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A Study Guide for Eigth Grade Developmental Reading Based on Cooper and Petrosky's Strategies

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A STUDY GUIDE FOR EIGHTH GRADE DEVELOPMENTAL READING BASED ON COOPER AND PETROSKY'S STRATEGIES

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by

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A study guide, to increase students' ability to use study skills, to read expository and narrative material with greater fluency, and to maintain positive attitudes towards reading, was developed using Cooper and Petrosky's (1976) "A Psycholinguistic View of the Fluent Reading Process." Sequential lessons were designed from available printed materials. A pre/posttest attitude scale, study habits survey, and standardized reading achievement tests were administered. Modified miscue analysis provided diagnostic information.

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Chapter 1

BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Cooper and Petrosky presented "A Psycholinguistic View of the Fluent Reading Process" in the December, 1976, Journal of Reading. The article described a psycholinguistic model of the reading process, listed strategies developed from the model, and outlined a one-semester reading course. It was from this article that the study guide for eighth grade developmental reading was designed.

Psycholinguistics is a science, an investigative research methodology, that has been applied to reading to try to explain what the reading process is. Psycholinguistics combines the science of cognitive psychology and the science of linguistics. Cognitive psychology shows the patterns of human mental abilities and limitations--the workings of the human brain. Linguistics is the science of language structure (Cooper and Petrosky, 1976:185-191). Chomsky (1957) classified language in two major levels, surface structure and deep structure. "Fluent readers need only a minimum of clues from the surface structure to arrive at the deep structure. . ."(Cooper and Petrosky, 1976:187).

A fluent reader decodes words quickly and without thinking about identification of letters, words, or phrases as attention is focused on meaning or deep structure (Cooper and Petrosky, 1976:186). Huey, in his 1908 book, The

Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading, said, "meaning, indeed, dominates and unitizes the perception of words and phrases" (Cooper and Petrosky, 1976:186). Smith (1971) wrote, "that the ability to put letters together to form words has very little to do with the actual process of reading, (as opposed to learning to read) and that even the ability to identify words loses its importance when one reads for meaning." (Cooper and Petrosky, 1976:186). ". . . the goal of fluent reading is the identification of meaning." (Cooper and Petrosky, 1976:187).

The following reading strategies were presented by Cooper and Petrosky (1976:191-196) to explain what a skilled, fluent reader does while processing print:

1. The reader discovers the distinctive features in letters, words and meaning.

2. The reader takes chances--risks errors--in order to learn about printed text and to predict meaning.

3. The reader reads to identify meaning rather than to identify letters or words.

4. The reader guesses from context at unfamiliar words, or else just skips them.

5. The reader takes an active role, bringing to bear his or her knowledge of the world and of the particular topic in the text.

6. The reader reads as though he or she expects the text to make sense.

7. The reader makes use of redundancies--orthographic, syntactic, and semantic--to reduce uncertainty about meaning.

8. The reader maintains enough speed to overcome the limitations of the visual processing and memory systems.

9. The reader shifts approaches for special materials.

10. The reader shifts approaches depending on the purpose.

A "reading strategies course based on the current psycholinguistic-information processing model of the fluent reading process" was outlined by Cooper and Petrosky (1976: 201-206) and included the following four activities: (1) carefully supervised sustained silent reading, (2) teaching the efficient use of content area texts, (3) lessons in syntactic redundancy, and (4) speeded reading practice. In addition, the authors suggested pre and post-testing to give information for placement and growth measurement. Miscue analysis was suggested for diagnosis.

Secondary students need help in developing reading skills so they may become fluent readers and are able to manage school reading and study assignments. A responsibility of teachers is to offer instruction that helps students develop strategies to gain meaning from printed material. Another responsibility of teachers is to help students maintain a positive attitude toward reading. Thus, the focus of this study was to design a one-semester course using Cooper and Petrosky's (1976) strategies to increase eighth grade students' ability to use study skills, to read expository and narrative material with greater fluency and to maintain positive attitudes towards reading.

Purpose

The reading strategies presented by Cooper and Petrosky (1976:184-5) pointed, the authors said, towards more focused, efficient reading abilities in all content areas. None of Cooper and Petrosky's (1976:205) recommended activities were new but the authors stated, "the model of the reading process . . . relates them to each other in a compelling new way." Therefore, using Cooper and Petrosky's Model, this project was developed because previous student attitude surveys and teacher observations of student behaviors had indicated a lack of enthusiasm about the alternate reading program. Alexander and Filer (1976) said, "It appears that certain instructional practices and special programs can . . . lead to improved attitudes." Research supported the recommendations of Cooper and Petrosky (1976) and became a determining factor in the decision to develop a reading program that would help students become fluent readers and maintain positive attitudes towards reading.

Definition of Terms

For the purpose of this paper the following terms are defined:

Attitude. A system of feelings related to reading which causes the learner to approach or avoid a reading situation (Alexander, 1976:1).

Cloze Teaching Procedure. A method of deleting selected words from a sentence, passage, or story and using it for specific instructional purposes.

Cloze Testing Procedure. A method of systematically deleting every fifth word from a selection and then evaluating the success a reader has in accurately supplying the deleted words based on his understanding of the remaining context.

Content Area Reading. Content area reading is the process of reading in the subject fields.

Modified Miscue Analysis. Changing formal miscue analysis procedures so the emphasis of analysis is on the quality of selected miscues rather than the total number of miscues.

Psycholinguistic Model of the Reading Process. A model based on psycholinguistic-information processing in which the final outcome of the process for the reader is identification of meaning.

Redundancy. "Use of prior knowledge, which reduces the alternative number of possibilities that a letter or word can be, is termed redundancy." (Smith, 1971:7).

Speeded Reading. A strategy for adjusting reading rate according to one's purpose for reading and the material to be read.

SQ3R. A study technique using content material to survey, question, read, review and recite information necessary to learning and remembering.

SSR. Sustained silent reading of a book without interruption for a predetermined period of time.

Test-Wiseness. "The ability to use characteristics of tests and test-taking situations to reach the full potential

of one's knowledge and aptitudes." (Millman and Pauk, 1969: xiii).

Vocabulary Development. "The ability of the child to sort out his experiences and concepts in relation to words and phrases in the context of what he is reading." (Goodman, 1970 from Herber, 1978:133).

Chapter 2

REVIEW OF SELECTED LITERATURE

The review of selected literature is introduced with a discussion of the fluent reader, use of cueing systems and memory storage in the psycholinguistic model. The main thrust is an over-view of the four major activities in Cooper and Petrosky's (1976) program: sustained silent reading, content area reading, redundancy, and speeded reading, including components of these four areas. Miscue analysis and informal miscue analysis, used as a diagnostic tool, are discussed as well as cloze testing procedure and findings concerning students' attitudes toward reading.

Psycholinguistic Model of the Reading Process

Cooper and Petrosky (1976) presented a reading strategies course built upon a psycholinguistic model of the fluent reading process. Goodman (1968, 1976a), Goodman and Fleming (1969), Ryan and Semmel (1969), and Gibson and Levin (1975) submit that reading is seen as a response to language. Goodman (1976b:4) stated, "Reading is a psycholinguistic process because it uses language, in written form, to get the meaning."

The three cueing systems which work together in the fluent reading process are: (1) grapho-phonic, (2) syntactic, and (3) semantic (Cooper and Petrosky, 1976; Pearson, 1976; Kavale and Schreiner, 1978; and Schafer, 1978). The

initial incoming information, or surface structure, is the visual configuration on the page. The link between the surface structure and the deep structure, or meaning, is syntax. "Syntactic information refers to the ordering relationships among words in sentences." (Pearson, 1976:309). In the psycholinguistic model, the reader continually searches for semantic information or meaning through knowledge and past experiences already stored in the brain. Cooper and Petrosky (1976:187) stated, "Fluent readers need only a minimum of clues from the surface structure to arrive at the deep structure . . . because they have more information about language and content stored in their brains." Three stages of memory (Albert, 1966): (1) acquisition, or short-term, (2) consolidation, or memory storage, and (3) long-term memory, or permanent storage, are essential in the psycholinguistic reading process (Robeck and Wilson, 1974:85).

To become a fluent reader said Cooper and Petrosky (1976:191), "one has to read, make mistakes, and test hypotheses." Smith (1973:195) wrote:

> Learning to read is a complex and delicate task in which almost all the rules, and all the cues, and all the feedback can be obtained only through the process of reading itself. Children learn to read only by reading. Therefore, the only way to facilitate their learning to read is to make reading easy for them. This means continuously making critical and insightful decisions--not forcing a child to read for words when he is, or should be reading for meaning; not forcing him to slow down when he should speed up; not requiring caution when he should be taking chances; not worrying about speech when the topic is reading; not discouraging errors.

Sustained Silent Reading

Sustained silent reading (McCracken, 1971), the first major part of Cooper and Petrosky's reading strategies course, is used to increase students' awareness about redundancy. Horning (1979:315) said redundancy, which is largely unconscious, is crucial to proficient reading.

Lyman C. Hunt, in the early 1960's, introduced USSR, an acronym for uninterrupted, sustained, silent reading (Efta, 1978:12). McCracken (1971:521) dropped the U as he thought it commanded too much attention and used just SSR. McCracken (1971:521) said the following rules for SSR must be strictly adhered to initially:

1. Each student must read silently.
2. The teacher reads.
3. Each student selects a single book.
4. A timer is used.
5. There are absolutely no reports or records of any kind.
6. Begin with whole classes . . . heterogeneously grouped.

When the basic procedure is well established, post reading time may be used for making journal entries, sharing about books, passages or vocabulary (McCracken, 1971:524; Hunt, 1970:150; Taylor and Waynant, 1978b:7).

