for Childhood Educational International, 3615 Wisconsin Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20016. 1974.

Children and Books, 5th ed. Zena Sutherland and May Hill Arbuthnot. Scott, Foresman and Co., 1900 East Lake Avenue, Glenview, Illinois 60025. 1977.

Children and Poetry, A Selective, Annotated Bibliography. Virginia Haviland and William Jay Smith, comps. Library of Congress, Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402. 1970.

Children's Books. Virginia Haviland and Lois B. Watt, comps. Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C.

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[1] Ibid.

Children's Books Too Good to Miss, 6th ed. May Hill Arbuthnot, et. al. Western Reserve University Press, 11000 Cedar Road, Cleveland, Ohio 44106. 1971.

Growing Up With Books, R. R. Bowker Company, eds. 1180 Avenue of the Americas, New York, N.Y. 10036. 1977.

Let's Read Together: Books for Family Enjoyment, 3rd ed. Committee of National Congress of Parents and Teachers, and Children's Services Division, American Library Association, eds. ALA, 50 East Huron Street, Chicago, Illinois 60611. 1969.

Notable Children's Books. Compiled annually by the Notable Children's Book Committee, Association for Library Service to Children, American Library Association, 50 East Huron Street, Chicago, Illinois 60611. 1978.

A Parent's Guide to Children's Reading, 4th ed. Nancy Larrick. Bantam Books, Inc., 666 Fifth Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10019. 1975.

Picture Books for Children. Patricia Jean Cianciolo and members of Elementary Booklist Committee of the National Council of Teachers of English, eds. American Library Association, 50 East Huron Street, Chicago, Illinois 60611. 1973.

Stories. Ellin Greene, comp. New York Public Library. Office of Branch Libraries, 8 East 40th Street, New York, N.Y. 10016. 1972.[1]

The list of selection aids provided by Huck fails to include any for Canadian materials in particular, but these have been reviewed thoroughly in the following publication:

The Republic of Childhood. Sheila Egoff. Oxford, Toronto, Ontario. 1975.

A perusal of the literature related to selection indicates that reviewing periodicals should also be used extensively. Some which are particularly useful when selecting materials for young children are:

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[1] Huck, Children's Literature in the Elementary School, p. 369-73.

Bookbird. Published quarterly. International Board of Books for Young People, Vienna. Available through Canadian Jobber.

Bulletin of the Center for Children's Books. University of Chicago Press, 5801 Ellis Avenue, Chicago, Illinois 60637.

Canadian Materials. Canadian Library Association, 151 Sparks Street, Ottawa, Ontario K1P 5E3.

Canadian Children's Literature. Quarterly. Box 335, Guelph, Ontario.

The Horn Book Magazine. Circulation Department. The Horn Book, Inc., 585 Boylston, Mass. 02116.

Growing Point, by Margery Fisher. Ashton Manor, Northampton, England.

In Review: Canadian Books for Children. A quarterly publication. Provincial Library Service, Parliament Buildings, Queen's Park, Toronto, Ontario M7A 2R9.

Library Journal. R. R. Bowker Co., A Xerox Education Co., Subscription Department, P.O. Box 67, Whitinsville, Mass. 01588.

School Library Journal. R. R. Bowker Co., A Xerox Education Co., Subscription Department, P.O. Box 67, Whitinsville, Mass. 01588.

Top of the News. Published quarterly. 50E Huron Street, Chicago, Illinois 60611.

While teachers should be aware of the selection aids available and turn to reputable sources for opinions of books, they must also rely heavily on their own judgement. As Sutherland and Arbuthnot observe, "to develop judgements that are reliable and useful, you need to look closely at a book, not only to appraise its total effect on you but to examine the elements that produce that effect."[1] Eakin discusses four major elements which deserve consideration

[1]Sutherland and Arbuthnot, Children and Books, p. 21

in the evaluation of books for children:

1. Literary quality — realism and consistency in characterization and a logically developed plot.
2. Quality of content — children need books of substance, books which contribute to their well-being.
3. Suitability of style and content — age and developmental level must be taken into consideration when considering complexity of plot and concepts.
4. Quality of format — physical format plays an important role in determining the kind of reception a book will have for children.[1]

Poetry is a valuable component of any literature collection provided for children, one which appears to be frequently neglected. Huck makes reference to the dearth of poetry in elementary literature programs when she says that "some of our children literally jump from Mother Goose to Tennyson, without ever hearing any of the fine poetry of David McCord, Walter de La Mare, or Eleanor Farjeon."[2] While insisting that poetry cannot be introduced too early, Duff emphasizes the need for a rich and diversified poetry program. She encourages adults to share with young children the highly acclaimed children's poems by Stevenson, Milne, Rossetti, Field, Coatsworth, and others.[3] Eaton goes a step

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[1]Eakin, Good Books for Children, p. xi-xii.

[2]Huck, "Planning the Literature Program for the Elementary School," p. 310.

[3]Annis Duff, "Bequest of Wings" A Family's Pleasure With Books (New York: The Viking Press, 1944), p. 63.

further and says, "Other poems should be read to a child at this early stage, poems of which he cannot possibly understand the meaning. To learn to listen to the music of great verse is the beginning of a love for poetry."[1] Georgiou would agree with Eaton because she believes that even if children don't understand all the words, they respond instinctively to poetry because it is a language which is natural to childhood.[2] That it is a mistake to limit children's exposure only to what is called "children's poetry" is stressed by Jacobs when he says, "There are gems that even young children may mightily enjoy among the works of many highly sophisticated poets."[3]

Not all children will like poetry but every child will surely have some poems which he likes and very likely the number will increase if he is introduced to it in the right way.[4] As Eaton says, " . . . there is some poetry for every child, if we can only bring together the child and the poetry to which he responds.[5] Smith echoes Eaton's sentiments by

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[1]Anne Thaxter Eaton, Reading with Children (New York: Viking Press, 1940), p. 43.

[2]Constantine Georgiou, Children and Their Literature (New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1969), p. 112.

[3]Jacobs, Using Literature with Young Children, p. 21.

[4]Fenner, The Proof of the Pudding, p. 174.

[5]Eaton, Reading with Children, p. 125.

saying that "with the wealth of excellent poetry available for children of all ages and of all levels of ability, it seems unnecessary for any boy or girl to go through life disliking poetry if it is presented to him properly."[1]

Fisher and Natarella provided tape recorded poems as listening material for fifteen classes of first, second, and third grade children. After listening to the tapes the children indicated how well they liked the poems. Although there was a considerable range of ratings for the poems, the responses were generally positive.[2] The researchers suggest:

> While information about what children like and dislike may be helpful as a guide in selecting poems for children to listen to or read, none should be eliminated because it was in the least popular group or because it is in a form that does not elicit the most positive response. To meet children's varied preferences, we must use a wide selection of poems.[3]

Evidence indicates that children tend to like the poetry they have heard before. This being true, it may be wise to let them listen to some of the less popular forms, thus increasing the chances that such forms will later be appreciated.[4]

Sutherland and Arbuthnot offer useful criteria for the selection of good poetry for young children. They pose

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[1]Smith, Selected Essays, p. 117.

[2]Carol J. Fisher and Margaret A. Natarella, "Of Cabbage and Kings: Or What Kinds of Poetry Young Children Like," Language Arts Vol. 56, (April 1979): 380-85.

[3]Ibid., p. 385.

[4]Ibid.

three questions by which the merit of a poem may be assessed. These questions are as follows:

> First, does it sing — with good rhythm, true unforced rhymes, and a happy compatibility of sound and subject — whether it is nonsense verse or narrative or lyric poetry? Second, is the diction distinguished — with words that are rich in sensory and connotative meanings, words that are unhackneyed, precise, and memorable? Third, does the subject matter of the poem invest the strange or the everyday experiences of life with new importance and richer meaning?[1]

Assuming that an appropriate selection of poetry has been made, Boyd points out that the teacher must also have "a genuine enthusiasm for it and a voice that can communicate both the enthusiasm and the poem."[2]

Although it is generally accepted that children will both hear and read more prose than poetry, this does not alter the fact that "poetry deserves a distinctive place in the balanced literature program for young children."[3]

Eaton expresses the necessity of taking into consideration the developmental level of the child.[4] Huck, too, sees this as all important and outlines some of the specific characteristics of the six and seven year old child. An awareness of these characteristics should make the task of selecting appropriate materials easier. The following are listed:

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[1]Sutherland and Arbuthnot, Children and Books, p. 246.

[2]Gertrude A. Boyd, Teaching Poetry in the Elementary School (Columbus: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1973), p. 10.

[3]Jacobs, Using Literature with Young Children, p. 2.

[4]Eaton, Reading with Children, p. 125.

1. Continued development and expansion of language.
2. Attention span increasing.
3. Striving to accomplish skills demanded by adults.
4. Learning skill based upon immediate perception and direct experiences.
5. Continued interest in the world around him.
6. Vague concepts of time.
7. More able to separate fantasy from reality.
8. Beginning to develop empathy and understanding for others.
9. Has a growing sense of justice.
10. Humor is developing.
11. Beginning sexual curiosity.
12. Physical contour of the body is changing.
13. Continues to seek independence from adults.
14. Continues to need warmth and security in adult relationships.[1]

Two basic guidelines for selecting any read-aloud materials are suggested by Sutherland and Arbuthnot. These require that the reader like the selection and that it be well-written.[2] This is particularly important since, generally, the books for primary children cannot be read by the children themselves, but are suited in theme, and action to the young

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[1]Huck, Children's Literature in the Elementary School, p. 32-33.

