August 10, 1974

To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a thesis written by Janice Mickle entitled "The Effect of an Eclectic Right To Read Approach on Achievement and Attitudes of Third and Fourth Grade Students." I recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science, with a major in Curriculum.

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THE EFFECT OF AN ECLECTIC RIGHT TO READ APPROACH ON ACHIEVEMENT AND ATTITUDES OF THIRD AND FOURTH GRADE STUDENTS

A Thesis

Presented for the

Master of Science

Degree

The University of Tennessee

Janice Mickle

August 1974

ABSTRACT

It was the purpose of this study to investigate the effect that the eclectic approach of the Tennessee Right To Read Plan had on the reading achievement and reading attitudes of the third and fourth grade students at the Charlotte Park Elementary School in Nashville, Tennessee.

The procedures used for the investigation included a post observation matched groups design. The experimental and control sample groups were matched according to grade level, sex, race, and reading achievement or aptitude stanine scores. Data was collected from the vocabulary and comprehension subtests of the 1965 Gates-MacGinitie Tests and from Rowell's Scale of Reading Attitude Based on Behavior. A single classification of analysis of variance was used to analyze the six dependent variables in order to test the two null hypotheses of the study.

The first null hypothesis which stated that there would be no significant difference in reading achievement was supported by the data.

The second null hypothesis which stated that there would be no significant difference in reading attitudes was not supported by the data. In each of the three subscales of the attitude scale there was a significant difference.

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Although the results are very tentative due to the basic assumptions, and limitations of this study, the findings suggest that the Tennessee Right To Read Plan provided certain variables or combinations of variables which made a significant difference in the positive reading attitudes of the third and fourth grade students at Charlotte Park. Therefore, a tentative conclusion is that the eclectic approach of the Tennessee Right To Read Plan has a positive effect on the reading attitudes of both black and white students from lower and middle-class socioeconomic backgrounds and from inner-city and suburban homes in Tennessee. However, the Hawthrone Effect must be considered when evaluating this tentative conclusion.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

During the past decade the American public faith was shaken by the number of illiterate adults and youths in the United States. Tremendous amounts of local and federal money were spent on materials, equipment, and special reading teachers. A multitude of methods, techniques, and strategies were acclaimed as answers to the reading problem. However, one out of every four students continued to have reading deficiencies (Huus, 1971).

As a result of this national concern, a National Right To Read Program was initiated in 1971 that set a goal which stated that by 1980, 99% of all those under 16 years of age and 90% of all those over 16 will be functionally literate (U.S.O.E. Right To Read Office, 1971).

As part of the National Right To Read Program, each state was requested to formulate a state Right To Read plan. Therefore, in December of 1972, the State of Tennessee submitted to the United States Office of Education, the Tennessee State Plan for the Right To Read Program. This created a new area of research problems.

This federal and state concern about reading developed at a time when results from the Cooperative Research Program in First Grade Reading Instruction indicated that no one single reading program is best for all children (Dykstra, 1967). Also, Chall and Feldman (1966) concluded that teachers using any one method vary in their implementation of the method, and that teacher variables like experience and instructional approach influence reading achievement.

Added to the complexity of the reading problem was the continued debate between those who held a restricted view of reading as only a decoding process and those who viewed reading as a highly complex process. Klein (1973) rejected definitions that describe reading as mechanical skills that can be arranged sequentially and written in behavioral terms. He stated that:

> ...the reading-as-skill perspective has built in a narrowly defined perception of reading; one which appears to completely overlook, or at least avoid current battles raging between and within psycho-linguists, linguists, psychology, and traditional reading camps (p. 254).

One question that arises from the current crises in reading is, can a reading program reflect interdisciplinary findings and at the same time adequately provide for the differences in children and teachers by using an eclectic

approach? Dechant (1969) described an eclectic approach to reading as "...a combination of valid elements from various theories into a harmonious whole (p. 413)." He warned that this approach should not be haphazard and unplanned, but it should be a systematic and orderly synthesis of reading approaches and theories that are selected according to the needs of individual students or groups of students. However, Dechant did not state what constituted a harmonious whole. Therefore, it was assumed that this is a part of the definition that is determined at the local school level.