Teachers are often more occupied with counting and correcting errors, assuming all are equally bad, said Hunt (1970:147-150), instead of concentrating on the positive aspect of reading for meaning. An extended SSR activity

described by Watson (1978:75-85), called RSM, used reader selected miscues to get more from sustained silent reading. The term miscue made both the reader and teacher withhold judgment about the cause until the miscue was analyzed after the reading was completed. Bookmarks were inserted at troublespots and reading continued. The next step in the procedure was student examination of the marked miscues. The three that caused the most trouble in terms of meaning loss and disrupted language flow were selected. At this point students were qualifying their miscues not quantifying them. These miscues were turned in to the teacher. Discussions with students having similar problems followed.

Important attitudes about reading and about themselves developed as a result of this activity. The reader, not the teacher, was in the driver's seat; the reader realized everyone makes miscues; the reader had freedom to select or reject materials; the reader became actively involved in the meaning-seeking process so important to fluent reading.

Content Area Reading

Herber (1978:4), in discussing content area reading, said that information presented, concepts developed, and the organization of the material . . . will determine how one should read the text. Cooper and Petrosky (1976:200) recognized that ideally content area reading should take place in all content-area classes. Unfortunately, "Nearly all content-area teachers continue to decline to accept the responsibility for teaching their students the reading and

study skills they need to learn efficiently from print materials and to remember what they learn." According to Cooper and Petrosky there are distinct advantages in a separate, required reading course taught by those who understand the reading process so students can "acquire strategies for managing school reading and study assignments."

The second major activity of Cooper and Petrosky's reading strategies course (1976:202) would carefully examine students' content area textbooks to learn "how they are written and organized, how one can learn from them efficiently and organize the information for recall on tests." The three specific learning activities which were suggested are: (1) a study skill technique, (2) notetaking, and (3) vocabulary problems within the context of reading in different areas.

SQ3R, A Study Skill Technique. Many reading specialists (Shepherd, 1973: Burmeister, 1974; Harris and Sipay, 1975) have recommended teaching SQ3R, developed by Robinson (1961). "SQ3R is based on an information processing theory of learning (Neisser, 1967; Hunt, 1971; and Newell and Simon, 1972). This view suggests that humans inherently strive to 'make sense' out of their world--to reduce their uncertainty concerning the nature of the world." (Tadlock, 1978:111). To do this, information is taken in through the sensory systems; the input is integrated and organized via short-term memory; information is permanently stored for long-term memory and recall (Robeck and Wilson, 1974).

Shepherd (1973) has said that students do not use SQ3R because they do not see the efficiency of it. Tadlock (1978:110-112) said these reading specialists have explained the process of SQ3R but none have attempted to explain why it worked. If students knew why it worked, Tadlock (1978) said they would be more apt to believe it will work; and would be more apt to use SQ3R. In addition, students would have the information required to adapt the procedure to individual needs. Tadlock (1978:111-112) used the information processing theory to explain why SQ3R worked.

1. Survey: Surveying the text prepares the processing system for what is to come. If the memory processing system knows what is to come, it can deal with the input in a more efficient manner.

2. Question: The questioning component of SQ3R requires reader generated questions which are more valuable in guiding the reading process than are teacher generated ones.

3. Read: Reading is the main part of SQ3R. The human information processing system does not allow the reader to attend to all incoming information but instead relies on feedback as a guide in selecting what to attend to from that information.

4. Recite: This is the most time consuming part of SQ3R and if this part is skipped over, the system will not work. Knowing that recitation is essential, the reader will place maximum concentration on the most relevant information. When the recitation takes place, the input of information

is slowed giving the time needed to transfer that information from short-term to long-term memory.

5. Review: Memory research indicates that most forgetting takes place shortly after the learning task has been completed (Travers, 1977). Since immediate review interfers with the forgetting process, the review part is essential to the success of SQ3R.

Notetaking. Students in junior high school are often given reading assignments in content-area subjects. Teachers usually assume that students are able to read the assignment, identify and remember main ideas, and to recall or locate ideas on request. Dunkeld (1978) said these are the same skills required for notetaking; yet in content reading texts, notetaking is seldom suggested as an indicator of whether students have acquired the skills of extracting information from written assignments, or as a method of helping students learn them. An action research study, reported by Dunkeld (1978) was done for the following purposes:

1. Could students, in grades six through eight, write accurate, understandable, organized notes from short content area assignments?

2. Would the experimental activities help students improve their notetaking skills?

3. Would the activities and collection of data have any effect on teachers' expectations and classroom practices?

The general opinion of teachers after the experimental activities was that notetaking is a difficult skill either too advanced for this age student, or it required more time, more teaching or more sustained effort than was possible during this study. In addition, expectations concerning students' abilities to summarize reading assignments in an organized and comprehensive way were very unreasonable.

Palmatier (1971) compared four notetaking procedures in respect to completeness, clarity, conciseness, ease and amount of learning in an experiment involving high school juniors. The four procedures were the formal outline, two column, Cornell University three column, and no special method. Although the studies were inconclusive because not enough time was devoted to the training period, the two column procedure appeared to be best for ease of learning. Cornell University now uses the two column procedure and Pauk (1974), in his text How to Study, also advocates this method (Aaronson, 1978).

Palmeiter (1973:36-39) described "The Notetaking System for Learning (NSL)" which is an adaptation of the Bartusch Active Method for Notetaking as presented by Frank P. Greene (Palmatier, 1973) in an unpublished mimeograph at Syracuse University. The system is:

1. One side of an 8-1/2 inch by 11 inch notebook paper is used.

2. A margin line 3 inches from the left side is required and may be added.

3. During the reading and/or lecture, meaningful facts and ideas are recorded to the right of the margin.

4. Rather than study notes after notetaking, the student labels or summarizes the ideas and facts in the left hand column.

Palmatier (1973) said that in addition to preparing notes into a system for learning, the student has a complete review of the material recorded during the label-making process and a synthesis of information has been achieved in the process of putting together reading and lecture notes. "NSL users are learners able to process, learn, and apply any material in or beyond school." (Palmatier, 1973:39).

A similar notetaking procedure was recommended as an instructional technique in the Washington State Small Schools Reading in the Content Area Curriculum, Grades 9-12 (Nelson, 1979). The 5 R Notetaking Method uses the following procedures:

1. Record: During the lecture/reading, record meaningful facts and ideas.

2. Reduce: As soon as possible, summarize the ideas and facts in the 2-inch column.

3. Recite: Students cover the notes in the left margin to help in recall and uncover them for verification of what was said.

4. Reflect: A 2-inch space left at the bottom of the page is used to record thoughts about the material being studied.

5. Review: Step three should be repeated every week or so for the greatest retention and ability to use knowledge to the greatest effect.

Test-Wiseness. The best way to prepare for tests is to take useful notes, study efficiently, have good memory habits, learn from the notes, and review periodically (Millman and Pauk, 1969; Cuomo, 1978). "The sophisticated test taker knows that being prepared for a test is the first step toward good test-taking techniques." (Millman and Pauk, 1969:1).

There are many kinds of tests but the major consideration will be focused on achievement tests. Achievement tests, both teacher made and standardized, are designed to test how much a student has learned. Some of the same principles of test taking are found in all tests and are used by students who possess test-wiseness and want to do well on tests. A test-wise student can be expected to obtain a higher score than an equally competent student who lacks test-taking skills.

Woodley (1972) considered test-wiseness to be a cognitive factor, which is measurable and subject to change either through specific test experience or training in a test-taking strategy. Rather than viewing test-wiseness as insignificant or undesirable, a growing number of investigations suggest that people should be given training in how to take tests (Ford, 1973:5).

Millman and Pauk (1969:vii-xv) listed intellectual, emotional and physical preparation, using time wisely, reading directions and questions carefully, and using good reasoning techniques as important general principles of test taking to practice. Students need to use the principles in practicing test-taking techniques until they come naturally.

Vocabulary. "It is an accepted fact that there is a high positive relationship between vocabulary and reading comprehension. Dale and Razik (1963) reviewed 134 studies and found high positive correlation of vocabulary with virtually every subject area and every measure of cognitive ability and proficiency." (Cunningham, 1976:112).

Herber (1978:170) said, "The language of a subject is its technical vocabulary. Until a student has facility with that language, he cannot communicate ideas essential to the subject." The following suggestions were made by Herber (1978:131):

1. Teachers provide students with access to many words by carefully teaching just a few.

2. Students make better use of what they already know about concepts.

3. Students become more actively involved in defining meanings for the technical vocabulary.

Patburg (1979:332-335) wrote about two methods of pre-teaching vocabulary. Texts on how to teach reading in content areas (Burmeister, 1978; Robinson, 1975; Thomas and Robinson, 1977) suggested that teachers survey the assignment,

note possible difficult vocabulary, preteach these words in a short direct technique that makes reading easier and more understandable. Students will independently use the vocabulary skills in the preteaching technique. The second method was one suggested by Herber (1978) said Patburg. This method also saw the teacher surveying the reading assignment, noting possible difficult words, and preteaching the words using a strategy that both taught the meanings of particular words and helped the students learn vocabulary development skills necessary for independent reading. Patberg (1979) stated Herber's (1978) approach relied heavily on the consistency of teacher use and demanded time and organization.

Familiar words are used to develop the contexts for new words so students can absorb them. Graphic organizers are a useful means for combining familiar words and new words. The purpose of graphic organizers is to help students evolve a sense of the structure of concepts studied and serve as a means for teaching new words. When used before reading a passage, graphic organizers are called structured overviews, a term invented by Barron and Earle (1969, from Herber, 1978:147).

Pachtman and Riley (1978:240-244) used the structured overview and small group discussion to assist students in understanding vocabulary peculiar to reading mathematical word problems. This gave students an opportunity to discuss

and think about concepts represented by the vocabulary and to see relationships among concepts.

Herber (1978:132) said that the majority of students reading specialized content area vocabulary experience problems with meaning rather than pronunciation. This clearly establishes content area teachers' priorities in vocabulary development: "primary emphasis on definitions and meaning; secondary emphasis on pronunciation."

Redundancy

Cooper and Petrosky (1976:203) suggested, as a third major activity in their reading strategies course, sentence-manipulating games (Hurwitz and Goddard, 1969) and activities (Doughty, 1976) and cloze passages designed especially for teaching about redundancy. Special concern was expressed that the games really taught syntactic fluency as it was their belief most games teach nothing.