[2]Sutherland and Arbuthnot, Children's Books, p. 525.

child's maturity level.[1]

Pictures are integral in the total context of many books for young children, therefore one must take a critical look at the illustrations of a book during the process of selection. Jacobs presents the following list of questions to be asked as one studies the art in picture books:

1. Will these pictures attract and hold the attention of the intended audience?
2. Will they entertain and re-entertain?
3. Are they truly essential to the content?
4. Do they catch the mood and feeling of the writing?
5. Are the pictures rightly placed to augment the text?
6. Are the pictures done in an appropriate medium?[2]

Regardless of the care with which all materials are selected, however, no literature program can be really effective unless time and incentive are provided for children to become involved in interesting and purposeful related activities — activities which will encourage children to respond to books "in various ways which will make them more memorable and interest others in reading the stories."[3] Burns and Broman suggest that teachers establish, within the classroom, a specific area which provides for various modes

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[1]Whitehead, Children's Literature: Strategies of Teaching, p. 94.

[2]Jacobs, Using Literature With Young Children, p. 2.

[3]Huck, "Literature as the Content of Reading," p. 368.

of response to literature selections.[1]

Brown stresses that follow-up activities should encourage the children to look more deeply into the book so they can explore meaning and discover relationships. He feels it is possible that extension activities such as dramatization, art, and crafts can contribute to a better understanding of literature.[2] Johnson would not discourage the use of such activities, but cautions that selection of activities must be made with a clear understanding of what literature is and "what literature does that no other discipline does."[3] In describing literature's unique quality, he says:

> A good writer of literature puts the reader inside the rabbit — or hobbit, or war orphan, or castaway, or delinquent. Other disciplines . . . make the reader an observer of the phenomena discussed. Only fiction puts the reader within the situation presented.[4]

Just as literature is unique, so are the teaching opportunities provided by any story. Johnson encourages teachers to choose literature-related activities only after carefully considering the relationship between "the story, the nature of the children to whom the story is to be presented, and the manner of its presentation."[5] He feels

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[1]Paul C. Burns and Betty L. Broman, The Language Arts in Childhood Education. (Chicago: Rand McNally College Publishing Company, 1975), p. 210.

[2]Brown, "Development of Story in Children's Reading and Writing," p. 361.

[3]Johnson, "Presenting Literature to Children," p. 36.

[4]Ibid., p. 37.

[5]Ibid., p. 38.

that the best activities will "send the reader/listener back into the story either via memory or by rereading."[1] Huck, too, encourages the selection of activities which synthesize children's knowledge of literature and create a deeper interest and appreciation for it. She suggests activities such as: making puppets, creating games based upon a story, making books, developing a diorama, dramatization of favorite stories, and creating such things as "a fairy tale museum."[2]

Summary

If children are to receive optimum benefit from a literature enrichment program, it is essential that the materials be carefully selected. Books must be chosen for quality, interest, and suitability, and the total collection should reflect both rich diversity and balance. Many excellent selection aids both basic and current are available to help in the process of building such a collection. Literature-related activities must also be chosen with care since they also are important elements in a primary literature program.

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[1] Ibid.

[2] Huck, "Literature as the Content of Reading," p. 368-69.

CHAPTER III

DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to set up a special literature program by means of which children would hear, in school and at home, a selected group of well-written stories and poems to provide enrichment for the basal reading program used in the schools. The children also participated in activities designed to increase their understanding and appreciation of the literary selections. This exposure to good literature was expected to increase reading achievement at the same time that it introduced children to the exciting stories and ideas which books have to offer.

Research Design

The design chosen for this study was similar to "The Nonequivalent Control Group Design" described by Campbell and Stanley, since the two groups in the sample did not have pre-experimental sampling equivalence but were naturally assembled classrooms. The assignment of X to one of the groups was assumed to be random.

$$O_1 \quad X \quad O_2$$
$$- - - - - - - - - - -$$
$$O_3 \qquad O_4$$

This design offered the following controls against internal invalidity:

1. History was controlled, since historical events that might produce a difference in the experimental group would also produce a difference in the control group.
2. Maturation and testing were controlled, since they should be manifested equally in both groups.
3. Instrumentation was controlled by the experimenter's doing all the testing. Vocabulary and comprehension of the subjects were measured by the Gates-MacGinitie Standardized Reading Test, which is considered more reliable than direct observation.
4. Selection was controlled, since the two classes were chosen because of their similarity in size and organization and because neither of the groups sought exposure to the treatment.
5. Experimental mortality was controlled, since the experiment was conducted over a limited time span of eight weeks.[1]

A pretest was administered to both the experimental and control groups approximately two weeks before the experimental study was scheduled to begin. These tests were used to compare the means of the two groups in reading comprehension and vocabulary. Since the pretest showed that there was already a significant difference between the two groups, it was decided to use the analysis of covariance with the pretest as the covariate to adjust for

[1]Donald T. Campbell and Julian C. Stanley, Experimental and Quasi-Experimental Designs and Research (Chicago: Rand McNally College Publishing Company, 1963), p. 47.

the initial difference.

The experimental group received daily exposure to the independent variable of listening to stories and poems and doing related activities, in addition to the basal reading program. The control group did the basal reading program but there was no attempt to involve them in the special literature program. The dependent variable was improvement in vocabulary and reading comprehension. A posttest was given to both the experimental and control groups at the conclusion of the eight-week period.

Hypotheses Tested in This Study

Statistical Hypotheses

1. H_o: $\mu_1 = \mu_2$ (in comprehension) Reject or not?
2. H_o: $\mu_1 = \mu_2$ (in vocabulary) Reject or not?

Substantive Hypotheses

1. The treatment group will have significantly higher achievement in comprehension than the control group.
2. The treatment group will have significantly higher achievement in vocabulary than the control group.
3. The treatment group will show a greater interest in books.
4. The treatment group will show an increased desire to read independently.

Sample

The experimental sample consisted of thirty-three students (male and female) in two grade-one classes in urban Newfoundland. The sample was drawn from a denominational school system and included students of high, medium, and low ability. Two similarly grouped grade one classes, totalling forty-one students, from a denominational school of comparable size and facilities, but in a different urban area of Newfoundland, acted as the control for this study.

Collection of Data

Reading Achievement

The Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test, Primary A, Form 1 was given as a pretest and Primary A, Form 2 as a posttest. This test was designed for use at the first grade level and both forms tested for vocabulary and reading comprehension. Although the teacher's manual for the tests points out that all scores should be regarded as tentative, since any test can include only a small number of items and since other factors may also affect the child's performance, it is a widely used test.[1] An excerpt taken from a review of the tests says, "The tests correlate well with other measures

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[1] Gates-MacGinitie Reading Tests: Teacher's Manual (New York: Columbia University Teachers College, 1964), p. 6.

of reading ability, including overall appraisal by classroom teachers."[1]

Norms were established for the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Tests "by administering the tests to a nationwide sample of approximately 40,000 students in thirty-seven communities. The communities were carefully selected to be representative on the basis of size, geographical location, educational level, and family income."[2]

The Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test, Primary A, Form 1 was given as a pretest to both the control and experimental groups in a morning session during the first week in April. The second week in June, at the conclusion of the eighth week of treatment, both the experimental and control groups were given the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test, Primary A, Form 2 as the posttest in order to calculate and compare the gains made by the two groups of students. This test was also administered during a morning session. Both forms of the test were scored by hand, using the scoring keys provided by the publishers.

Reading Attitude

Strong's adaptation of the Inventory of Reading Attitude which was developed by Vogt et al. was administered

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[1]Oscar Krisen Buros, ed., Reading: Tests and Reviews (New Jersey: The Gryphon Press, 1968) p. 302.

[2]Gates-MacGinitie Reading Tests: Technical Manual (New York: Columbia University Teachers College, 1964), p. 1.

by the teachers during the first week of the study (Appendix D).[1] This assessment was taken because it was believed that a poor attitude towards reading would likely affect the general response to and interest in books. Implementing the literature enrichment program would be more difficult if negative attitudes toward reading already existed.

Group Involvement and Reaction

Daily records were kept of the materials read and the types of activities engaged in during the eight week period. Anecdotal records were also kept of children's comments and reactions throughout the study.

Parental Involvement

The eight week study was initiated when a letter was sent to the parents asking them to read a selected story to their child each night (Appendix D). A record was kept of the books each child took home during the eight week period and at the end of the study parents were sent a form and asked to check those books which they read aloud to their child (Appendix D).

Treatment of Data

Data derived from scores on the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Tests were treated statistically. The data were

[1]Strong, "The Use of Children's Literature to Foster Positive Reading Attitudes in Primary Children With Reading Difficulty," p. 60.

subjected to analysis of covariance since this statistical method of analysis makes it possible "to 'control' or 'adjust for' the effects of one or more uncontrolled variables, and permit, thereby, a valid evaluation of the outcome of the experiment."[1] This method was chosen because of the significant difference that the pretest revealed between the means of the control and experimental groups, and because Campbell and Stanley consider this method of analysis the most appropriate to use with "The Nonequivalent Control Group Design."[2]

The data concerned with reading attitude, group involvement and reaction, and parental involvement were not treated statistically, but are presented and discussed.

Methodology and Materials Used in This Study

Beginning on April 14, 1980 the experimental group was exposed to the reading of poetry and stories and involved in doing related activities for thirty minutes each day. After a three week period this time was extended to approximately one hour each day.

There is evidence that children from lower ability groups may make gains in reading achievement only if books

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[1]George A. Ferguson, Statistical Analysis in Psychology and Education (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1976) p. 346.

[2]Campbell and Stanley, Experimental and Quasi-Experimental Design and Research, p. 49.

which are read to them are introduced in order of difficulty.[1] In view of this evidence, the books used in the study were selected and, with the help of experienced teachers and librarians, classified according to difficulty and were initially introduced in that manner. This procedure, however, did not continue throughout the study. Because of the diverse interests and abilities within the groups, it was evident that a variety of books ranging from easy to difficult should be available to the children. Although this was not part of the original plan, a few "easy readers" were brought in.