The Tennessee Right To Read Plan for an adequately balanced reading program was an eclectic approach. It defined an adequately balanced reading program as one that contained the following components:

1. Direct instruction in skills
2. Oral language development
3. Personal reading for pleasure
4. Reading in the content areas
5. Research skills

One important phase of the Tennessee Right To Read Plan was the implementation of four pilot schools. Each pilot school was provided the components of an adequately balanced reading program, but uniformity in implementing this program

was not imposed. Local initiative and planning was encouraged. This flexibility and openendedness encouraged each school to plan a reading program that best met the needs of their individual students. However, the four components and specified principles of the Tennessee Right To Read Plan provided the guidelines for a systematic and orderly planning of the program.

Some specified principles of the Tennessee Right To Read Plan were:

1. An adequately balanced reading program is based upon the strengths of students, not their weaknesses.
2. The reading process is highly complex, and recent theoretical bases define the process as being more than the mastery of skills.
3. The ultimate goal of education must become increasingly human, humane, and humanitarian.
4. Programs in reading must be built upon an application of available knowledge concerning language acquisition.
5. Books, materials, equipment, methods, and reading systems are only tools to be used at the discrimination of teachers in order to provide an adequately balanced reading program.

6. An adequately balanced reading program is a total school effort with reading being integrated into the total curriculum as a synthesized approach, not a fragmented or isolated approach.
7. Finding ways to enable every student to achieve the level of literacy of which he is mentally capable has become a matter of highest priority. (Appendix A contains a memorandum, from the Tennessee Commissioner of Education, which initiated the Right To Read Plan.)

The Charlotte Park Elementary Public School in Nashville, Tennessee, was the only urban, elementary, integrated school selected as a pilot school in the Tennessee Right To Read effort. Charlotte Park served children from both lower socioeconomic, inner-city and middle socioeconomic, suburban communities (Appendix B).

Statement of the Problem

It was the major purpose of this study to investigate the effect that the eclectic approach of the Tennessee Right To Read Plan had on the reading achievement of third and fourth grade students at the Charlotte Park School during the 1973-74 school year. The reading achievement was determined by measuring vocabulary knowledge and comprehension

ability. A second purpose was to investigate the effect of the Tennessee Right To Read Plan on the reading attitudes of third and fourth grade students at Charlotte Park.

Statement of Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1. There will be a significant difference in the reading achievement of third and fourth grade students at the Charlotte Park Elementary School when compared to the reading achievement of third and fourth grade students at the Ransom Elementary School.

Hypothesis 2. There will be a significant difference in the reading attitudes of third and fourth grade students at the Charlotte Park Elementary School when compared to the reading attitudes of third and fourth grade students at the Ransom Elementary School.

Significance of the Problem

Knowledge is needed by educators and the public about the effect of the national and state effort in the Right To Read Program on the local school reading program. Evidence of the successes and/or failures in the Right To Read effort need to be documented in order to give direction for future planning.

Evidence is also needed about the effectiveness of an eclectic approach to reading with black and white children who live in a large, urban area and who come from both lower socioeconomic, inner-city homes and middle socioeconomic, suburban homes.

Definitions

An eclectic approach to reading is defined as a systematic and orderly combination of various reading methods and theories of the reading process and language acquisition which are selected by individual teachers according to the needs of individual students or groups of students.

The Tennessee Right To Read Plan for an adequately balanced reading program is defined as a total school effort to provide a program that includes the following components:

1. Direct instruction in skills
2. Oral language development
3. Personal reading for pleasure
4. Reading in the content areas
5. Research skills

These four components are defined by the Charlotte Park faculty as:

Direct instruction in skills. Teachers choose, at their own discretion and according to the needs of students, the tools to provide direct instruction in reading skills daily. Basal readers, supplementary readers, phonics programs, language experience stories, programmed materials, teaching machines, and a reading systems center are some of the major tools available (Appendix C). The needs of students are assessed by reading surveys, placement tests, diagnostic tests, standardized tests, and teacher observation (Appendix D).