Fox (1976:670) said:

> In essense, surrounding children with a wealth of oral language, meaningful for them both to hear and use, seems to be a simple but significant step in the process that will culminate in an introduction and mastery of another language form: the written word.

Combs (1977:18) said the problem with statements like Fox's is they usually come at the end of an article and leave the teacher with an idea but a way to implement it is left to them. Smith (1979a:25-28) has designed a means of implementing Fox's statement. The author stated, "One such technique entitled 'read a book in an hour' (Smith, 1978b)

not only motivates reading, but also lends itself to a variety of teaching techniques." One of the techniques suggested was a one week sentence-combining unit. Students used commercially prepared sentence-combining materials (Strong, 1973; O'Hare, 1975) for two days of instruction. On the third day, the "read a book in an hour" technique was used. Sentence-combining lessons used material from the book just read for the last two days of instruction.

Sentence-combining practice could prove to be difficult or boring if not related to students' interests and experience (Smith, 1979a:27). "Sentence-combining and 'read a book in an hour' are high interest activities that allow students to use concrete points of reference as they manipulate syntax and patterns of idea organization found within an adolescent novel." (Smith, 1979a:28). Research indicates (Coleman, 1964), "that syntactic difficulty in reading passages affects students' comprehension of those passages. Thus, it seems logical that as students' ability to handle more difficult syntax increases, they will score higher on comprehension tests of more difficult passages." (Combs, 1977:20).

Callaghan (1978) and Sullivan (1978) found that sentence-combining practice enhanced the maturity of seventh and ninth graders. Although non-significant gains were made in reading in these studies, attitude toward sentence-combining practice was more positive after instruction than before. Callaghan (1978) and Sullivan (1978) also found that students

who had fifteen or twenty sessions made as great or greater gains than those who had thirty lessons.

Cloze Teaching Procedure

"The term cloze from the word 'clozure' explains the tendency of a thinking individual to anticipate the completion of a not quite finished pattern. Clozure, as an idea, is a term used by Gestalt psychologists. Clozure is the ability of the reader, or listener to decide from the anticipated context that remains, what word or concept is needed immediately." (Zintz, 1974:48).

The simultaneous use of the three cueing systems, (1) grapho-phonic, (2) syntactic, and (3) semantic, has been identified as the most efficient processing strategy available to readers (Goodman, 1972:154). To successfully complete an instructional cloze task, a student must continually attend to meaning and use the mental processes necessary in comprehending. "Since two critical aspects of information processing--feedback then feedforward--are in constant use by the reader, the CLOZE tasks promote active processing of meaning cues." (Thomas, 1978:3).

A cloze teaching procedure deletes specific instructional selected words from a sentence, a passage or story in a random pattern. A lexical deletion pattern uses nouns, or meaning bearing words such as adjectives, adverbs and verbs. A structure deletion pattern uses prepositions, conjunctions and noun determiners. There are times when a letter deletion

or a phrase deletion pattern can be used to deal with specific problems (Taylor, 1978a:2).

Jongsma (1971:6-18) reviewed nine studies pertaining to the use of cloze exercises as a teaching technique. The major fault of seven out of the nine studies, according to Jongsma, was that they relied on the cloze process itself rather than the cloze procedure as a teaching method.

Bortnick and Lopardo (1973:296-300) believe the cloze procedure is a useful one for the classroom teacher despite the limitations seen by Jongsma (1971). A major cloze instructional advantage is that passages draw "on the language itself and so-called skills are not taught in isolated language structures. The student is constantly exposed to the experience of handling the context of the reading material as well as the structural aspects of the language." (Bortnick and Lopardo, 1973:296).

Grant (1979:699-705) summarized the research of Cranney (1967); Rankin and Overholser (1969); Kennedy (1973); Schell (1972) as well as Bortnick and Lopardo (1973) and listed their general suggestions concerning the cloze procedure as an instructional device. They are:

1. Initially, at or below the students' independent reading level, delete nouns and verbs with two multiple choice items to choose from in filling the blank. Gradually, (a) give more items to choose from, (b) eliminate all answers so the reader must supply words, (c) and/or delete words in other grammatical categories.

2. Instruct students to read silently the entire cloze passage before attempting to fill in the cloze blanks to utilize redundant information and contextual cues.

3. Discussion, of how to use context to decide if a word makes sense, of how a students' oral language is helpful, and of how to eliminate a group of possible options, is a must.

4. The exact word should not be demanded. Synonyms are acceptable. Schell (1972) suggests a score of 95 percent correct is acceptable.

5. Selections should be self-checking for immediate reinforcement and feedback as well as for easy recording on progress charts.

6. The cloze passage should then be compared with the original unmutilated passage.

7. The instruction should be systematic, long term, and organized.

Bortnick and Lopardo (1973:299) recognized how time consuming preparation of cloze passages can be for the teacher but pointed out again the value of using materials particular to a student's needs. Grant (1979) said the teacher's time will be well spent "if Kennedy (1973:86) is correct in her assumption that training with the cloze procedure helps 'focus the child's attention on the conceptual aspect of reading rather than the perceptual aspect'."

Thomas (1978:1-12) explored a variety of ways to use cloze as a teaching technique during reading instruction.

Thomas said the validity of the activities was established through informal observations, evaluations, and reporting by classroom teachers and reading clinicians working under his guidance rather than through carefully controlled experimental study. Some possible activities are:

1. General Context Clues which provided global rather than specific comprehension.

2. Context/Content Clues used carefully selected lexical deletion with sufficient contextual support for in-depth understanding for ideas presented.

3. Process Strategies/Combined Cues designed for applying phonic and structural clues in combination with semantic and syntactic information.

4. Specific Phonic Elements forced the learner to use meaning cues in addition to phonic skills in order to "supply the appropriate graphemic stems."

5. Specific Morphemic Elements must be used in functional contexts if meaningful learning is to take place.

6. Relationships: Function Words provided facility in "perceiving interrelationships among ideas within and between sentences . . . basic to reading comprehension."

7. Relationships: Pronouns and Pronoun Referents maintained a clear understanding of text to reduce ambiguity and confusion.

8. Relationships: Organizational Patterns helped readers comprehend the relationships among ideas developed by an author through deletion of "key words or phrases which

cue the specific type of paragraph organization used by the writer." (Vacca, 1973). The organizational patterns suggested were:

a. Simple Listing uses such words as: to begin with, first, secondly, next, then, finally.

b. Time Order uses: on (date), not long after, now, as, before, after, and when.

c. Comparison/Contrast is often cued by such words as: however, but, as well as, yet, different from, on the other hand, either . . . or, while, although, unlike, unless.

d. Cause/Effect words and phrases cues are: because, therefore, consequently, as a result of, so that, if . . . then, since.

Thomas (1978:12) said the most critical step in teaching cloze exercises is what happens after students fill in the missing elements. This important phase should include: "sharing of choices, discussion of alternatives and possible variations, and explanations of why each specific word or word element was selected." Such discussion, although often difficult and tiresome, gives students insights into how they are processing written language.

Speeded Reading

The fourth major activity, in Cooper and Petrosky's reading strategies course (1976:204), was an informal speeded reading program. This part of the course was suggested with reservations because it is so easy for students

to misunderstand about speed of reading. The authors felt students could be helped to read as comfortably as possible. The crucial strategy would be knowing when to slow down or speed up. The only program the authors recommended was one by Cuomo (1960:15-20).

From a review of selected literature, (Laycock, 1962; McDonald, 1963; Witty, 1969; Smith, 1975; and Miller, 1978) it was generally agreed that flexibility--the ability to adjust reading rate according to one's purpose for reading is one of the most important characteristics of an efficient or skilled reader. Miller (1978:81) reported that reading rate varies depending upon three factors: the reader, the text, and the interacting between the reader and the text. Valid instruments for assessing reading rate should include both a reader purpose factor and a textual factor to satisfactorily describe or diagnose a reader's rate. Miller further stated it is necessary for a student to know specifically, before reading, what the comprehension purpose is and be able to use strategies to accomplish that purpose in terms of time and level of effectiveness for that reading task. Miller (1978:82) also said, "that a complexity exists in the description and development of reading rate efficiency" and that there is a strong need to work towards revision of current commercial materials with the "present urge to promote higher, as well as basic, levels of literacy."

Miscue Analysis

Miscue analysis was suggested by Cooper and Petrosky (1976) to adequately diagnose reading problems, at least for the slower students. Goodman (1968) first used miscue analysis as a research tool in his goal of describing the reading process. His earliest research attempts showed that oral reading of the text is not as accurate as had been assumed. Use, then, of linguistic insights and scientific views of language were appropriate to describe reading behavior (Goodman, 1976b:15).

From these findings, Goodman developed an analytic taxonomy which considered the relationship between expected response, ER, and the observed response, OR (Goodman, 1976b: 6). When the two differ, the resulting response is labeled a miscue (Rupley, 1977:42). The term miscue is used rather than the term error which has a negative connotation. Not all miscues are bad and good reading does include miscues. The Goodman Taxonomy of Reading Miscues, which is being altered and adapted through research, consists of eighteen questions with each question involving from four to twelve responses. The Taxonomy is used in studying a reader's miscues and, through, ongoing research, to gain valuable insights into the reading process.

Miscue analysis starts with observing oral reading behavior. Oral responses that do not match expected responses are analyzed. In all miscue analysis, procedures are relatively the same (Rupley, 1977:580) and are as follows:

1. A reading selection, somewhat difficult for the student, is chosen. The selection should be easily read at one sitting, generate a minimum of twenty-five miscues but no more than fifty, and have continuity of meaning.

2. The reading material is prepared for taping. The student will read the material from the book. A worksheet, on which lines of the story are retyped exactly as they are in the book, is used by the examiner to mark miscues. Each line on the worksheet is numbered with page and line so miscues can be identified where they occur.