The materials for this study included a large variety of stories and poems which were read to the children in school and at home. Suitable books from the school library were used in the classroom, but the children were not permitted to take these home. The school collection was supplemented by more than five hundred books from the Arts and Culture Center Library and the Memorial University Curriculum Materials Center. These books were used both in school and at home. A variety of art materials were used during the follow-up activities. The activities included:

1. Use of puppets, mime, and dramatization to reenact particular stories.
2. Construction of mobiles, dioramas, collage pictures, and box movies to extend interest and appreciation

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[1]Dorothy H. Cohen, "The Effect of Literature on Vocabulary and Reading Achievement," Elementary English 45 (February, 1968): 209-13.

of literary selections.

3. Sketching of favorite storybook characters and illustrations for book jackets and individual booklets.
4. Writing of prose and poetry by groups and individuals.

Summary

An experimental group and a control group were used in this study which was designed to test the effects of a special literature enrichment program on grade-one children. For a period of eight weeks the experimental group listened daily to stories and poems read aloud and participated in activities related to the literature selections. Data related to reading achievement, reading attitude, group involvement and reaction, and parental involvement were collected during the study. The data concerned with reading achievement were analyzed statistically. The remaining data were reported and discussed.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF DATA

Statistical Analysis of Data

An analysis of covariance was used to test the first two hypotheses in this study. Both the pretest and posttest scores were punched on data cards and the computer facilities at Memorial University of Newfoundland were used to process the information.

The raw posttest scores on the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test, Primary A, Form 2 were the dependent variables and the raw pretest scores on the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test, Primary A, Form 1 were the covariates. The subprogram ANOVA (Analysis of Variance and Covariance) of SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) was used in the IBM-370 computer system to conduct the analysis.[1]

ANOVA, using the pretest as the covariate, adjusted for a significant between-groups difference and then performed the F-test to determine if there was a significant difference between groups that could be attributed to the treatment received.

Table 1 presents the mean and standard deviation of the pretest and posttest scores for comprehension and Table 2

[1] Norman H. Nie, et al., SPSS: Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1970).

provides the same information for vocabulary. The individual pretest and posttest scores are included in Appendix E.

TABLE 1

MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION FOR COMPREHENSION
GATES-MACGINITIE READING TESTS
PRIMARY A, FORMS 1 AND 2

Groups	Pretest		Posttest	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Experimental Group	17.7	7.0	22.3	7.2
Control Group	16.2	7.2	19.9	7.1

TABLE 2

MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION FOR VOCABULARY
GATES-MACGINITIE READING TESTS
PRIMARY A, FORMS 1 AND 2

Groups	Pretest		Posttest	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Experimental Group	32.7	9.4	39.2	8.4
Control Group	28.0	10.8	33.8	8.6

Table 3 gives the results of the Analysis of Covariance obtained from the comprehension scores and Table 4 gives the results obtained from the vocabulary scores.

TABLE 3

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE-COMPREHENSION

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Signif. of F
Pretest	2675.0	1	2675.0	171.2	0.0
Group	26.3	1	26.3	1.7	0.20
Explained	2701.3 (70.9%)				
Residual	1109.6				
Total	3810.9				

TABLE 4

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE-VOCABULARY

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Signif. of F
Pretest	4483.7	1	4483.7	254.4	0.0
Group	74.8	1	74.8	4.2	0.04
Explained	4558.5 (78.5%)				
Residual	1251.4				
Total	5809.9				

Only the null hypotheses 1 and 2 and the substantive hypotheses 1 and 2 were subjected to statistical analysis. These were tested for significance at the .05 level.

Analysis of covariance was used to test the statistical hypothesis No. 1 ($H_o: \mu_1 = \mu_2$ in comprehension). Although there was a slight gain by the treatment group, it was not significant at the .05 level so the null hypothesis was not rejected.

Statistical hypothesis No. 2 ($H_o: \mu_1 = \mu_2$ in vocabulary) was also tested by analysis of covariance. However, in this case the results indicated that the treatment group did make a significant gain at the .05 level, so the null hypothesis was rejected.

The substantive hypothesis No. 1 stated: "The treatment group will have significantly higher achievement in comprehension than the control group." The treatment group did have higher achievement than the control group in comprehension, but the difference was not enough to be significant at the .05 level.

The substantive hypothesis No. 2 stated: "The treatment group will have significantly higher achievement in vocabulary than the control group." This hypothesis was accepted since the treatment group did make a significant gain at the .05 level.

Discussion of Descriptive Data

Much of the data gathered during this study was descriptive and can be best understood through discussion. Substantive hypotheses 3 and 4, reading achievement shown by gain in grade level, pupil reaction and involvement, and parent involvement are all included among the descriptive data.

Substantive Hypotheses 3 and 4

The substantive hypotheses 3 and 4 did not lend themselves to statistical treatment since the relative data consisted of observational assessments, teachers' comments, and anecdotal notes recorded throughout the literature enrichment program. It was decided that a descriptive analysis of this material would be the most appropriate.

The substantive hypothesis No. 3 stated: "The treatment group will show a greater interest in books." The children in general seemed to enjoy books but an attempt was made at the beginning of the study to determine if the subjects involved had negative attitudes toward reading, since this might have a bearing on their interest in the books and their reaction to the literature program.

Strong's adaption of the Inventory of Reading Attitude which was developed by Vogt et al. was administered to all students during the first week of the study.[1] Scores on

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[1]Strong, "The Use of Children's Literature to Foster Positive Reading Attitudes in Primary Children With Reading Difficulty," p. 60.

the Inventory of Reading Attitude revealed that negative attitudes toward reading need not be a primary concern in this study since over 90 per cent of the students showed a very positive attitude. The inventory was originally designed for older children and even the revised form contains some questions which seem inappropriate for grade one students (e.g. "Do you like to read the newspaper?"). There was no further investigation of attitudes as it was felt that such investigation would add nothing to the study.

Each of the classrooms in which the study was conducted had a collection of library books which the children were free to peruse and which were read to them by the teachers. These books, however, were not allowed to be taken from the school so the literature enrichment program, in which books could be taken home, provided children and parents the opportunity to share a new library book each night.

From the beginning the children reacted to the literature program with enthusiasm, but their comments and behavior revealed increased interest as the study progressed. Comments like, "That story was good!" and "I like hearing stories" were heard frequently, but as the program continued the enthusiasm mounted and questions were asked about the long-term plans for the program. One such question was, "Are you going to do this with us in grade two next year?" The children knew that the program was supposed to last for eight weeks and one day a little girl asked, "How long has it gone

on?" When told that the program had been in progress for three weeks she replied, "Oh, good, you'll still come for a long time!"

The collection of books placed in the classrooms during the program was changed frequently and this inspired in the children an urgency to get particulat books before they disappeared. One child was heard to say, "I hope I can get that one before she takes it back to the library." It was impossible for the children to experience all the books available in their classroom but they attempted to hear as many as possible with pleas like, "Aren't you going to read another one?" and "I wish you could read two!" One of the teachers empathized with the children and said, "I feel bad when you have to return the books before I get a chance to read all of them. I never realized that there were so many good children's books available!"

Observation revealed that the children became increasingly involved with the books and other aspects of the program. The support of the teachers involved added to the success of the program and undoubtedly extended the pupil's interest. The teachers were asked after the third week of the program if they would be willing to increase the time allotted for the read-aloud sessions and follow-up activities. One teacher's comment left no doubt that reading to children was a priority in her class. She said, "You can have as much time as you like because this is really good for them. I try to read as

many of the books to them as I can of those you leave." This same teacher volunteered her class for similar studies that might be conducted in the future.

The classroom teachers and the organizer of the literature enrichment program all agreed that students involved in the program did show a greater interest in books; therefore, the substantive hypothesis No. 3 was accepted.

The substantive hypothesis No. 4 stated: "The treatment group will show an increased desire to read independently." Although no records were kept of books which children read or attempted to read independently, there was a recognizable increase in such activity. The literature enrichment session with one class ended at noon and the children were often found pouring over their books long after they had been dismissed.

Sharing time was scheduled frequently. This was done primarily because it has been recognized as a great way to transmit enthusiasm among children. Smith relates the amusing incident of a first-grader who won twenty-five readers for a book because when sharing he laughed too much to tell the story.[1] In addition to generating the expected enthusiasm, sharing time during this study provided an opportunity to observe some independent reading by the children. As individuals shared books they often chose to read short portions aloud to the class. Throughout the study children were

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[1]Smith, "Developing a Love of Reading," p. 229.

encouraged to read independently and evidently one little girl decided to accept the challenge. At the end of the program it was discovered that this child's parents had read to her regularly during the first part of the program but less frequently during the last part. An investigation revealed that often the books which were checked out were not taken home because the child discovered that she could read them herself and chose to do so even if she had to keep the same book for two or three days rather than exchange it for a new one each day.

The strong indication that many children were attempting to read the materials independently prompted the inclusion of a variety of "easy readers" to the collection. Such books were specifically introduced to encourage those children with reading problems who could not experience independent reading success through using the materials which had uncontrolled vocabulary. The children were encouraged to read the easy books in school while checking out ones which were more difficult for their parents to read to them.

Observation of the reading habits of the children involved in the study certainly indicated that there was an increased desire to read independently, therefore the substantive hypothesis No. 4 was accepted.

Reading Achievement Shown by Grade Level Gain

A comparison of the grade level gain made by the experimental and control groups in both comprehension and vocabulary is worth noting. The comparisons are made by converting raw scores of the pretests and posttests to the equivalent grade level scores provided in the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Tests Teacher's Manual.[1]

The pretest for this study was administered in April and, according to the test norms, students tested at that time should score at a grade level of 1.7. At the time of the posttest, administered in June, the scores should have increased to 1.9. A comparison of the comprehension scores (Table 5) and vocabulary scores (Table 6) reveal that the experimental group made larger gains in both areas.