Oral language development. Teachers provide time and stimuli each day for children to talk to each other and to the teachers, principal, student teachers, and parents who volunteer their services in the school. Taping conversations, role-playing, puppetry, field trips, room pets, resource people, rap-sessions about real objects or pictures, and interaction games are some of the major stimuli which are utilized to encourage talk. In workshops, P.T.A. meetings, and faculty meetings, the adults are encouraged to be good listeners and are shown how to ask openended questions.

Personal reading for pleasure. Time, space, library books, paperbacks, poems, plays, newspapers, magazines, and other reading materials are provided daily for pleasure reading by children. There is a pleasure reading center which consists of carpets, pillows, bookshelves, rocking chairs or stools, and live plants in each room of the school. Each day is started by a fifteen minute Read-In, during which students, teachers, student teachers, volunteers, principals, secretary, custodian, lunchroom helpers, and school visitors read anything they choose for pleasure. Each day children are also read to by their teachers from kindergarten through fourth grade. Parents are encouraged to read to students at home. Children are also encouraged to write their own books.

Reading in the content areas. The reading program at Charlotte Park operates from 8:00 a.m. until 2:30 p.m. There is no dichotomy between reading and reading in the content areas. Each teacher provides daily assistance to students in developing the necessary content vocabulary and strategies of thinking for mathematics, science, social studies, music, and art. Vocabulary development is facilitated by providing firsthand experiences and experiments in

each content area. The teachers help students to analyze content books and resource material in order to become familiar with the communication strategies of each content area.

Research skills. Teachers provide time, assistance, and stimuli each day to help each student master the skills of independent study while pursuing the solutions to problems which originate from one student or small groups of students. The skills that are emphasized in a systematic way include the following steps:

1. Stating the problem
2. Locating and collecting data by asking, looking, experimenting and reading
3. Presenting reports of findings in graphs, group experience stories, individual reports, panel presentations, bulletin board reports or individual oral or written reports

Reading achievement is defined as the student's achievement as measured by determining his vocabulary knowledge and comprehension ability on the Vocabulary and Comprehension subtests of the 1965 Gates-MacGinitie Reading Tests. Hutchinson (1972) questioned the validity of measuring

reading achievement of speakers of black English with standardized tests which are written in standard English. MacGinitie (1973) presented the rationale for the use of standardized tests in this study. If the goal of a reading program is to teach all students to become competent readers of standard English then, a reading test written in standard English is appropriate. On the other hand, if the goal of a reading program is not to teach black dialectical speakers to read standard English, then a reading test written in standard English is inappropriate. This reasoning was in agreement with the goals of the Charlotte Park School which reflected the goal of teaching all children to read standard English.

Reading attitude is defined as the observable behavior which indicates how a student feels about reading as recorded on Rowell's (1972) Scale of Reading Attitude Based on Behavior.

The experimental school is defined as the Charlotte Park Elementary School which participated as a pilot school in the Tennessee Right To Read effort to demonstrate what a total staff can do by working together to improve the teaching of reading and the pupils' attitudes toward it. Charlotte Park served kindergarten through fourth grade children (K-4).

The control school is defined as the Ransom Elementary School which was an integrated, K-4 school and did not participate as a Tennessee Right To Read pilot school. The children came from both lower socioeconomic, inner-city and middle socioeconomic, suburban homes (Appendix B).

Assumptions

A basic assumption of this study was that reading is a highly complex process that develops more completely when a school follows an eclectic approach which includes at least the four components described in the Tennessee Right To Read Plan (Carmichael, 1972). A second assumption was that observable behavior is a valid indicator of attitudes. According to Raths, Harmin, and Simon (1966), attitudes are indicators of values held, and values are part of a person's behavior pattern. A third assumption was that the experimental and control schools were similar with respect to student body and location. (The integration and socioeconomic statistics from the Metropolitan Nashville School System which support the assumption are found in Appendix B).