3. The reader is audiotaped and the code sheet is marked. Later the tape is replayed to be sure all miscues are identified. This worksheet becomes the basis for miscue analysis.

4. The student retells the story without interruption. Open-ended questions, to probe areas omitted in the retelling, are asked by the examiner. The student's mispronunciations are retained, in the questioning, by the examiner. A comprehension rating is based on the analysis of retelling.

5. The miscues are coded with the use of the Taxonomy or other analytic procedures.

6. The miscue patterns are studied and specific instructional strengths and weaknesses are identified.

Goodman and Burke (1972:11) made four assumptions about the reading process.

1. All readers bring an oral language system to the reading process.

2. All readers bring the total of past experiences to the reading process.

3. Reading materials represent the language patterns and past experiences of the author.

4. Reading is an active language process which involves constant interaction between the reader and the text.

Goodman (1976b:50) said the significance of prior experience to reading has been given lip-service but not fully understood and so a student had been cycled back through "bits and pieces of language analysis which no doubt were the cause of his 'problem' to begin with." Goodman (1976b: 49) suggested a miscue analysis in-service training program for reading teachers. Included would be the importance of understanding the cueing systems in which the reader makes use of grapho-phonic, syntactic, and semantic systems simultaneously. Burke and Goodman (1970:128) said the developing reading theory with the accompanying Taxonomy of Reading Miscues offers a new framework against which to examine the reading process.

Informal Miscue Analysis

Using a formal miscue analysis is time consuming, hard work. It takes a competently trained teacher at least one half hour per student. Once teachers have done a number of miscue analyses and understand the implications, they will begin to use informal miscue (Goodman, 1976b:58-59).

Page (1976) indicated that miscue analysis can be complicated and subject to extensive analysis before actual

categorization. In his study, fourteen, well trained, experienced reading clinicians marked from one to fourteen miscues on the same one hundred fifteen word audiotaped passage. Page suggested that analysis of oral reading miscues should be approached with doubts about perception, definitions and judgments and that readings must be treated as a search for information rather than the process of making a sound.

Tortelli (1976:37-39) described a simplified approach to miscue analysis which produced needed information quickly. This technique required only a pencil, two copies of a story and a sheet of paper. The student read the story orally; the instructor marked all things not contained in the original text. On the sheet of paper, under four headings: (1) unexpected endings, (2) intended endings, (3) language, and (4) meaning, the instructor listed each unexpected reading followed by the intended reading. A decision was made by the instructor concerning grammatical correctness and meaning of the unexpected response, and a yes, or no was entered in the appropriate column. Tortelli (1977:39) said this technique quickly provided psycholinguistic information which focused on how well the reader applied intuitive knowledge of oral language to the written language of an author.

Hood (1978:260) said miscue analysis may be valuable for the researcher and clinician but is too time-consuming for the classroom teacher. As a practical use of miscue analysis, teacher sensitivity to error quality is suggested.

At the University of Maryland Reading Clinic, a modification of Goodman's and Burke's Reading Miscue Inventory (1972) was used to focus attention on the qualitative aspects of oral reading variations and not used to obtain oral reading levels (D'Angelo and Wilson, 1979:519-520). The study, which examined insertions and omissions, developed from a concern about time spent in the analysis of these miscues. Insertions and omissions which distorted semantics and syntax constituted less than 3 percent of the miscues analyzed in the ninety-four cases examined by D'Angelo and Wilson (1979:520). Substitutions, in this study, accounted for 87 percent of the miscues. The authors suggested if that data was confirmed with other populations, coding and interpretations could be simplified. Time might be used better to focus attention on distortive substitutions which could indicate causes of difficulties with the reading process.

Cloze Test Procedure

Cooper and Petrosky (1976) recommended the use of a cloze test as a reliable and valid measure for readability of materials and for reading performance.

Bormuth (1968:429-436) studied the validity, application and scoring of cloze procedures. Bormuth's studies of the validity of tests made by the cloze procedure seem to justify the following assertions:

1. Cloze readability tests give a valid measure of a student's reading comprehension ability.

2. The cloze readability procedure gives a valid method of measuring the comprehension difficulties of passages.

3. The procedure itself seems to incorporate the most valid and the most economical of possible alternatives for designing a cloze readability procedure.

4. Cloze readability scores can be used to evaluate the suitability of materials.

Bormuth's study (1968), in interpreting results, showed a score of forty-four on a cloze readability test was comparable to a score of seventy-five percent on a conventional comprehension test. Fifty-seven percent of cloze correct answers equals ninety percent on a conventional comprehension test. Bormuth (1968) determined independent levels of instruction to be above fifty-seven percent. Instructional level is forty-four percent to fifty-seven percent. Frustration level is below forty-four percent.

Placing students in graded materials is the most common application of a cloze test. The most critical part of the procedure is the selection of a test passage. Several tests should be made from passages randomly selected from the book being evaluated. The test passages should be two hundred and fifty words in length with fifty deletions. The tests are given to twenty-five to thirty students at the grade level which the text is used. The mean score on each test is calculated. Then the mean of the mean scores is found. The test whose mean score is closest to the mean of the

entire set of tests is selected and the rest of the tests are discarded (Bormuth, 1968:429-436).

A comparison was made by Kirby (1970:68-77) between a cloze test, the Gates Reading Tests, the Gilmore Oral Reading Test, and the Gray Reading Test to determine if results were similar. The Gilmore Oral Reading Test and the cloze test had nearly comparable scores. The study results indicated that the cloze test could be a promising technique for determining instructional reading levels of children by classroom teachers.

McKenna (1976:141-143) completed research on the question of whether to accept synonyms as correct answers on a cloze test. McKenna found verbatim and synonymic cloze scores correlated very high with each other and a standardized multiple choice comprehension test. Very little difference in rank resulted when synonymic scores were compared with verbatim scores. However, when synonyms were selected, the better readers scored slightly higher in relation to poor readers. McKenna concluded that verbatim scoring is as valid as synonymic scoring and far simpler.

Bonds' (1977:360-362) research dealt with dialect differences in determining whether responses on cloze tests are acceptable. Bonds concluded that the exact scoring method may not be appropriate for Black dialect speakers. Teachers should, instead, consider the vocabulary, syntax, and grammar when using cloze tests to determine comprehension and placement in graded materials.

Porter (1976, 151-155) saw a weakness in the cloze procedure test when given to foreign speaking students. The foreign student is expected to produce the language as well as understand the language. A modified cloze procedure was devised by Porter which supplied a set of words for each blank space. Those distractors were supplied along with the deleted word. The modified procedure gave validity to the cloze test as well as ease in scoring.

Cohen (1975:247-250) cautioned teachers to be aware that reading content material posed special problems for students which increased the difficulty of performance on cloze tests. Cohen said the forty-four to fifty-seven percent criteria for instructional level should not be assumed to be valid when applied to cloze tests taken from content area books.

Hittleman (1978:117-121) discussed a variation of the cloze procedure called clozentropy. Instead of comparing a reader's response to the original text, "the readers responses are compared against all responses placed in the blanks by a criterion group." (Lowry and Marr, 1974). Hittleman (1978:120) gave the following cautions to be considered when using the cloze procedure:

1. Tests may contain items for which there are no context clues.

2. Many deleted items are not reading related.

3. Even though the cloze procedure has empirical validity, it lacks face validity.

4. Cloze items may depend too much on short-range language and memory constraints.

5. The "every fifth word" deletion procedure may not be suitable for everyone.

Hittleman (1978) cited a group of researchers (McNich, Kazelskis and Cox, 1974) who were attempting to determine the appropriate deletion rate for different content areas. Preliminary evidence showed that science may need greater space between deletions than English and social studies materials. Pupil performances seemed to be affected when deletion rates within different areas were varied.

The following recommendations were made by Hittleman in discussing the readability of materials:

1. Avoid the use of predictive formulas as they do not give useful information about whether or not materials are readable by a group of students.

2. Use some form of cloze procedure. It is the only procedure which can take into account the constraints of the language system of the reading material, the reading ability and other characteristics of the reader, and the background information needed by the reader.

3. Do not use the same criteria of success for all age groups, for all purposes, and for all materials. Establishment of local criterion levels might be considered since some evidence indicated cloze scores are influenced by the number and type of deletions and content area.

Attitude

Attitude, Wilson and Hill (1972:11) stated, "is essential for successful mastery of the printed page." The major portion of classroom instruction in reading is devoted generally to: (1) word attack skills, (2) comprehension skills, and (3) study skills. The importance of these cognitive skills is not questioned. Research suggests that attitudes tend to be "unique, personal and highly unpredictable." (Squire, 1969:523-533). Squire also said:

> Research . . . demonstrates that methods of teaching and conditions of teaching can affect an individual's attitude toward reading. The attitudes which readers bring to a book and the attitudes which they derive from their reading are intimately related both to the process of reading itself and to the personal qualities of the reader. They affect preferences for reading as much as they color individual response to any selection, and they must be considered carefully by any teacher in planning . . . education for students in the secondary schools today.

Yet, attitude, as a part of the reading process, has generally not received the attention it deserves (Alexander and Heathington, 1975:32-36).

Alexander and Filler (1976:1) in a literature search, found only a limited number of studies that focused specifically on attitudes in reading. Variables thought to be associated with attitudes that have been investigated are:

1. achievement,
2. self concept,
3. parents and the home environment,
4. the teacher and the classroom environment,
5. instructional practices and special programs,

6. socioeconomic status,
7. sex,
8. test intelligence,
9. student interest.

Because the studies available were based mostly on correlational data and some of the findings were contradictory, Alexander and Filler (1976:16) said generalizations were difficult to make. For instance, relationships have been found between achievement levels and attitudes, but there was not always a positive correlation between high achievement and favorable attitudes. It appears that certain instructional practices and special programs can, but do not necessarily lead to improved attitudes. There is also some basis for feelings that student interest and self concepts and the attitudes and behaviors of parents and teachers may affect attitudes toward reading.