TABLE 5

GRADE LEVEL GAIN IN COMPREHENSION
GATES-MACGINITIE READING TESTS,
PRIMARY A, FORMS 1 AND 2

Groups	Pretest	Posttest	Gain
Experimental Group	1.7	2.0	.3
Control Group	1.6	1.8	.2

[1]Gates-MacGinitie Reading Tests: Teacher's Manual, p. 7.

TABLE 6

GRADE LEVEL GAIN IN VOCABULARY
GATES-MACGINITIE READING TESTS,
PRIMARY A, FORMS 1 AND 2

Groups	Pretest	Posttest	Gain
Experimental Group	1.8	2.3	.5
Control Group	1.6	1.8	.2

Whereas a two month (.2) gain would be expected and was actually realized in both comprehension and vocabulary by the control group, the experimental group showed gains in comprehension of three months (.3) and in vocabulary of five months (.5).

A comparison of the gain in both comprehension and vocabulary indicates the contribution of a planned literature enrichment program to reading achievement. Although the statistical analysis recognized only the gain in vocabulary as significant (a gain which exceeded that of the control group by three months), there was also a slight gain in comprehension by the experimental group which exceeded the gain of the control group by one month.

Pupil Involvement and Reaction

Some of the most significant insights into the value of a literature enrichment program were gleaned from carefully observing the involvement and reaction of pupils as

they participated in the various activities each day. It became obvious that the more books they encountered the more able they were to make judgements, observations, predictions, and comparisons. A reading of Runaway Marie Louise (Carlson), for example, inspired comments like, "I think it will be her own mother," and the story Where Did My Mother Go (Preston) provoked the remark, "This is going to go on like that." After the reading of A Special Trade (Wittman) one child exclaimed, "Oh, that's just like Big Sister and Little Sister!" referring to a book by Zolotow which had been shared with the group two weeks previously. Another child who had taken home Mike's House (Sauer) came to school bursting with excitement because he had found one of the books read aloud to the class, Mike Mulligan and His Steam Shovel (Burton), in "his" book.

Poetry, which was included as a part of each day's session, was probably a more novel experience for most children than hearing stories read aloud. The children had a positive response to the poetry selections and it was not unusual to be greeted with, "Are you going to read more poems about cats and things today?" or to have a child say, "Oh, good, another poem!" One day after class a rather shy little girl whispered in a barely audible voice, "I like it when you read poems to us."

It was evident in this study that even young children can recognize the mood of a poem and respond accordingly. After a reading of the poem "Alone" (Aldis), the children

sat quietly without comment. When encouraged to share how the poem made them feel, some very sensitive comments were made, including, "Hearing that made me feel sad" and "It makes me feel just like crying."

The children revealed a genuine appreciation for the poetry selections introduced. This initiated the decision to make duplicate copies of the poems so each pupil could start his own collection. Poetry booklets were made which the children decorated. Some of their own poems, written by groups and individuals, were also included. The cover was autographed by classmates and the booklet taken home at the conclusion of the literature program.

In addition to enjoying the stories and poems, the children gave indications of an increased awareness of illustrators and an appreciation for the art in picture books. Some of the particular books that elicited specific comments were:

Little Wood Duck (Wildsmith) — "Those pictures are beautiful."

Annie's Rainbow (Brooks) — "Oh, aren't the pictures nice."

When the Sky Is like Lace (Horwitz) — "I like those pictures."

Near the end of the program, children were quite familiar with some of the particular styles of art used by such illustrators as Wildsmith, Keats, and McCloskey and could easily recognize books that had been illustrated by them.

Each class session which included the reading of a story and a poem was followed by a related activity. The time limitation coupled with the problem of obtaining necessary materials did not leave the children as much choice in activity selection as desirable but they participated eagerly in the activities suggested. On occasion the students suggested an activity which had not been planned and these suggestions were implemented. After reading Michael (Skorpen) there was an immediate request of, "Oh, can we write a story?" and following the story May I Bring a Friend (De Regniers) came the cry, "Could we act it out?" The last plea was made too late to be done that day but the students were given the opportunity to dramatize the story the next day. The little girl who had made the request seemed pleased with the results and remarked as they were returning to their seats, "Oh, I'm so glad I said that!"

Comments such as, "Oh, neat, that was a happy ending!" or "Oh-h-h, that was a good story!" and the spontaneous cheer which escaped as many books and activities were introduced leaves little doubt that a planned literature enrichment program contributed to enjoyment as well as reading achievement.

Parent Involvement

Involvement of parents in reading aloud to children was an important part of the investigation. At the beginning of the study parents were sent letters explaining the purpose of the program and requesting that they become involved by

reading aloud to their child the selected book which would be brought home each night. After the eight week period had expired the parents were presented with a form on which were listed the individual titles of books taken home by their child. They were asked to check the ones which they had read aloud and return the form to the school. Of the thirty-three subjects included in the experimental group, forms for thirty-one were returned. Students with perfect attendance during the eight week period had the opportunity to take home thirty-eight books but sickness reduced this number for several. Information on the Parent Involvement Form revealed that an average of thirty-five books were taken home by each child and that of these an average of thirty-two were read aloud by one of the parents. A more complete breakdown of the individual involvement of the parents was calculated from the thirty-one forms returned. This information is presented in Table 7.

TABLE 7

PARENT INVOLVEMENT AS REPORTED ON FORMS

Number of Parents	Number of Books Read Aloud
14	Read every book brought home.
8	Read all but 1 or 2 books.
4	Read all but 3 - 5 books.
5	Missed reading 7 - 19 books.

No feedback was solicited from the parents other than a request to return the forms indicating how many books they had read aloud to their child. Some additional information about parents' involvement and attitudes was gleaned, however, through incidental means. The apparent preference of one parent for short books was obvious as one little girl was deciding on the book to take home. A little friend suggested a book to her but after a quick glance she replied, "No, that one is too long for Mom." Happily, there were also comments of a more positive nature, such as, "Mom liked this book," and "Dad said this was a funny book."

Several of the parents mentioned the program to the classroom teachers during a parent-teacher conference and indicated that they were delighted with the idea. Some parents who read to their children regularly before the special program was started liked the idea of having a new book each night instead of reading books from the child's own collection.

Most of the parents cooperated with the project and seemed to agree that reading aloud to children was a worthwhile activity. One took the time to express how she and her husband felt about the program when she returned the parent involvement form. A note on the bottom of the page said, "It has been a pleasure reading these books and believe me we enjoyed the fun stories as much as he did! I know it was a lot of work and we do appreciate it." That comment confirmed the investigator's belief that the program had been well worth the effort.

It is unrealistic to believe that the control group enjoyed none of the books, poems, or activities used in the literature enrichment program provided for the experimental group. During the administration of the posttest to the control group, an attempt was made by the investigator to discover how much overlapping of activities might have taken place in the experimental and control groups. Information was gathered by talking informally with teachers of the control group about how often stories and poems were read aloud to the class and to what extent the group was involved in activities related to the selections they heard. Since the control group, like the experimental group, was made up of two classes the practices were not always the same in both rooms. Both classrooms had a collection of good books which were attractively displayed and both teachers said they read a story aloud to the children every day. Poetry did not receive the same attention, however, and in both rooms was read only occasionally. One teacher said she tried to involve the children in activities related to literature often, while the other indicated that such planned activities took place in her classroom occasionally. When asked whether or not children were permitted to take books home, one teacher replied with "No" and the other with "Always." Neither teacher had made an attempt to involve parents in reading to the children at home.

The information gathered from teachers of the control group made it quite clear that some of the experiences

planned for the experimental group were also being encountered by the control group. It is particularly interesting to note that both groups probably heard a story read each day at school. It cannot, however, be assumed that the experimental group heard only the story read by the investigator since at least one teacher working with the experimental group continued to read many books to her students.

It seems obvious that the experimental group was exposed to more poetry and participated in more literature related activities. It also appears that more books were taken home by the experimental group and they were the only group whose parents had been specifically invited to become involved in reading aloud to their children regularly.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

This study was designed to set up a literature enrichment program in which children were read to on a regular basis and involved in related activities. The main purpose of the investigation was to determine if children exposed to the literature program would have significantly higher achievement in reading comprehension and vocabulary than children who were not involved in such a program. The possible effects of the program on children's interest in books and the desire to read independently were also major considerations.

The study lasted for a period of eight weeks and involved an experimental group and a control group. Both groups were administered a pretest and a posttest to determine the gains made in reading comprehension and vocabulary during the investigation period. Two statistical hypotheses and four substantive hypotheses were tested in this study. They were:

Statistical Hypotheses

1. $H_o: \mu_1 = \mu_2$ (in comprehension) Reject or not?
2. $H_o: \mu_1 = \mu_2$ (in vocabulary) Reject or not?

Substantive Hypotheses

1. The treatment group will have significantly higher achievement in comprehension than the control group.
2. The treatment group will have significantly higher achievement in vocabulary than the control group.
3. The treatment group will show a greater interest in books.
4. The treatment group will show an increased desire to read independently.

The pretest and posttest scores on the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test provided the data for an analysis of covariance which was used to test the two statistical hypotheses and the first two substantive hypotheses in this study.

The results of the pretest revealed that the control and experimental groups were not evenly matched. The validity of any comparisons to be made was consequently reduced. An analysis of covariance was used with the pretest as covariate in order to adjust for this initial difference and to make it possible to compare the groups and determine if the greater posttest gains made by the experimental group could be attributed to the group's exposure to the literature program. The statistical analysis confirmed that the experimental group showed gains over those of the control group in both vocabulary and comprehension, but only the gain in vocabulary was great enough to be considered significant.

The substantive hypotheses No. 3 and No. 4 did not lend themselves to a statistical analysis but observational assessments, teachers' comments, and anecdotal records provided the necessary data for a descriptive analysis of these two hypotheses.