Limitations

One of the limitations of this study was that it included such a comprehensive set of variables under the encompassing

term of an eclectic approach to reading. The rationale for the use of this term was that in the Right To Read program at Charlotte Park, these variables overlapped and supported one another so that a synthesized approach was reached. A second limitation developed as a result of the lack of past research and success in measuring affective learning. The measurement instrument used in this study was considered only as an experimental instrument. A third limitation of the study was the time element involved. Due to the one year limit of the study, there was a possibility that the Hawthorne Effect on the staff and students invalidated the study. Also, the long-range effect of the Tennessee Right To Read Plan was out of reach for this first year study.

CHAPTER 2

A REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

When the current literature was examined, it was noted that much of the reading research was disconnected from other disciplines, inconclusive, and dealt mainly with personal biases about a single method or piece of material for teaching skills. Hopefully, the Targeted Research and Development Program established by the United States Office of Education and reported on by Trismen (1971) was a step in the right direction. This program was an attempt to build a coherent reading foundation based on past research and to provide direction for future reading research.

The review of literature was limited to research and writings which had some relationship to the specified principles of the Tennessee Right To Read Plan. (These principles are listed on page 4 and page 5 of the text). Questions which developed as a result of an examination of these principles were:

1. What is known about the reading process?
2. What is known about the relationships that exist between oral language and learning to read?
3. What is known about reading programs?
4. What is known about the affective growth and reading attitudes of students?

Reading Process

Traditional definitions of the reading process emphasized the visual sensing and comprehending of the printed word on a page. For example, Fries (1963) divided the reading process into the following three stages: (1) the transfer stage in which auditory signs become visual signs, (2) the productive stage in which visual patterns become unconscious, and (3) the imaginative stage in which reading stimulates vicarious experiences.

In a similar manner, Russell (1961) restricted his view of reading to that part which deals with the printed word on the page as he explained the reading program. In the same way, Smith (1972) defined reading as the "ability to recognize, say, and understand the printed symbols on a page (p. 231)."

The opponents of the traditional viewpoint contended that the reading process was much more complex than code learning or word recognition. Spencer (1973) disagreed with the reading-as-skill perspective on the grounds that it implies that the development of meaning is not part of the reading process. He argued that words do not have innate meaning but we read with our experiences and emotions.

Spencer took the position that the reading process includes the intrinsic, psychological nature of reading.

Accordingly, Douglass (1973) described the reading process in terms of the following elements. First, the environment of the reader continuously provides a wide range of sources of stimulation. The second element is the process by which the human organism changes visual, auditory, and other stimulation into neural responses. The last two elements are those of perception and of responding. Douglass inferred that these last two elements remain a mystery in that they have yet to be clearly defined. Yet, he maintained that we do know they consist of motor responses, thinking, and behavior, and we know that they are surrounded by emotional tones.

In addition, Barrett (1969) concluded that the reading process includes decoding or perceptual skills, comprehension or cognitive skills, and affective dimensions. He stated that an optimum balance would depend on the age and types of children; however, the three strands are always visible since they are interrelated.

At the same time, Goodman (1973) proposed that reading is not an exact, precise process of identifying letter sounds, words, and sentence sequences. He defined reading as a

receptive psycholinguistic process by which there is an interaction between language and thought processes so that the reader moves from a language encoding of meaning to meaning itself. The reader's ability to comprehend meaning depends on his ability to associate the concepts that he has formed from real experiences with the language on the printed page. Goodman asserted that language and reading competencies grow in direct proportion to the experiences and conceptual growth of the learner.

This debate over the definition of the reading process reveals that there is much yet to be learned. At the same time, educators who are cautious about an overly simplistic definition of the reading process are in a position to prevent the development of ineffective reading programs. There is a need to determine the potential of the Right To Read thrust for helping teachers at the local school level understand the complexity of the reading process.

Oral Language and Reading

The current writings and research reports are numerous in efforts to show the relationships between oral language and reading. Loban (1963) discovered after his seven year study that those students who are high in general language ability are also high in reading ability. He inferred that

competence in the spoken language appears to be necessary for competence in reading. Loban indicated that children need more opportunities to struggle with their thoughts in situations where someone else is present to whom the children wish to communicate.