Beliefs not warranted by the studies were: (1) girls have more favorable attitudes towards reading than boys, (2) more intelligent students have more positive attitudes, (3) students from lower socioeconomic levels have more negative attitudes than students who come from higher levels.

Alexander and Filler (1976) listed seven informal techniques for assessing attitudes which are:

1. observation,
2. interviews,
3. questionnaires,
4. incomplete sentences,
5. pairing,

6. summated rating scales,

7. semantic differential.

Teachers were cautioned to interpret attitude assessments with caution. Since responses can reflect not only how the student feels at the moment, but also what response the student thinks is desired, it is best to base interpretation on assessments over a period of time. It is also suggested that teachers evaluate their behaviors and attitudes as well.

The following attitude instruments were specifically noted by Alexander and Filler (1976:69-70) as appropriate for the junior high level:

1. Incomplete Sentence Test (Boning and Boning, 1957),
2. Estes Reading Attitude Scale (1971),
3. Attitude Scale (Bennie, 1973),
4. Seventy Item Attitude Enlistment (Kennedy and Halinski, 1975).

Maturity in Reading (Gray and Rogers, 1956) "should have been a landmark study," said Maring (1979:325). The study which assessed the reading maturity of a representative group of adults used interview data to develop the "maturity in reading scales." The study "offered educators the viewpoint that reading maturity involves not only reading skills but also such concommittants as reading interests, habits, motives, and attitudes." (Maring, 1979:325).

Maring's study (1979) used an adaptation of Gray and Roger's research and was limited to leisure book reading. A procedure for delineating and assessing the maturity in reading of seventh grade students was validated. Maring

(1979:329) stated that the value of any data in reading maturity assessment is not an end or method for ranking or grading. Instead, "Maturity in reading should be assessed so that it can be further developed in students." Maring, quoting Artley (1974), said, "Maturity in reading should be thought of not only as a star in the sky, but also as a characteristic capable of delineation and assessment at various points in the education of students." Maring states that when this kind of assessment is a part of all reading programs, teachers can then make concerted efforts in developing not only skillful readers but mature readers as well.

Chapter 3

PROCEDURES OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to design a one semester eighth grade reading course, using Cooper and Petrosky's (1976) strategies, to increase students' ability to use study skills, to read expository and narrative material with greater fluency, and to maintain positive attitudes towards reading. To meet this purpose, a series of sequential lessons was developed that used available printed material such as texts, newspapers, magazines or library books.

The following professional texts were studied before planning began because Cooper and Petrosky (1976) strongly stated that these were the programs to use: Language in Use (Sections: G 8, 9, and D 10 for vocabulary problems, and Sections D 2 and 11 to teach about redundancy, Doughty, 1971) published in England but distributed in the United States by Ginn and Company, Games to Improve Your Child's English (Hurwitz and Goddard, 1969:180. 280-1, 284-5, 287, 290), to teach syntactic redundancy, Sentencecraft (O'Hare, 1975), to teach sentence combining practice, and Becoming a Better Reader and Writer (Cuomo, 1978), for the recommended speeded reading program.

In addition to obtaining professional texts, references cited by Cooper and Petrosky (1976) as well as additional literature was read for specific program planning ideas

(see references: Aaronson, 1975; Estes, 1971; Herber, 1978; McCracken, 1971; Millman and Pauk, 1969; Nelson, 1979; Palmatier, 1971; Smith, 1979a; Taylor, 1978a; Taylor and Waynant, 1978b; Watson, 1978).

The next step in the procedure was to develop the semester program taking into account the school calendar and allowing for some flexibility for change in either the material and length of time needed for each unit of study or school schedule changes that would affect available class time. The four major activities: sustained silent reading, content area reading skills, redundancy, and speeded reading were listed as well as the sub-parts of each major activity to be taught. Pre and posttesting and unit reviews were also listed for needed time. All activities were then placed in the order in which they were to be introduced with a notation of the possible time needed for instruction. Initially, two quarters were planned with space left open at the end of the second quarter. This proved a wise decision as some activities took as much as one to three days longer than originally allotted but proved no problem as the necessary flexibility had been provided. Lessons for the first quarter were planned well before the quarter began. Lessons for the second quarter, although planned on the master schedule, were not completed until two or three weeks before they were to be taught. This allowed for movement up and down the time line and also provided, in some cases, the opportunity to use one learning activity as a part of another.

An example of this would be using material from SQ3R or notetaking exercises in a unit on test-wiseness. The Fry Readability Formula was used to establish the instructional levels of materials used.

Before instruction began all students took the California Achievement Test, Form 18C, for instructional placement, the Estes (1971) Attitude Scale, and the Study Habits Survey (American Guidance Service, Inc., 1964). All of these were administered at the end of the program as well. Form 18C of the California Achievement Test was used again as this was required for those students who were considered eligible for Title I. Once pre-testing was completed, instruction began as outlined in the following planning sheets.

TEACHER'S PLANNING GUIDE FOR A ONE SEMESTER EIGHTH GRADE READING COURSE

First Quarter

February

4 Introductions, program explanation, attitude survey, student folders

5 Begin SSR - 10 min., C.A.T. 18C, Test 1 - Voc. (10), Test 8 - Reference (25)

6 SSR - 10, C.A.T., Test 2 - Comprehension (35) Discussion - favorite books
Administer "Study Habits Survey" (American Guidance Service, 1964)

7 SSR - 10, Games to Improve Your Child's English, Sentence Forming

Fun, p. 112, (Hurwitz and Goddard, 1968)

8 SSR all period

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Chapter 2,

11	SSR - 15 min.,	Introduce: "Developing Perceptual Skills" (Adams, 1977:39)	1A-5A,	Lang.in Use D2#1
12	" "	A. Rapid Word Perception	7A-11A	D2#2
13	" "	Key Word "	13A-17A	D2#3
14	" "	" "	18A-22A	D11#1

15 " all period (Doughty, 1975)

****

X Presidents' Day

19	SSR - 15 min.,	Explain and introduce Log, and Log-3		Lang.in Use D11#2
		B. Rapid Phrase Perception	B1-B5	
20	" "	"	B6-B10	D11#3
21	" "	"	B11-B16	G8#1

22 " all period with time for the log at end
Game of the week, p. 280, (Hurwitz and Goddard, 1968)

****

February (continued)

			Lang.in Use
25	SSR, Log -18, Key Phrase Reading B17-B22,		G8#2
26	" "	D. Rapid Phrase Reading D1-D2	G8#3
27	" " "	D3-D4,	G8#4
28	" "	Chapter 3 Developing Scanning Skills A. Scanning the Telephone Directory	
29	" "	all period	

Game of the week, p. 281, (Hurwitz and Goddard, 1968)

****

March

3	SSR, Log - 18,	B. Skimming and Scanning Advertisements B1-B4
4	" "	C. Scanning Catalogs, C1-C3
5	" "	D. Scanning Reference Materials D1-D4
6	" "	Chapter 4 "Developing Skimming Skills A. Skimming and Scanning Newspaper Articles A1-A4
7	" all period, Log	

Game of the week, p. 283, (Hurwitz and Goddard, 1968)

****

10	SSR, Log - 18,	B. Skimming and Scanning Magazine Articles B1-B2
11	" "	Skimming and Scanning Textbooks, Use content area text.
12	" "	Cloze, "I'm Glad I'm Irish" discuss
13	" "	Cloze, "Run for the Blue Ribbon," discuss
14	" all period, Log	

Game of the week, p. 284, (Hurwitz and Goddard, 1968)

****

March (continued)

17 SSR, Log - 18, Cloze, "Carlos Charles," discuss

18 " " Cloze, D -J, Fry, 4-10th, group discussion with original text — Game of the week, p. 285

19 " " Cloze Test

20 " " Cloze Test class discussion — (Hurwitz and Goddard, 1968)

21 " all period, Log

****

24 SSR, Log - 18, (Career Workshop, Substitute) — Begin oral reading

25 " " "The Diary of Anne Frank", Unit 8, Counterpoint in

26 " " Literature, Scott, Foresman and Company, 1974, p. 466-534). Use selected dis-

27 " " cussion question at end of each scene. Fry Readability, Low 4th.

28 " all period, Log, — Game of the Week, p. 287, (Hurwitz)

****

March 31 - April 4 SPRING VACATION

****

April

7 SSR, Log - 18, "The Diary of Anne Frank"

8 " " Finish "The Diary of Anne Frank" complete discussion

9 " - 10, Class to RC for classified book and mini lecture. do 2 min. timing on return to est. regular WPM

10 " - 18, Explain Speeded Reading Program, do 3 min., count words, distribute record sheet (Cuomo, 1978).

11 " " Do 3 min. speeded reading, count words on 3 pages, divide by 3 to est. the average number of words per page. Explain how students will figure their speeded WPM, help with many examples on the board so students can compute quickly themselves for the remainder of program. Record on record sheet.

****

April (continued)

14	SSR, Log - 18, Speeded Reading 3, record 5,	"The Man Who Was Murdered by Light" cloze.
15	" " " "	Language in Use G9, #1, 2 (Doughty, 1975)
16	" " "	SQ3R Review, S.S. Ch. 16
17	" " "	SQ3R S.S., Ch. 17, independently
18	" all period with time for 3 min. recording.	speeded reading and

****

21	SSR, Log - 18, Speeded Reading 3, record 3,	SQ3R Packet, S.S., Ch. 18
22	" " " "	"
23	" " " 4,	" discussion
24	" " " 4	" , Notetaking, Day 1,#1, 2, 3
25	" all period " 4	" at end of period

****

28	SSR, Log - 18, Speeded Reading 5, record 3,	Notetaking Day 1, Shortened periods, reverse schedule#4, 5
29	SSR, Log - 18, Speeded Reading 5, record 3,	Notetaking Day 2 Substitute Periods 1-3, Prof. Leave
30	SSR, Log - 18, Speeded Reading 5, Record 3,	Notetaking Day 2, finish Lang. in Use, G 9 # 3

May

1	" " " 6	Notetaking, Day 3, Tape, finish for homework
2	" all period with time for 6 min. recording	speeded reading and

****

May (continued)

5 Shortened period schedule Notetaking - discuss work from Day SSR, Log - 10, Speeded Reading -6, 3, Day 4 Mapping

6 SSR, Log - 18, Speeded Reading -8, Complete Mapping, discussion

7 " " " ", Begin Paragraph Organization

8 Eighth Grade Registration Film, The Legacy of Anne Frank

9 SSR, Log and speeded reading at end of period

****

12 SSR, Log - 18, Speeded Reading -8, Day Two Paragraph Organization

13 " " " ", Day Three Paragraph Organization

14 " " " -10, Complete Paragraph Organization

15 " " " ", Begin Day One Test Wiseness

16 " all period with Log, and speeded reading - 10 min. at end.