The null hypotheses No. 1 and No. 2 and the substantive hypotheses No. 1 and No. 2 were tested for significance at the .05 level. Analysis of covariance was used to test the statistical hypothesis No. 1 ($H_o: \mu_1 = \mu_2$ in comprehension). There was a gain by the treatment group, but since the gain was not significant at the .05 level the null hypothesis was accepted. Statistical hypothesis No. 2 ($H_o: \mu_1 = \mu_2$ in vocabulary) was also tested by an analysis of covariance. The results indicated that the treatment group had made a gain in vocabulary significant at the .05 level. The null hypothesis was therefore rejected. The substantive hypothesis No. 1 stated: "The treatment group will have significantly higher achievement in comprehension than the control group." The treatment group did have higher achievement than the control group in comprehension, but the difference was not significant at the .05 level. The substantive hypothesis No. 2 stated: "The treatment group will have significantly higher achievement in vocabulary than the control group." This hypothesis was accepted since the treatment group did make a significant gain at the .05 level. It was not surprising that the gain in vocabulary exceeded the gain in comprehension since children were constantly

bombarded with new words during the daily read-aloud sessions.

The substantive hypotheses No. 3 and No. 4 were not treated statistically, but descriptive data gathered throughout the investigation made certain assessments possible. The substantive hypothesis No. 3 stated: "The treatment group will show a greater interest in books." From the beginning the children were enthusiastic about the literature program, but their comments and behavior revealed increased interest as the study progressed. The classroom teachers and the organizer of the literature program agreed that the students involved showed a greater interest in books. The substantive hypothesis No. 3 was consequently accepted. The substantive hypothesis No. 4 stated: "The treatment group will show an increased desire to read independently." Although no records were kept of books which children read or attempted to read independently, there was a recognizable increase in such activity. Observation of the reading habits of the children involved in the study convincingly indicated that there was an increased desire to read independently. The substantive hypothesis No. 4 was therefore accepted.

Conclusions

Children are not likely to become avid readers unless an abundance of good books is available to them. This emphasizes the need for the provision of an adequate supply of good literature in the schools and for allowing children

free use of the material both in the classroom and at home. This study provides convincing evidence that children are unlikely to become readers by choice unless an abundance of good books are available; that the involvement of children in book-related activities may contribute to their reading achievement, their interest in reading, and their desire to read independently; and participation of parents through reading aloud to children is a contributing factor to reading enjoyment and success. Although the literature enrichment program for this study was limited to eight weeks, it appears logical to believe that children exposed to such a program for a longer period of time would make significant, measurable gain in comprehension and that the already significant gain realized in vocabulary would be more impressive. It also appears logical to conclude that children would become increasingly interested in books if exposed to such a program for a longer duration and that the desire to read independently would be fostered in more and more students. Ideally, such a program should not be thought of as something which is introduced and carried on within a specific time span, but rather as a part of the basic curriculum and an opportunity afforded <u>all</u> children <u>throughout the entire year</u>.

<u>Recommendations</u>

No study provides clear and unequivocal answers to all questions. This particular investigation has provided some information and insight regarding the value of reading

aloud to children, but many questions remain unanswered. In view of this the following recommendations are made:

1. It is recommended that the study be replicated, but carried out over an extended time period of not less than eight months.
2. It is recommended that a similar program be introduced to pre-school and kindergarten children to see if they will read earlier and/or better as a result.
3. It is recommended that such a program be used with older children who may have negative attitudes toward reading to determine if such a program would change those attitudes and produce better readers.
4. It is recommended that longitudinal studies be conducted to determine if significant gains in reading achievement, made while involved in a literature enrichment program, are retained in later years.

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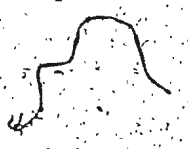

APPENDIX A

BOOKS READ ALOUD DURING CLASS SESSIONS

Batherman, Muriel. Something You Should Know about My Dog.

Brooks, Ron. Annie's Rainbow.

Buckley, Helen. The Little Boy and the Birthdays.

Bulla, Clyde Robert. Keep Running, Allen.

Burton, Virginia Lee. Mike Mulligan and His Steam Shovel.

Carlson, Natalie Savage. Runaway Marie Louise.

Cleary, Beverly. The Real Hole.

de Regniers, Beatrice Schenk. May I Bring a Friend?

Elkin, Benjamin. The Loudest Noise in the World.

Fatio, Louise. The Happy Lion.

Fisher, Aileen. And a Sunflower Grew.

Flack, Marjorie. Ask Mr. Bear.

Galdone, Joanna and Paul. Gertrude the Goose Who Forgot.

Galdone, Paul. The Three Little Pigs.

Garrett, Helen. Angelo the Naughty One.

Gelman, Rita Golden. Hey, Kid!

Hoban, Russell. Bread and Jam for Francis.

Keats, Ezra Jack. Louie.

_____. Whistle for Willie.

Levine, Joan Goldman. A Bedtime Story.

Parish, Peggy. Too Many Rabbits.

Preston, Edna Mitchell. Where Did My Mother Go?

Sawyer, Ruth. Journey Cake, Ho!

Schleim, Miriam. The Way Mothers Are.

Shaw, Richard. A Tree For Rent.

Skorpen, Liesel Moak. Michael.

Tolstoy, Alexia. The Great Big Enormous Turnip.

Tresselt, Alvin. Hide and Seek Fog.

_____. Rain Drop Splash.

Udry, Janice May. A Tree Is Nice.

Waber, Bernard. Ira Sleeps Over.

Whitney, Alma Marshak. Leave Herbert Alone.

Wildsmith, Brian. The Little Wood Duck.

_____. The Owl and the Woodpecker.

Willard, Nancy. Simple Pictures Are Best.

Whittman, Sally. A Special Trade.

Yashima, Taro. Umbrella.

Zemach, Harve. Nail Soup.

Zolotow, Charlotte. A New Friend.

_____. Big Sister and Little Sister.

_____. My Friend John.

POEMS READ ALOUD DURING CLASS SESSIONS

Aldis, Dorothy. "Alone."

_____. "I Never Hear."

_____. "Whistles."

Anonymous. "I Know a Little Pussy."

_____. "My Fairy."

Austen, Mary. "Grizzly Bear."

Brown, Margaret Wice. "How Do You Know It's Spring?"

Chute, Marchette. "Dogs."

Farjeon, Eleanor. "Cats."

_____. "Fairies."

Field, Rachel. "The Animal Store."

Fisher, Aileen. "In the Middle of the Night."

Fyleman, Rose. "Mice."

Greenaway, Kate. "Little Wind."

Hoberman, Mary Ann. "Brothers."

Hughes, Langston. "Poems."

Hymes Jr., Lucia and James L. "My Favorite Word."

Jackson, Kathryn. "Silly Puppy."

Jackson, Leroy E. "Hippity Hop to Bed."

Jacobs, Leland B. "Woodpecker."

Lear, Edward. "The Owl and the Pussy Cat."

McCord, David. "Every Time I Climb a Tree."

_____. "I Want You to Meet."

_____. "Jamboree."

Merriam, Eve. "What in the World."

Millet, Merlin. "Our Puppy."

Milne, A. A. "Hoppity."

Mother Goose. "Kindness."

O'Neill, Mary. "What Is Green."

Richards, Laura E. "The Monkeys and the Crocodile."

Roberts, Elizabeth Madox. "The Woodpecker."

Rossetti, Christina. "Who Has Seen the Wind?"

Sandburg, Carl. "Fog."

Smith, Beth. Selection from Green Is Like a Meadow of Grass.

Stephens, James. "I Heard a Bird."

Stevenson, Robert Louis. "Happy Thought."

_____. "Rain."

_____. "Singing."

Sunderland, Mary. Selection from Green Is Like a Meadow of Grass.

Tippett, James S. "Play After Rain."

APPENDIX B

SAMPLE OF ACTIVITIES USED DURING THE STUDY

Dioramas were made following the reading of The Little Wood Duck (Wildsmith). The children made their own wood ducks from salt and flour dough, painted them, and completed the dioramas using stones, grass, and other bits of realia.

A box movie was made after the reading of Gertrude the Goose Who Forgot (Galdone). The different events of the story were illustrated and put together in proper sequence so the story could be retold by the students as it was used in class.

After listening to a recorded reading of "In the Middle of the Night" (Fisher), children created their own collage pictures of a nighttime scene.

Stick puppets were made of the characters in Runaway Marie Louise (Carlson) and the children produced their own puppet play about the story.

The Way Mothers Are (Schleim) was read to the children just before Mother's Day. After hearing the story they made cards for their mothers in which they composed poems or prose telling why mothers are special.

APPENDIX C

BOOKS TAKEN HOME TO BE
READ BY PARENTS

Aardema, Verna. Why Mosquitoes Buzz in People's Ears.

Abbott, Sarah. Where I Began.

Adelson, Leone. All Ready for Winter.

Adler, David A. A Little at a Time.

Alexander, Lloyd. The King's Fountain.

Alexander, Martha. I Am Glad to See You, Blackboard Bear.

_____. No Ducks in Our Bathtub.

_____. Sabrina.

Anderson, C.W. A Pony for Linda.

_____. Billy and Blaze.

_____. The Crooked Colt.

Anderson, Hans Christian. Thumbelina.

Anderson, Lloyd. Mr. Biddle and the Birds.

Andirson, Paul. Red Fox and Hungry Tiger.

Andrews, F. Emerson. Nobody Comes for Dinner.

Anglund, Joan Walsh. A Friend Is Someone Who Likes You.

_____. In a Pumpkin Shell.

Ardizzone, Aingelda. The Night Ride.

Ardizzone, Edward. Johnny the Clockmaker,

_____. Little Tim and the Brave Sea Captain.

_____. Tim All Alone.

_____. Tim and Lucy Go to Sea.

Atwood, Margaret. Up in The Tree.