McLeod (1967) and Strickland (1962) also found that there is a close relationship between language ability and reading achievement. These findings indicated three interdependent needs. First, a theoretical model is needed to explain language acquisition. Second, a learning theoretical model is needed that is compatible with the language acquisition model. Third, a reading theoretical model is needed that is compatible with the language acquisition model and the learning model. However, Athey (1971) reported that there is not at present any one language acquisition model, learning model, or reading process model that is comprehensive enough to give a satisfactory account of the languaging process of children. Therefore, for the purpose of this study, a review and critique of the major theories in each area were reviewed.

Chomsky (1968) presented a natavistic theory that language acquisition is an innate process whereby a child constructs his own theory of grammar rules intuitively and

unconsciously. Chomsky described surface structure as phrases that compose a linguistic expression. As an example, will leave is a verb phrase. He described deep structure as the structure that gives the meaning and interpretation of a language. The process that relates deep structures to surface structures is called the transformational-generative grammar.

It seems that theories of language acquisition based on innate capacity alone ignore the role of learning, and the language behavior that the innate abilities are supposed to be explaining remains unclear. Chomsky's theory also failed to take into account the fact that there may be differences in the innate structure of different children. However, the transformational-generative theory raised the question whether so much directed teaching of language and reading skills is necessary. Is it possible that children can internalize rules during their school years as they do in their pre-school years?

Goodman (1970) developed a psycholinguistic, reading theory that points out that words exist only within the flow of language. Syntactic context is essential in both language learning and reading. Total comprehension includes reactions to the order of words (syntax patterns), intonation, inflection, and the functions of words. Therefore, the listener

and the reader pick up cues based on prior choices, language knowledge, cognitive styles, and learned strategies to guess the meaning. If a guess does not make sense, the listener or reader checks the recalled input and tries again. Goodman's theory implied that the exact pronouncing of graphic stimulus or simple word calling does not indicate that a child is comprehending the meaning or message encoded by the writer. For the present study, it was noted that this theory presupposes that the child has had real life experiences which have made him familiar with the word phrases, patterns, and expressions used in print. There is a need to determine the potential of the Right To Read effort for helping teachers at the local level become aware that the most important resource children bring to the task of learning to read is their language.

Skinner (1957) presented the operant conditioning theory of behaviorism which explains language acquisition in terms of the reinforcement of imitative behavior. The verbal community of the child helps to shape language by rewarding utterances that approximate adult speech. Critics of this theory argued that it did not account for the fact that language behavior learned in one setting is used later in other forms and settings. It was also argued that children

frequently produce regularized forms of verbs that are irregular although they have never heard these forms in adult speech.

The work of Piaget and Inhelder (1969) also provided insights into language acquisition. The child develops a conceptual framework for understanding symbolic representation as a substage of cognitive development. Symbolic representation belongs concurrently with the periods of egocentric representative activity and intuitive thought. This period occurs between the years of four and eight, a time when children are learning to read. Piaget and Inhelder (1969) described the function which brings about symbolic representation as:

> ...the ability to represent something (a signified something: object, event, conceptual scheme, etc.) by means of a signifier which is differentiated and which serves only a representative purpose...(p. 51).

Children represent symbols through language, mental images, gestures, drawings, play, and patterns of imitation.

Smart (1973) inferred from Piaget's work the following implications for reading and the young child:

1. Time must be given to children for spontaneous language.
2. Imitation, play, drawings, and language experiences provide children with ways to internalize symbolic representation.

3. Language experience charts and child-centered books help to create settings so that children experience the association between language and print.

The Right To Read effort of Charlotte Park placed high priority on these implications of Piaget's theory.

Bruner, Oliver, Greenfield, (et al., 1966) attempted to include transformational grammar into a cognitive theory which was similar in many ways to Piaget's theory. According to Bruner, the development of representation follows three stages: (1) the enactive (birth to one year), (2) the ikonic (one to four years), and (3) the symbolic representation period (four and above). During the enactive period the child learns by interacting with his environment. He develops techniques of representation through imagery during the ikonic stage. During the symbolic representation stage, the child uses language to free imagery from the spatial, temporal, and affective limitations. Therefore, language is dependent on prior experience, but once it is established, it serves as a vehicle to advance higher level thinking. Bruner maintained that a child's internalized verbal ability is a prerequisite for concept development. In contrast, Piaget (1967) reasoned that language and thought are independent systems.