****

19 SSR, Log - 18, Speeded Reading -10, Test Wiseness, Day Two

20 " " " -12, Test Wiseness, Day Three

21 " " " " Test Wiseness, Day Four

22 " " " " Test Wiseness, Day Five

23 " all period with Log, and speeded reading - 10 min. at the end.

****

X Memorial Day

27 SSR, Log - 18, Test Wiseness, Day Six

28 " " Sentence Combining, Day One

29 " " Sentence COmbining, Day Two

30 " all period with Log

****

June

2 SSR, Log - 18, "Read A Book in An Hour" (Smith, 1978b) The Cay, (Taylor, 1970), Sentence Combining, Day Three

3 " " Sentence Combining, Day Four

4 " " Sentence Combining, Day Five

5 Administer C.A.T. 18C, Test 1 - Voc. (10), Test 8 - Reference Skills (25)

6 Administer C.A.T. 18C, Test 2 - Comprehension (35) Game of Choice

****

RC closed, SSR books from home or public library, 15, Log 3, daily

9 REVIEW SQ3R Language in Use, G 10#1

10 " NOTETAKING G 10#2

11 " TEST WISENESS G 10#3 (use 7th grade)

12 " SENTENCE COMBINING G 10#4

13 SSR all period with Log at end

****

16 SSR, Log - 18, Reading in the Content Fields, James-Town Publishers,

17 " " 1978, Book Sharing

18 Awards Assembly

Attitude

Purpose — The purpose of administering an attitude pre/posttest was to determine individual student attitudes toward reading.

Material — The Estes Reading Attitude Scale (1971) was used. (See Appendices)

Procedure — The scale with answer spaces was reproduced. Attitude scales were distributed to the class and the directions read. Honest responses were encouraged and students were urged to mark what they really thought, not what they anticipated the instructor might like. The students were assured that the manner in which they responded to the scale would not possibly affect their grade or standing in the course.

Scoring — Students scored their own scales. All C responses were given three points. Then a number equivalent of 1, 2, 4, 5 points for letters A, B, D, E was given for the remaining responses depending on whether the response was to a positive or negative statement. Students totaled the points. A score of seventy or more was considered as a positive attitude. The higher the score the more positive the attitude. Attitude changes were noted by comparing the two scores. Students compared their pre/posttest responses. Discussion followed the last survey session.

Standardized Reading Achievement Test

Purpose — The pretest was administered to quickly determine the instructional level of students. The post-test was administered to measure growth, as a basis for referral to the school Title I program, and as a recommendation to the accelerated reading elective program.

Material — The California Achievement Test Form 18C was used. Teacher-made answer sheets were used.

Procedure — Test 1 Reading Vocabulary and Test 8 Reference Skills were given the second day of the quarter. Test 2 Reading Comprehension was given the third day of the quarter. Posttests were given two weeks before school ended.

Scoring — The tests were teacher scored. Raw scores were converted to percentile rank and grade equivalent.

Redundancy Awareness through Sustained Silent Reading

Purpose — Sustained silent reading was used to improve student awareness about redundancy and to become more fluent readers through student assessed miscues.

Material — Student selected material, either fiction or classified, was used. Newspapers, magazines and school texts were not allowed. A report folder, for recording a daily log, was required. Construction paper book marks were provided by the teacher.

Procedure — Students were expected to be in their seats, reading, when the final bell rang. For the first quarter, a teacher made student calendar was marked daily with a plus if the student was seated and reading the required material for the fifteen minute period, a zero if the student was not successful. The calendar was not used the second quarter until the final two weeks of school. This procedure was well established after a two week period. At that time a RSM, Reader Selected Miscue program was begun (Watson 1978:75-85). Bookmarks were placed in trouble spots and reading continued. At the end of the sustained silent reading session, students examined their miscues and recorded as many as three that caused trouble in meaning loss and disrupted

language flow. Students also logged thoughts about their reading. Logs were collected and read by the teacher on a weekly basis. Individual or group discussions of problems followed.

Scoring

No grade was attached to the logged material. A weekly grade was given, however, for reading fifteen minutes daily and for daily log entries.

Speeded Reading

Learning to read more rapidly is an important step in becoming a fluent reader. No one who always reads slowly can be considered an efficient and skilled reader. Many variables such as: visual skills, perceptual skills, vocabulary, purpose for reading, intelligence, past experiences, and familiarity with material, determine how fast a person can read and understand the material being read. A person should not have a single reading rate but should have many rates. All people have a base rate at which average material is read. It is from the base rate that speeding up or slowing down is determined by the purpose for reading and the difficulty of the material. Because slow readers do a lot more starting and stopping, they have to work longer and harder than fast readers to cover the same amount of material.

Purpose — Using a variety of printed materials a series of lessons were developed to improve visual perception, scanning and skimming skills. Students worked on learning to make fewer stops per line, reading more during each stop, concentrating on key words and phrases, breaking sentences into logical thought groups, and eliminating bad reading habits to increase reading speed.

Materials — Developing Reading Versatility (Adams, 1977)

(See Appendices)

Becoming a Better Reader and Writer (Cuomo, 1978)

Timed Reading, Levels 1-8 (Spargo and Wilson, 1975)

Student selected non-fiction books

Procedure — Timed exercises from Chapter 2, 3, and 4 of Developing Reading Versatility were done daily over a period of four weeks. These exercises were followed by the thirty day speeded reading program suggested by Cuomo (1978) in Chapter 2 of Becoming a Better Reader and Writer. Students also did some timed readings from Jameston Publishers, Timed Readings (Spargo and Wilson, 1975)

Scoring — Students received point credit for participation in and completion of all exercises.

Redundancy Awareness through
Sentence Manipulation Games
and Sentence-Combining Practice

Purpose — Students made use of orthographic, syntactic, semantic, prior knowldege/experience cues to increase redundancy awareness through games.

Material — Language in Use (Doughty, 1976), Sections D 2, D 11. (See Appendices)

Games to Improve Your Child's English (Hurwitz and Goddard, 1968) pp. 112, 113, 280, 284, 285, 287, 290. (See Appendices)

Procedure — The games are based on Ghost so this was taught and played by the entire class first; then, it was played in small groups. Each new game was played first in a large group and as students understood the rules, it was played in small groups. The games were started the first week of the semester and were taught and played part of a period at least once a week throughout the semester. The games also served, on occasion, as excellent sponge activities.

Redundancy Awareness through Cloze Test and Teaching Precedures

Cloze exercises are valuable because a student must bring his knowledge of language to the reading task. The teacher can quickly see student competence in syntax and semantics. Comprehension stress is all important in this type of activity as attending to meaning is essintial for successful completion of a cloze task. Learning from the cloze activity takes place in the discussion following the written lesson. All the language cues available to the reader, that help in choosing words that fit syntactically and semantically, are pointed out by the teacher and students in the discussion which can occur in pairs, in small groups, or within the total class.

Purpose — The purpose of the cloze procedure tests was to determine placement of students in graded material, to compare results with the California Achievement Test, and to analyze miscues of those students who appeared to be having real problems. The purpose of the instructional cloze procedure was to give students much practice in using redundancy, which is the duplication of information available to the reader from print through prior knowledge, syntactic and semantic cues, to reduce uncertainties about meaning.

Material — Cloze passages prepared from available printed materials. (See Appendices)

Procedure

The first exercise, at a fifth grade readability (The Reading Clinic, March, 1976), deleted every eighth word with two multiple choice answers printed under the blank. The second and third exercises, prepared from student texts at third and fourth grade readability, used a random ten word deletion pattern and omitted nouns and pronouns. The missing words were printed at the bottom of the page. The fourth through ninth exercises were cloze tests at the primary, intermediate and upper levels of difficulty and were given to acquaint students with a cloze test procedure as well as a score comparison with the previously given standardized test. The tenth exercise, at the student's instructional level as indicated by the previous exercises and the California Achievement Test, was another cloze test. Succeeding cloze teaching exercises designed at students' instructional levels can be used to increase redundancy awareness in printed text. Instruction is most successful if organized and long term.

Scoring

The author's exact words were counted as correct on the introductory exercises and all cloze tests. The following percentages were used:

1. Fifty-seven percent to sixty-five percent equals Independent or Recreational Level.

2. Forty-four percent to fifty-six percent equals Instructional Level.
3. Thirty-five percent and below equals Frustrational Level.

Succeeding cloze teaching exercises were verbatim scored since McKenna (1976) concluded it is as valid as synonymic. This is an example of the necessity and value of discussion following the exercise and comparison with the unmutilated copy. In specific vocabulary teaching cloze exercises, synonymic scoring can be used.

Vocabulary

Purpose — The purpose was to work on vocabulary problems in the context of reading materials from a variety of subjects.

Material — School texts, magazines, Language in Use (Doughty, 1976) Sections G 8, G 9 and D 10, and Games to Improve Your Child's English (Hurwitz and Goddard, 1968) were used. (See Appendices)

Procedure — Vocabulary was taught daily in every activity as needs arose, as well as in specific organized lessons for teaching specialized vocabularies. The primary emphasis was on definition and meaning (Herber, 1978). Techniques such as structured overviews, cloze, catagorizing, contrasting, comparing, and student records of miscues were used. The thesaures was used to locate synonyms, antonyms and specialized vocabulary.