Barr, Catherine. Bears In — Bears Out.

Barr, Catherine. Peppy of Portugal.

Barrett, Judi. An Apple a Day.

Bason, Lillian. Pick a Raincoat, Pick a Whistle.

Bate, Lucy. Little Rabbit's Loose Tooth.

Batherman, Muriel. Something You Should Know about My Dog.

Baum, Arline and Joseph. One Bright Monday Morning.

Beim, Jerrold. The Smallest Boy in the Class.

Beim, Lorraine and Jerrold. Two is a Team.

Bemelmans, Ludwig. Madeline.

_____. Madeline and the Bad Hat.

Benchley, Nathaniel. The Strange Disappearance of Arthur Cluck.

Bendick, Jeanne. All Around You.

Beskow, Elsa. Pelle's New Suit.

Binzen, Bill. Miguel's Mountain.

Bishop, Claire Huchet. The Five Chinese Brothers.

Black, Irma Simonton. The Little Old Man Who Cooked and Cleaned.

Blades, Ann. Mary of Mile 18.

Bolliger, Max. The Giant's Feast.

Bond, Michael and Banbery, Fred. Paddington at the Circus.

_____. Paddington's Garden.

_____. Paddington's Lucky Day.

Bonzon, Paul Jacques. The Runaway Flying Horse.

Borack, Barbara. Grandpa.

Bradbury, Peggy. The Snake That Couldn't Slither.

Bridwell, Norman. Clifford's Good Deeds.

Bright, Robert. Georgie and the Robbers.

Bright, Robert. Georgie to the Rescue.

Broger, Achiem and Kalow, Gisela. Good Morning Whale.

Brooke, L. Leslie. Johnny Crow's Garden.

Brooks, Ron. Annie's Rainbow.

Brown, Marcia. The Bun.

_____. Felice.

_____. The Little Carousel.

Brown, Margaret Wise. Big Red Barn.

_____. Country Noisy Book.

_____. The Dead Bird.

_____. Fox Eyes.

_____. The Golden Egg Book.

_____. The Runaway Bunny.

_____. When the Wind Blew.

_____. Where Have You Been?

Browne, Caroline. Mrs. Christie's Farmhouse.

Buckley, Helen E. Grandfather and I.

_____. Grandmother and I.

_____. The Little Boy and the Birthdays.

Bulla, Clyde Robert. Keep Running, Allen.

Burch, Robert. The Hunting Trip.

Burningham, John. Borka, The Adventures of a Goose with No Feathers.

_____. Mr. Grumpy's Outing.

Burton, Virginia Lee. Choo Choo, The Story of a Little Engine Who Ran Away.

_____. The Little House.

Burton, Virginia Lee. Mike Mulligan and His Steam Shovel.

Carle, Eric. Pancakes, Pancakes!

Carlson, Natalie Savage. Runaway Marie Louise.

Carrick, Carol. The Foundling.

Carrick, Malcolm. Happy Jack.

Cathon, Laura. Tot Botot and His Little Flute.

Caudill, Rebecca. A Pocketfull of Cricket.

Chalmers, Mary. Be Good Harry.

Choate, Judith. Awful Alexander.

Chukovsky, Kornei. The Telephone.

Cleary, Beverly. The Real Hole.

Clifton, Lucille. Amifika.

Cohen, Miriam. Best Friends.

_____. The New Teacher.

Colman, Hilda. Watch That Watch.

Conover, Chris (Illustrator). Six Little Ducks.

Coombs, Patricis. Lisa and the Grompet.

Cooney, Barbara. Chanticleer and the Fox.

Cooney, Nancy Evans. The Wobbly Tooth.

Cretan, Gladys Yessayan. Lobo and Brewster.

Dalgliesh, Alice. The Little Wooden Farmer.

_____. The Courage of Sarah Noble.

Dauer, Rosamand. My Friend Jasper Jones.

Daughterty, James. Andy and the Lion.

d'Aulaire, Ingri and Edgar Parin. Lief the Lucky.

Davis, Alice Vaught. Timothy Turtle.

de Brunhoff, Jean. Story of Babar.

de Brunhoff, Laurent. Antole.

_____. Babar Visits Another Planet.

de Paola, Tomie. Strega Nona.

de Regniers, Beatrice Schenk. May I Bring a Friend.

Dennis, Wesley. Flip.

Domanska, Janina (Illustrator). The Best of the Bargain.

_____. I Saw A Ship-A-Sailing.

du Bois, William Pene. Otto at Sea.

Duplaix, Georges. The Merry Shipwreck.

Duvoisin, Roger. Crocus.

_____. Day and Night.

_____. Donkey-donkey.

_____. The Happy Hunter.

_____. The House of Four Seasons.

_____. Our Veronica Goes to Petunia's Farm.

_____. Petunia.

_____. Petunia Beware.

_____. Veronica.

_____. Veronica and the Birthday Present.

_____. What Is Right for Tulip?

Ehrlich, Amy. The Everyday Train.

Elkin, Benjamin. The King Who Could Not Sleep.

_____. The Loudest Noise in the World.

Ellis, Mary Jackson. Swimmer is a Hopper.

Elwart, Joan Potter. Right Foot, Left Foot.

Ernst, Kathryn. Charlie's Pets.

Etes, Eleanor. A Little Oven.

Ets, Marie Hall. Another Day.

_____. Elephant in a Well

_____. In the Forest.

_____. Just Me.

_____. Mister Penny's Circus.

_____. Play with Me.

Fatio, Louise. The Happy Lion.

_____. The Happy Lion Roars.

_____. The Happy Lion and the Bear.

_____. The Happy Lion's Treasure.

_____. The Happy Lion's Vacation.

_____. Hector and Christina.

_____. Marc and Pixie.

Fender, Kay. Odette, A Bird in Paris.

Fisher, Aileen. And a Sunflower Grew.

_____. In the Middle of the Night.

_____. Petals Yellow and Petals Red.

Flack, Marjorie. Angus and the Cat.

_____. Angus and the Ducks.

_____. Angus Lost.

_____. Ask Mr. Bear.

_____. The Story about Ping.

_____. Wait for William.

Freeman, Don. A Rainbow of My Own.

Freeman, Don. Dandelion.

Freschet, Bernice. Little Black Bear Goes for a Walk.

Friskey, Margaret. Shoe for My Pony.

Frost, Robert. Stopping by Woods on a Snowy Evening.

Gackenback, Dick. Harry and the Terrible Whatzit.

_____. Hattie Be Quiet, Hattie Be Good.

_____. Hound and Bear.

_____. More From Hound and Bear.

_____. Mother Rabbit's Son Tom.

Gag, Wanda. The ABC Bunny.

_____. Gone Is Gone.

_____. Millions of Cats.

_____. Snippy and Snappy.

Galdone, Joanna and Paul. Gertrude, the Goose Who Forgot.

Galdone, Paul (Illustrator). Androcles and the Lion.

_____. Gingerbread Boy.

_____. The Hare and the Tortoise.

_____. The Horse, the Fox, and the Lion.

_____. The House That Jack Built.

_____. The Little Red Hen.

_____. The Magic Porridge Pot.

_____. The Table, the Donkey, and the Stick.

_____. The Three Bears.

_____. The Three Billy Goats Gruff.

_____. The Three Little Pigs.

_____. The Three Wishes.

Gantschev, Ivan. The Pear Tree.

Garelick, May. Where Does the Butterfly Go When It Rains?

Garrett, Helen. Angelo the Naughty One.

Gay, Zhenya. The Nicest Time of Year.

Gelman, Rita Golden. Hey, Kid!

Ginsbury, Mirra. The Strongest One of All.

_____. Which Is the Best Place?

Godden, Rumer. The Old Woman Who Lived in a Vinegar Bottle.

Goffstein, M.B. Neighbors.

Goodenow, Earle. The Last Camel.

Graham, John. I Love You Mouse.

Graham, Margaret Bloy. Be Nice to Spiders.

_____. Benjy's Dog House.

Gramatky, Hardie. Little Toot.

Green, Norma (Retold). The Hole In the Dike.

Greene, Graham. The Little Fire Engine.

Grimm Brothers. Rumpelstiltskin.

Gunthorp, Karen. Curious Maggie.

Gydale, Monica and Danielson, Thomas. When Olly's Grandad Died.

Haas, Irene. The Maggie B.

Heide, Florence. The Little One.

Heide, Florence Parry and Van Clief, Sylvia Worth. That's What Friends Are For.

Hickman, Martha Whitmore. My Friend William Moved Away.

Hirsh, Marilyn. Leela and the Watermelon.

Hoban, Lillian. Stick-in-the-Mud Turtle.

Hoban, Russell. A Birthday for Francis.

Hoban, Russell. Bedtime for Francis.

_____. Bread and Jam for Francis.

_____. Nothing to Do.

_____. Ugly Bird.

Hoberman, Mary Anne and Norman. All My Shoes Come in Twos.

Hoff, Syd. Albert the Albatross.

_____. Barkley.

_____. Chester.

_____. Henrietta, the Early Bird.

_____. The Horse in Harry's Room.

_____. Kip Van Wrinkle.

_____. Little Chief.

_____. Oliver.

_____. Siegfried, Dog of the Alps.

_____. Thunderhoof.

_____. Who Will Be My Friend?

Hoffmann, Felix. Rapunzel.

Hogrogian, Nonny. One Fine Day.

Holl, Adelaide. One Kitten for Kim.

_____. The Rain Puddle.

_____. Small Bear's Name Hunt.

_____. Wake Up Small Bear.

Holmes, Efner Tudor. Amy's Goose.

Horwitz, Elinor Lander. When the Sky Is like Lace.

Howard, Katherine. Little Bunny Follows His Nose.

Hughes, Shirley. Dogger.

_____. Lucy and Tom at the Seaside.

Hurd, Edith Thacher. Come and Have Fun.

_____. Johnny Lion's Bad Day.

_____. No Funny Business.

_____. The White Horse.

Hutchins, Pat. The Surprise Party.

_____. The Wind Blew.

Ichikowa, Satomi. A Child's Book of Seasons.

_____. Friends.

Isadora, Rachel. Willaby.

Iverson, Genie. I Want to Be Big.

Iwasaki, Chihiro. What's Fun without a Friend?

Jacobs, Leland B. Just Around the Corner.

Janice. A Duck Called Angelique.

_____. Little Bear Learns to Read the Cookbook.

Jarrell, Randell (Translator). Snow White and the Seven Dwarfs.

Jewell, Nancy. Cheer Up, Pig.

_____. The Family under the Moon.

Joerns, Conauelo. The Lost and Found House.

John, Diana. St. George and the Dragon.

Johnson, Crockett. Harold and the Purple Crayon.

Joslin, Sesyle. Brave Baby Elephant.

_____. What Do You Say, Dear?

Kahl, Virginia. The Duchess Bakes a Cake.

_____. Whose Cat Is That?

Kantrowitz, Mildred. Willy Bear.

_____. When Violet Died.

Keats, Ezra Jack. A Letter to Amy.

_____. Apt. 3.

_____. Dreams.

_____. Jennie's Hat.

_____. Louie.

_____. (Illustrator). Over in the Meadow.

_____. Pet Show.

_____. Peter's Chair.

_____. The Snowy Day.

_____. Whistle for Willie.

Keith, Eros. A Small Lot.

Kellogg, Steven. Can I Keep Him?

_____. Much Bigger than Martin.

Kemper, Carol. Nicholas.

Kent, Jack. The Blah.

King, Patricia. Mabel the Whale.

Kipling, Rudyard. How the Whale Got His Throat.

Klein, Leonore. Only One Ant.

Klein, Norma. Girls Can Be Anything.

Krasilovsky, Phyllis. The Cow Who Fell in the Canal.

_____. The Man Who Didn't Wash His Dishes.

Krauss, Robert. Kittens for Nothing.

Krauss, Ruth. A Hole Is to Dig.

_____. A Very Special House.

_____. The Carrot Seed.

_____. Charlotte and the White Horse.

Krauss, Ruth. The Little King, the Little Queen, the Little Monster and Other Stories You Can Make Up Yourself.

Kroll, Steven. Is Milton Missing?

Langner, Nola. Dusty.

_____. Rafiki.

Lapp, Eleanor J. In the Morning Mist.

Laveile, Sheila. Everybody Said No.

Lazarus, Keo Felker. The Billy Goat in the Chili Patch.

Leaf, Munro. Noodle.

_____. Story of Ferdinand.

Lear, Edward. The Owl and the Pussy-Cat.

_____. Whizz.

Lee, Dennis. Alligator Pie.

Lenski, Lois. Cowboy Small.

_____. The Little Farm.

_____. The Little Sailboat.

_____. Papa Small.

_____. Policeman Small.

Lent, Henry B. Straight Up.

Lenzen, Hans Georg. The Blue Marble.

Levine, Joan Goldman. A Bedtime Story.

Levitin, Sonia. A Single Speckled Egg.

_____. Who Owns the Moon?

Lewis, Claudia. When I Go to the Moon.

Lexau, Joan. Olaf Reads.

Lindgren, Astrid. The Tomten.

Lindman, Maj. Snipp, Snapp, Snurr and the Red Shoes.

Lionni, Leo. A Color of His Own.

_____. Biggest House in the World.

_____. Fish is Fish.

_____. Frederick.

_____. Inch by Inch.

_____. Tico.

Littledale, Freya and Harold. Timothy's Forest.

Lobel, Anita. The Pancake.

Lobel, Arnold. How the Rooster Saved the Day.

_____. Mouse Soup.

_____. Mouse Tales.

_____. Old Mother Hubbard.

_____. Small Pig.

Low, Alice. David's Windows.

Lund, Doris Harold. Did You Ever Dream?

McCloskey, Robert. Blueberries for Sal.

_____. Lentil.

_____. Make Way for Ducklings.

_____. One Morning in Maine.

_____. Burt Dow Deep Water Man.

_____. Time of Wonder.

McGinley, Phyllis. The Horse Who Lived Upstairs.

McPhail, David. Where Can an Elephant Hide?

Mahy, Margaret. The Boy Who Was Followed Home.

Marsh, Jeri. Hurrah for Alexander.

Massie, Diane Redfield. Dazzle.

Mayer, Mercer. Just for You.

Memling, Carl. Hi, All You Rabbits.

Miles, Miska. Chicken Forgets.

_____. Swim, Little Duck.

Miller, Edna. Mousekin's ABC.

_____. Mousekin Finds a Friend.

_____. Pebbles, A Pack Rat.

Milne, A.A. When We Were Very Young.

Minarik, Else Holmelund. Cat and Dog.

_____. Father Bear Comes Home.

_____. Little Bear.

_____. Little Bear's Friend.

Morris, William Barrett. The Oyster's Secret.

Morrison, Bill. Louis James Hates School.

_____. Squeeze a Sneeze.

Munowitz, Ken. Noah.

Ness, Evaline. Sam, Bangs and Moonshine.

Newberry, Clare Turlay. April's Kittens.

Nodset, Joan L. Go Away Dog.

Noheltz, Sally. Eleven and Three are Poetry.

Orbach, Ruth. Please Send a Panda.

Palazzo, Tony. Jan and the Reindeer.

Parish, Peggy. Good Work Amelia Bedelia.

_____. Too Many Rabbits.

Park, Ruth. The Gigantic Balloon.

Pearce, Philippa. Beauty and the Beast.

Pearson, Susan. Monday I Was an Alligator.

Peppe, Rodney. Cat and Mouse.

_____. Simple Simon.

Petie, Haris. The Seed the Squirrel Dropped.

Piatti, Celestino. The Happy Owls.

Piatti, Celestino and Ursula. Barbara and the Dormouse.

Piers, Helen. Snail and Caterpiller.

Pincus, Harriet. Minna and Pippin.

Pinkwater, Manus. Bear's Picture.

_____. Three Big Hogs.

Piper, Watty. The Little Engine That Could.

Politi, Leo. Little Leo.

Potter, Beatrix. The Tale of Peter Rabbit.

Poulet, Virginia. Blue Bug to the Rescue.

Prelutsky, Jack. The Terrible Tiger.

Preston, Edna Mitchell. The Sad Story of the Little Bluebird and the Hungry Cat.

_____. Where Did My Mother Go?

Prokofiev, Sergei. Peter and the Wolf.

Provensen, Alice and Martin. A Book of Seasons.

_____. Our Animal Friends at Maple Hill Farm.

Quigley, Lillian (Retold). The Blind Man and the Elephant.

Raskin, Ellen. And It Rained.

Rayner, Mary. Garth Pig and the Icecream Lady.

Rey, H.A. Curious George.

_____. Curious George Follows a Kite.

_____. Curious George Gets a Medal.

_____. Curious George Learns the Alphabet.

Rey, Margaret and H.A. Curious George Goes to the Hospital.

Rice, Eve. New Blue Shoes.

_____. Oh, Lewis.

Robinowitz, Sandy. The Red Horse and the Bluebird.

Rocke, A.K. The Clever Turtle.

Rockwell, Anne. I Like the Library.

_____. Poor Goose.

Rojankovsky, Feodor. Over in the Meadow.

Rose, Anne. As Right as Right Can Be.

Rose, Elizabeth and Gerald. The Big River.

Ross G. Max. When Lucy Went Away.

Rosse, Jessica. Fanona the Beautiful.

Rounds, Glen. Once We Had a Horse.

Rudolph, Marguerita. I Like a Whole One.

Sage, Michael. The Tree and Me.

Sauer, Julia L. Mike's House.

Sawyer, Ruth. Journey Cake, Ho!

Scharen, Beatrix. Tillo.

Schick, Alice and Joel. Viola Hates Music.

Schick, Eleanor. Andy.

Schlein, Miriam. The Big Cheese.

_____. It's About Time.

_____. My House.

_____. The Way Mothers' Are.

Schneider, Gerlinde. Uncle Harry.

Schroder, William. Pea Soup and Sea Serpents.

Schwalje, Marjory. Mr. Angelo.

Segal, Lore. All the Way Home.

Sendak, Maurice. The Sign on Rosie's Door.

_____. Very Far Away.

_____. Where the Wild Things Are.

Seuss, Dr. And to Think That I Saw It on Mulberry Street.

_____. The Cat in the Hat.

_____. Green Eggs and Ham.

_____. Horton Hatches the Egg.

_____. Thidwick the Big-Hearted Moose.

Sharmat, Marjorie Weinman. A Hot Thirsty Day.

_____. Gladys Told Me to Meet Her Here.

Shaw, Richard. Tree For Rent.

Shecter, Ben. The Hiding Game.

Shorthall, Leonard. Steven's First Pony Ride.

Showers, Paul. A Book of Scary Things.

Simon, Sidney. Henry, the Uncatchable Mouse.

Simpson, Phyllis. Michael the Magnificent.

Singer, Isaac. A Tale of Three Wishes.

Skaar, Grace. The Very Little Dog.

Skorpen, Liesel Moak. Bird.

_____. Michael.

_____. Old Arthur.

Slobodkin, Louis. Magic Michael.

_____. Thank You — You're Welcome.

Slobodkin, Florence and Louis. Too Many Mittens.

Smaridge, Norah. Litterbugs Come in-Every Size.

Standon, Anna and Edward. A Flower for Ambrose.

Steig, William. The Amazing Bone.

_____. Sylvester and the Magic Pebble.

Steiner, Charlotte. 10 in a Family.

Stevenson, James. Monty.

Stren, Patti. Hug Me.