Content Area Reading

Students' content area texts were usually used to help students "acquire strategies for managing school reading and study assignments." (Cooper and Petrosky, 1976). Because every eighth grade student in the school is assigned the same social studies text, this book was used most frequently as a teaching tool. Lessons could also be designed for use with a variety of math, science and reading texts. Exercises from Reading in the Content Fields, Middle Level, (Spargo and Horns, 1978), were used for reinforcement after techniques were taught. Lessons were designed to improve study techniques, develop vocabulary and increase the levels of literal, interpretive and evaluative comprehension.

SQ3R

Purpose — SQ3R is a study technique, which if used correctly, helps students better understand and remember content area material.

Material — Teacher made ditto from SQ3R Social Studies from Small Schools Reading in the Content Area Curriculum Grades 9-12, (Nelson, 1979), p. 143. (See Appendices).

Teacher made ditto "How - to Read in Social Studies" (Angello, 1974). Student texts. (See Appendices).

Teacher made study guides for specific content material.

Procedure — Working as a class, the first ditto was used to review SQ3R procedures introduced and taught in seventh grade. The lesson was repeated with a new social studies chapter assigned and students worked through the complete process independently. A teacher-made SQ3R study guide was used for a succeeding chapter.

Scoring — Study guides were checked to be sure the procedure was understood and completed as directed.

Notetaking

Purpose The purpose of the series of lessons on notetaking was to teach students a method for extracting and recording information from written and oral assignments which would help them process, learn and apply material in or beyond school. Notetaking is a habit which requires guidance to develop efficiently over a period of time.

Material Text books, printed dittoes and transparencies of lecture material, recorded content area class lectures, activities from Making Sense (Gerhard, 1975) and Small Schools Reading in the Content Areas Curriculum Grades 9-12 (Nelson, 1979), were used. (See Appendices)

Procedure Activities that demonstrated how organization aids learning from Making Sense (Gerhard, 1975) were used. Activities which used content material to emphasize categorizing and organizing were used. The 5R Notetaking Method was taught, (Nelson, 1979). Use of key words was reviewed and used. The advantages of time-saving techniques such as: abbreviations, boxing, underlining new vocabulary, color coding different types of information, and highlighting were taught. Daily followup was essential and valuable through such activities as comparing notes, sharing lists of key words, discussing organization of notes.

Expository material was used to teach recognition of common organizational patterns such as cause and effect, enumeration, comparison and contrast, and chronological order. Signal words for organizational patterns were taught and used in notetaking.

* NOTETAKING

Day One: Introduction

Materials: Reproduce pages 245-6, "How to Make Notes that Help You" and pages 199-200, "The Notetaking Technique" from Small Schools Reading in the Content Area Grades 9-12 (Nelson, 1979). (See Appendices).

Procedure:
1. Use pages 245-6. Read and discuss "What's the Use of It?".
2. Continue with the paper. Read, discuss and complete "Learning to Do It."
3. Distribute, explain and discuss the material in the copy of the 5Rs of Notetaking.
4. Small groups use the form and the article studied earlier to make notes.
5. Class discussion with the emphasis on the 5R system, key words and phrases, and abbreviations.

Day Two: 5R Notetaking Technique Using Written Material

Material: Classroom set of Galaxies, Houghton Mifflin, 1974, pp. 241-3, "Why Do We Have Volcanoes" from "Volcanoes: Windows in the Earth," William H. Matthews.

Procedure:
1. Students read pp. 241-3.
2. Students use the 5R Notetaking technique independently.
3. Group discussion with emphasis on the 5Rs, key words and phrases and abbreviations.

Day Three: 5R Notetaking Technique Using Lecture Material

Material: Taped lecture "The Iceberg Cometh," pp. 80-3, Serendipity, Houghton Mifflin, 1974.

Procedures: 1. Students make notes as tape is played.

2. Teacher is free to observe and give help if needed.

3. Students, in groups of two, use notes to discuss key words and phrases and summary. Use the original text as reference.

4. Group discussion, total class.

Day Four: Mapping as a Substitute for Notetaking

Material: Classroom set of Images, Houghton Mifflin, 1974, pp. 131-4, "Our Friends--The Bees, Wasps, and Hornets."

Procedures: 1. Class identification of the main idea. Students need to discuss what they already know and decide what they think the article will be about.

2. Class hypothesizes what the secondary categories might be and then skims the article for secondary categories that support the main idea.

3. Students carefully read the article.

4. From memory students complete the map adding supporting details.

5. Class discussion about why mapping is important: to develop a graphic summary which provides notes for easy review, to develop critical

thinking, to increase reading ability, and to improve memory.

* PARAGRAPH ORGANIZATION AND EXPOSITORY WRITING

Day One: Paragraph Patterns and Main Ideas

Materials: Magazine pictures

Make transparencies from pages 280-290 in Reading Aids for Every Class, Allyn & Bacon, Inc., 1980. (See Appendices)

Student content area text

Procedures: 1. Students identify and discuss main ideas in magazine pictures.

2. Use transparencies to review and discuss paragraph main idea patterns.

3. Use content area texts, in small group discussions, to find examples just discussed.

4. Class discussion.

Day Two: Signal Words

Materials: Content Area Texts

Transparencies of examples of signal words.

Procedures: 1. Introduce signal words using transparencies.

2. Students practice notetaking skills.

3. Divide class in small groups. Use content area texts to find examples of:

a. Cause and effect - because, since, so, that, also

b. Order or sequence - any ordinal number such as first, second

c. Contrast - whereas, while, despite, but

d. Time relationships - while, despite,

e. Relational - between, against, adjacent

f. Parallel ideas - however, therefore, hence, on the other hand, accordingly

g. Conclusions or summaries - therefore, for this reason, as you can see, in short

2. Class discussion

Day Three: Expository Material

Materials: Mini Lecture/Learning Packet: The Critical Reader and Expository Material (See Appendices)
Magazines and newspapers

Procedure: 1. Present mini lecture, followed with group discussion.

2. Small groups find examples of expository writing that shows examples just discussed.

3. Class discussion.

Test Wiseness

Purpose: The purpose for teaching test taking skills was to help students learn strategies to improve their test scores.

Material: Teacher-made tests such as: multiple choice questions with illogical distractors, true/false items with absolute terms such as always and never, completion items that demand certain grammatical categories, matching exercises in which the process of elimination is a factor and questions whose answers are planted within other questions (Millman/Pauk, 1969) can be used.

Procedure: Different types of questions were reviewed by dividing students into small groups. Each group wrote five true/false, multiple choice, completion, matching, or fill in questions from material covered in a text. Each group also wrote two essay and short answer questions. Questions were exchanged among the groups. Students answered questions analyzing differences in responses among various types of questions. Students learned vocabulary terms unique to tests. Students matched key words to correct categories such as identification terms, descriptive terms, relation terms, demonstration terms, evaluative terms, exact terms, and indefinite terms (Nelson, 1979). Students worked

on pacing themselves so they had sufficient time to respond and proof read responses. Students used the 5R notetaking Method (Nelson, 1979) to study for and take tests. Students took teacher-made practice tests and discussed test-taking techniques.

* TEST-WISENESS

Day One: Introduction

Materials: Student Test-Wiseness Handout (See Appendices)
Classroom set of any standardized achievement test no longer used by the district and at an appropriate level.

Procedures: 1. Mini lecture from and class discussion of the handout.

2. Study test to demonstrate need for understanding such items as:

a. Directions-time limits

b. Practice questions

c. Key terms

d. Charts, graphs

e. Guessing

f. Answer changes

Day Two: Objective Tests

Material: Classroom set of Test-Wiseness Handbook or a set of teacher-made transparencies. (See Appendices)

Procedure: 1. Class discussion of pages one through seven.

Day Three: Essay Questions

Materials: Test-Wiseness Handbook or transparencies.

Procedure: 1. Class study and discussion of pages seven through twelve.

Day Four: Key Terms

Material: Social studies text, use a chapter previously studied in an SQ3R exercise.

Handout list of Key Terms (Nelson, 1979:193-4; Millman and Pauk, 1969:150-157). (See Appendices).

Procedure: 1. Using text, ask students to respond to teacher-designed questions which accurately interpret the key terms chosen from the handout list.

Day Five: Student-Designed Questions

Materials: Texts, notes from articles in lessons on note-taking, paper.

Procedures: 1. Groups of two are to write five true/false, multiple choice, completion, matching or fill in questions from the material covered in the text. In addition, each group is to write two essay and two short answer questions (Nelson, 1979: 191).

2. Exchange questions among the groups. Students answer questions analyzing differences in responses among the various types of test questions.

3. Class discussion to assist in analyzing responses to test questions.

Day Six: Practice Test

Material: Teacher-made practice test that uses information learned in this unit (Millman and Pauk: 1969: 67-8). (See Appendices)

Procedures: 1. Take test.

2. Discuss response choices.

SENTENCE COMBINING

* Day One:

Purpose: Classroom-based research shows that sentence combining, unlike formal grammar and textbook exercises, can have a positive effect on students' skill in sentence construction, in developing syntactic maturity and in aiding comprehension (Combs, 1977).

Materials: Small pieces of pre-cut paper, overhead projector.

Procedures: 1. Divide students in groups of two or three.

2. Dictate sentences as students record each word on a separate sheet of paper. Give each group a different sentence. These could be done ahead of time and passed out in envelopes.

   a. FENCE THE HIT BILL BALL OVER THE
   b. EGG EARTH MORK TO AN CAME IN
   c. POPSICLE VERY SUN MY HOT MELTED THE
   d. TO YOU ORANGES LIKE DON'T EAT (can also be a question)
   e. LAURA A's READING BOTH IN MATH GOT AND
   f. ELVES MERRY MAKE MANY MISCHIEF (then change many to much)
   g. DISHWATER DORA DAFFY DRINK DOESN'T DIRTY (can also be a question)
   h. TABLE BANDIT THE HAPPY JUMPED THE EASILY OVER

Challenge Sentences

i. WHILE WALLY WILLY WORKS WHISTLES WEARILY WEEPY (several possibilities here)

j. A ZOOZILY ZATTED ZINGERS THE ZISH (Z-nonsense language, but based on English grammar. Make sure they don't leave out any of the words in their rearrangements.)

3. Students arrange into sentences.

4. Discuss why some incorrect arrangements don't work.

Activity Two:

1. List word bank on board or transparency:

Verbs	Adjectives		Adverbs	Nouns	
munched (past)	fat	tall	slowly	dogs	donuts
ate (past)	many	happy	happily	hamburgers	soldiers
	yummy	several	quickly		

2. Choose one verb, two adjectives, one adverb, and two nouns and make a good sentence.

3. Share results. . . ask to add another adjective . . . and another.

Activity Three:

1. Sentences based on Z language:

ZEEZERS ZOOTIFUL ZOOZED ZOME (=SOME)

ZOME ZOOTIFUL ZEEZERS ZOOZED Now let's add ZOPPILY. Where would it go? ZOME ZOOTIFUL ZEEZERS ZOOZED ZOPPILY. Now ask some questions about this sentence.

a. Who did something? ZOME ZEEZERS

b. How do we know how many ZEEZERS there were? Because ZOME = some. What other way? Because ZEEZERS has an S on the end--it's a plural. Incidentally, I should tell you that the words tell us about something that happened yesterday. What kind of ZEEZERS were they? How would you describe them? They were ZOOTIFUL. What did the ZEEZERS do? What action? They ZOOZED. How do we know when they ZOOZED? You told us it happened yesterday. How else do we know it happened yesterday or in the past? There's an ED on the end of ZOOZED-- it's past tense. What does ZOPPILY tell us? How the ZEEZERS ZOOZED. Now let's put the words back in the word bank. Where do they go? Write the outline for the word bank on the board or the overhead.

2. Sum up with discussion about the vocabulary of our language needing order and rules. Because of these rules we can make up sentences never heard before.

Can you understand this:

While lassooing several dozen flying elephants, the carefree cowboys hungrily chomped

oat-filled m and m's and thirstily wolfed down coffee cups full of un-iced Diet 7-Up. Get students to answer and ask some questions about this sentence. What were the cowboys eating? What were the elephants doing? What were the cowboys drinking? For tomorrow bring a sentence no one has ever heard before.

Sentence Combining Exercises - Noun Modifiers

* Day Two:

Materials: Overhead projector

Procedures: 1. Enjoy, learn from sentences students have designed.

2. The following list or a similar list of sentences can be prepared for use with the overhead projector. The first ten are fairly simple. The last two somewhat more challenging.

a. The rabbit jumped over the fence. The rabbit was brown.

b. I saw a bear at the zoo. He was huge.

c. He was in the school when I found him. The school was new.

d. I saw an elephant in my dream. The elephant was sleeping.

e. I watched the stars last night. The stars were in the sky.

f. We ate some eggs for breakfast. The eggs were fried.

g. They sailed in the boat. The boat was the one with the pink sail.

h. Susan moved into her new house. Her new house is near the bridge.

i. I found my shoes. They were under the bed.

j. My friend is a helicopter pilot. My friend is Sam.

k. Nawico's people found a camp. The camp was safe. It was near the river.

l. The house was empty. It was an old house. It had a swimming pool.

3. Show one sentence at a time and combine them. Students should be actively involved in deciding which solutions work best. Try various solutions to the more challenging last two sentences but have students judge and choose the most satisfactory.

Day Three: "Read A Book in An Hour"

Purpose: Instruction in comprehension above literal levels can be enhanced by first making students aware of an author's idea patterns which are used to organize prose and then providing instruction which manipulates these elements (Herber, 1978: 78).

Materials: Separate chapters of The Cay (Taylor, 1970).

Procedures: 1. Divide the paperback books by chapters. Several were purchased so there was a chapter for every student. In larger classes there will be some repetition as the book has only nineteen chapters.

2. Distribute a different chapter to each student for silent reading. Proficient readers get the longer chapters, less able readers the shorter ones so everyone finishes about the same time.

3. Each student recounts the important events to the class. This is in the form of a structured discussion. Write several headings on the board or overhead such as setting, characters, conflict, significant events. Elicit important plot elements with open ended questions if the student omits them. Summarize and record on the board or overhead projector so students can refer to it for clarification as the story in told and for further sentence combining lessons.

Days Four and Five: Sentence Combining Exercises/Read A Book in An Hour

Materials: 1. The chapter summaries are the source for the sentence combining lessons. For example:

a. Philip Enright is twelve years old.

b. He lives on the island of Curacao.

c. Curacao lies off the coast of Venezuela.

d. An oil refinery is on Curacao.

e. The time is February, 1942.

f. A German submarine threatens to attack the refinery.

g. Philip and his mother leave Curacao.

h. They embark on the S.S. Hato.

The students then combine these sentences working in small groups after the class has worked through, together, enough so that there is a clear understanding of the task.

2. Each group does a chapter and develops one or two sentences at the most.

Good Starting Point for Day Five

3. Write the chapter sentences on separate sheets. Groups sequence the story. Summarize with work on:

a. Cause/Effect - rejection of parental values

b. Comparison/Contrast - Philip/Timothy

c. Time/Order

Informal Miscue Analysis

Purpose: A modified miscue analysis was used for diagnosis of individual problems through analysis of students' cloze test miscues to find how well semantic and syntactic cueing systems were used. The patterns of miscues suggested specific reading strategy lessons needed by the students.

Material: Cloze tests made from reading texts at levels four through seven. (See Appendices)

Procedure: Students were given appropriate readability leveled tests as a group. Tests should be difficult for them. Time was not a factor although part of a period appeared to be sufficient.

Scoring: Tests were analyzed individually for direct match percentage and adjusted score percentage. The adjusted score included those answers accepted as a match syntactically and semantically. The adjusted score is subjective and gives the maximum language ability of the student. Percentages to use diagnostically with cloze are:

1. Thirty-five percent and below equals Frustration Level, no information gain.
2. Fifty-five percent - maximum gain equals Independent Level, can work independently.
3. Sixty-five percent - too easy, no information gain. (Moberly, 1979).

Chapter 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

Cooper and Petrosky (1976) outlined a one semester reading course designed to meet a list of strategies which they based on "the current psycholinguistic-information processing model of the fluent reading process." (1976:206). The strategies describe the procedure a skilled, fluent reader uses while processing print. The reader takes an active role in the reading process and (1) uses syntactic, semantic and orthographic cues, (2) uses past experience to confirm ongoing expectations, (3) uses redundancies in the text to reduce interpretations down to the meaning of the print, and (4) uses general knowledge to test a hypothesis (Cooper and Petrosky, 1976:190-1). The authors stated that the strategies are natural to the reading process and the teacher's task would be to develop or enhance these strategies which the students use to identify meaning in print. Cooper and Petrosky (1976:206) wrote, ". . . reading programs must enhance the strategies natural to the reading process. Readers already have the perceptual, cognitive, and linguistic skills they need to develop their reading abilities. They need practice at the strategies natural to the skill of reading." They further quote Smith (1973). From this practice readers develop most, if not all of the strategies they

need if we arrange for large amounts of practice in real books and magazines, if we make reading easy for them, and if we respond to what they are trying to do.

The focus of this study was to design a one semester course, which used Cooper and Petrosky's strategies, to assist secondary students in developing reading skills to help them become fluent readers and better able to manage content area reading and study assignments. The four major activity areas were: sustained silent reading, efficient use of content area texts, lessons in syntactic redundancy, and speeded reading. A series of lessons was designed which used available printed materials. The California Achievement Test 18 C was administered pre and posttest for quick instructional placement and as a growth measure. The Estes (1971) Attitude Survey and Study Habits Survey (American Guidance Service, Inc., 1964) were given pre and posttest to assist the students and instructor in assessing strengths and weaknesses both in attitudes towards reading and individual study habits. Modified miscue analysis, which used cloze exercises, was used as a diagnostic tool.

Conclusions

As a result of preparing this study guide the following conclusions were evident. The program, as stated by Cooper and Petrosky (1976), was economical because existing printed materials could be utilized. The preparation of cloze exercises was especially time consuming. Many readabilities were done before a sufficient number of materials were found

to meet the instructional levels of all students. Another problem was to find material low enough for the less able reader to comprehend but high in interest to challenge the more skillful readers for those lessons which involved the total class.

Teacher observations, of four classes of eighth grade students, were positive in the initial presentation of this one semester course. Students came to class eager to learn. Bordom, openly expressed by other classes about an alternate eighth grade developmental program, was never voiced in any of these classes. Many eighth grade students tend to be very open and do not hesitate to voice objections.

Using the study guide as an alternative method, the same skills were developed using a new and different strategy. Each day's activities were different except for sustained silent reading and the thirty day speeded reading program. Most students were positive about the full day of reading once a week. Disappointment was expressed on the few occasions the time was altered to complete other tasks. Frequent work in small groups seemed to be an important variable in the enthusiasm towards the program.

The Study Habits Survey retest indicated marked growth for the majority of students. However, the scores for seventy-nine percent of the students still fell in the improvement needed category.

Attitudes of the students remain high. Eighty-three percent showed an increase in already positive scores. Seven

percent of the students moved from negative to positive attitudes about reading. Six percent of the students with negative scores moved up the scale. Three percent of the students recorded more negative attitudes than shown in the pretest.

California Achievement Tests scores showed that of the ninety-six students who took the test, only two were reading below eighth grade level. Of those two, one is an ESL student whose scores show four year's growth in vocabulary and a year's growth in comprehension. The other student, who was ill following the test, had above grade level pretest scores.

Recommendations

This study guide appears, from survey and test results, students' reactions, and teacher observations, to be successful in helping students increase study skills, to read expository and narrative material with greater fluency and to maintain positive attitudes towards reading. It is recommended that student appraisal and input be considered and their ideas used to develop other lessons. It is further recommended that others try this program and that formal control and experimental groups be used for research study.

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