Sylvester, Natalie G. Summer on Cleo's Island.

Thayer, Jane. Gus Was a Friendly Ghost.

_____. I'm Not a Cat Said Emerald.

_____. The Puppy Who Wanted a Boy.

Tolstoy, Alexei. The Great Big Enormous Turnip.

Tresselt, Alvin. Autumn Harvest.

_____. The Beaver Pond.

_____. The Frog in the Well.

_____. Hide and Seek Fog.

_____. Johnny Maple-Leaf.

_____. Rain Drop Splash.

_____. Sun Up.

_____. Under the Trees and Through the Grass.

_____. What Did You Leave Behind?

_____. The World in the Candy Egg.

Trèz, Denise and Alain. The Royal Hiccups.

Trimby, Elisa. Mr. Plum's Paradise.

Tuder, Tasha. 1 Is One.

Turkle, Brinton. The Adventures of Obadiah.

_____. Thy Friend, Obadiah.

Udry, Janice May. A Tree Is Nice.

_____. Alfred.

_____. The Moon Jumpers.

_____. Oh No, Cat!

_____. What Mary Jo Shared.

_____. What Mary Jo Wanted.

Utz, Lois. The Houndstooth Check.

Van Horn, William. Harry Hoyle's Giant Jumping Bean.

Van Woerkom, Dorothy. The Queen Who Couldn't Bake Gingerbread.

_____. Tit for Tat.

Viorst, Judith. Alexander and the Terrible, Horrible, No Good, Very Bad Day.

Waber, Bernard. But Names Will Never Hurt Me.

_____. Ira Sleeps Over.

_____. Lyle Finds His Mother.

_____. Rich Cat, Poor Cat.

Wagner, Jenny. John Brown, Rose and the Midnight Cat.

Wahl, Jan. Carrot Nose.

_____. Doctor Rabbit's Foundling.

_____. The Five in the Forest.

_____. Follow Me Cried Bee.

Ward, Lynd. The Biggest Bear.

Wasserman, Selma and Jack. Moonbeam and the Rocket Ride.

Watari, Mutsuko. The Little Old Lady in the Strawberry Patch.

Waterton, Betty. A Salmon for Simon.

Watson, Clyde. Father Fox's Pennyrhymes.

Watts, Bernadette. David's Waiting Day.

Watts, Majorie-Ann. Crocodile Medicine.

Weil, Lisl. Walt and Pepper.

Weisgard, Leonard. Whose Little Bird Am I?

Welber, Robert. Frog, Frog, Frog.

Wellington, Anne. Apple Pie.

Wells, Rosemary. Noisy Nora.

Wheeler, D.G. The Shoemaker and the Elves.

Whitney, Alma Marshak. Leave Herbert Alone.

Wiese, Kurt. Fish in the Air.

_____. The Five Chinese Brothers.

Wilde, Oscar. The Happy Prince.

Wildsmith, Brian. Hunter and His Dog.

_____. The Lazy Bear.

_____. The Little Wood Duck.

_____. Mother Goose.

_____. The Owl and the Woodpecker.

Wilkins, M.G. I Am a Duck.

Will and Nicolas. Finders Keepers.

Willard, Nancy. Simple Pictures are Best.

Williams, Barbara. Albert's Toothache.

_____. Someday Said Mitchell.

Williams, Ferrelith Eccles. Dame Wiggi[illegible] Lee.

Williams, Gweneira. Timid Timothy th[illegible] Who Learned to Be Brave.

Williams, Margery. The Velveteen Rab[illegible].

Williamson, Jane. The Trouble With Alaric.

Winn, Marie. The Fisherman Who Needed a Knife.

Winthrop, Elizabeth. Are You Sad Mama?

Wiseman, Bernard. Iglook's Seal.

_____. Morris Has a Cold.

Wittman, Sally. A Special Trade.

Wood, Joyce. Grandmother Lucy and Her Hats.

Woodcock, Louise. The Smart Little Kitty.

Yashima, Taro. Crow Boy.

_____. Umbrella.

Yeoman, John and Blake, Quentin. The Bear's Water Picnic.

Ylla. Two Little Bears.

Young, Miriam. Can't You Pretend?

Zakhoder, Boris. The Crocodiles Toothbrush.

Zalben, Jane Breskin. Norton's Nighttime.

Zemach, Harve. Nail Soup.

Zemach, Margot (Illustrator). The Speckled Hen.

_____. The Three Sillies.

Zimelman, Nathan. Walls Are to be Walked.

Zion, Gene. Harry by the Sea.

_____. Harry the Dirty Dog.

_____. Harry and the Lady Next Door.

_____. No Roses for Harry.

_____. The Plant Sitter.

Zolotow, Charlotte. All That Sunshine.

_____. Big Sister and Little Sister.

_____. The Hating Book.

_____. Hold My Hand.

Zolotow, Charlotte. *It's Not Fair.*

_____. *May I Visit.*

_____. *My Friend John.*

_____. *My Grandson Lew.*

_____. *The New Friend.*

_____. *The Quarreling Book.*

_____. *The Sky Was Blue.*

_____. *Someone New.*

_____. *The Storm Book.*

_____. *The Unfriendly Book.*

_____. *When the Wind Stops.*

_____. *The White Marble.*

_____. *William's Doll.*

Zuromskis, Diane (Illustrator). *The Farmer in the Dell.*

Zweifel, Frances. *Bony.*

APPENDIX D

INVENTORY OF READING ATTITUDE

Name: _____

DIRECTIONS: The teacher reads the questions to the student. The student circles his answer.

1. Do you like to read before you go to bed?	Yes	No
2. Are you interested in what other people read?	Yes	No
3. Do you like to read when mother and father are reading?	Yes	No
4. Is reading your favorite subject at school?	Yes	No
5. If you could do anything you wanted to do, would reading be one of the things you would choose to do?	Yes	No
6. Do you think that you are a good reader for your age?	Yes	No
7. Do you like to read catalogues?	Yes	No
8. Do you think that most things are more fun than reading?	Yes	No
9. Do you like to read aloud for other children at school?	Yes	No
10. Do you like to tell stories?	Yes	No
11. Do you like to read the newspaper?	Yes	No
12. Do you like to read all kinds of books at school?	Yes	No
13. Do you like to answer questions about things you have read?	Yes	No
14. Do you like to talk about books you have read?	Yes	No
15. Does reading make you feel good?	Yes	No
16. Do you feel that reading time is the best part of the school day?	Yes	No

17. Do you find it hard to write about what you have read? Yes No

18. Would you like to have more books to read? Yes No

19. Do you like to act out stories that you have read in books? Yes No

20. Do you like to take reading tests? Yes No

April 14, 1980

Dear Parents,

For the next eight weeks the grade one pupils at Eugene Vaters Academy will participate in a special literature program. This program is designed to determine the effect of story reading by adults on pupils' vocabulary development and reading comprehension. For one period each day the students will hear selected stories and poetry and share in related activities.

We would like to involve the parents in the program by asking you to read aloud the book which your child will bring home each evening. Even fifteen minutes (the approximate time to read a book) may seem taxing if you already have a busy schedule, but research indicates that children who hear parents and teachers read stories regularly are higher achievers in reading.

We feel sure you will be happy to co-operate in this endeavor.

Sincerely,

Classroom Teacher

Program Co-ordinator

June 5, 1980

Dear Mr. and Mrs. _____,

During the past eight weeks _____ has brought home the books listed below. Would you please put an X in front of the ones which you read aloud to your child and return this form to the school. Thank you.

APPENDIX E

CONTROL GROUP

INDIVIDUAL PRETEST AND POSTTEST SCORES
ON GATES-MACGINITIE READING TESTS
(COMPREHENSION)

Pretest	Posttest	Pretest	Posttest
15	11	30	30
18	29	10	13
15	18	9	13
19	23	16	15
12	22	20	20
12	12	15	16
18	16	18	17
13	22	10	16
34	31	17	15
31	33	10	11
24	20	7	11
30	32	23	31
15	24	18	19
15	20	8	15
14	16	15	15
19	25	13	20
11	17	7	13
19	31	9	18
18	32	11	12
10	17	5	11
32	33		

EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

INDIVIDUAL PRETEST AND POSTTEST SCORES
ON GATES-MACGINITIE READING TESTS
(COMPREHENSION)

PRETEST	POSTTEST	PRETEST	POSTTEST
22	26	13	19
20	23	18	24
21	25	24	25
30	32	16	16
12	26	17	26
19	25	17	16
17	23	9	13
8	17	16	21
31	32	14	16
25	31	8	15
24	30	14	20
23	29	13	20
15	27	9	7
24	25	7	9
22	28	16	23
28	33	3	5
28	29		

CONTROL GROUP

INDIVIDUAL PRETEST AND POSTTEST SCORES
ON GATES-MACGINITIE READING TESTS
(VOCABULARY)

PRETEST	POSTTEST	PRETEST	POSTTEST
29	35	48	44
30	44	24	32
32	40	8	17
31	32	14	23
31	37	22	37
27	27	27	28
30	34	25	32
25	32	16	28
32	47	24	30
43	47	18	19
33	35	20	22
45	47	47	46
37	40	31	32
32	38	22	32
23	33	22	25
42	43	20	32
33	36	18	24
41	42	12	25
44	46	14	22
21	30	9	21
48	48		

EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

INDIVIDUAL PRETEST AND POSTTEST SCORES ON GATES-MACGINITIE READING TESTS (VOCABULARY)

PRETEST	POSTTEST	PRETEST	POSTTEST
34	43	23	19
32	44	34	43
38	43	35	39
32	46	34	40
44	44	36	46
34	39	23	31
30	40	22	34
32	33	32	41
43	47	26	40
42	43	22	26
48	47	36	41
40	46	26	42
39	46	16	22
33	44	18	19
45	45	36	45
48	48	7	24
39	45		