The implications of Bruner's and Piaget's theories for this study were that abstract symbols are meaningless to children unless there is a strong foundation in concrete experiences. The question is also raised about the excessive emphasis on teaching reading at the expense of neglecting to teach children to think. Is it possible that children will learn to read gradually and naturally if the anxiety and pressure are lifted from the five and six year olds entering our schools? The Tennessee Right To Read Plan emphasized that the best learning comes through experience, not through programming children to recognize printed symbols.

Thus, the above theories seem to indicate that further research and longitudinal replication of past studies are needed to help refine each of the theories, none of which can be dismissed since all are being used by either psychologists, linguists, psycholinguists, or educators as the theoretical basis for applied research. However, until an integrative theory of language acquisition, learning, and reading is attained, school curriculum planners need to be cognizant of the developments in all the areas and to participate at the local school level in applied research studies that reflect these developments. The component of the

Tennessee Right To Read Plan that emphasized the expansion of oral language was an effort for action research in this area.

The socialinguistic viewpoint on language acquisition was presented by Entwisle (1971). She asserted that social variables which include dialect differences, ethnic differences in information-processing skills and cognitive styles, and affective factors cannot be ignored in the teaching of reading. She stressed the fact that reading occurs in a social context. Entwisle criticised reading models that define reading as an activity of a single person. She stated, "If schools draw from the symbolic world of the middle class, the non-middle class child gropes around in a symbolic system which does not link him to the outside world (p. 161)." According to Entwisle, the socioeconomic status of a child is a greater determinant of reading achievement than the intelligence quotient.

For instance, Bernstein (1970) presented a sociolinguistic theory that showed the relationship between socialization and language. He proposed that different forms of social relations produce different speech systems. The working class social relationships reinforce a restricted language code which narrows verbal expression. In contrast, middle class relationships generate an elaborated language

code which encourages a very extensive range of alternatives in language expression.

Bernstein's theory triggered many research studies that supported his basic hypotheses. For example, Hess and Shipman (1965) showed that there was a close relation between a mother's language behavior, the home's attitude toward language, and a child's cognitive pattern. Also, Cazden (1966), Deutsch (1965), and Loban (1963) have found that a restricted language code restricts success in beginning reading for a child.

Another important facet of the relationship between oral language, socialization, and reading is the problem of dialectical differences in speech. At the present time, several basic issues remain to be resolved in the area of dialects. First, is there a black dialect that is unique and can be identified as different from standard English?

Labov (1969) and Cullinan (1974) observed that there are elements in black English that are unique and distinct from elements in other dialects and standard English.

Second, is a black dialect an adequate linguistic system for learning to read? Goodman and Buck (1973) recognized the fact that speakers of low-status dialects have high rates of reading failures. They viewed the nonstandard

dialect as being linguistically different rather than linguistically deficient. They hypothesized that the major disadvantage a low-status dialect speaker has is one imposed by teacher rejection. Goodman and Buck indicated that rejection destroys the linguistic self-confidence of speakers with divergent dialects. They concluded that black speakers of low-status dialects can be proficient readers. This was a result of their studies which showed that dialect speakers who made dialect-caused miscues in oral reading are still constructing the meaning of the written passage. The authors suggested that speakers of low-status dialects have a linguistic advantage over speakers of high-status dialects due to the fact that they understand and have receptive control over dialects other than the one they speak. However, they cautioned that the above findings did not show that dialect difference or dialect rejection by teachers is not a cause of difficulty in learning to read.

In support of Goodman's view, Baratz (1969) discovered that nonstandard English speaking students were consistent in being able to translate a standard English sentence into a nonstandard dialect and repeat this translation orally. On the other hand, Bereiter and Engelmann (1966) took the position that a dialect different than standard English

is a deficient language system. They maintained that standard English must be taught as a second language before reading is taught.

Wolfram (1970) recognized a second issue with respect to the sociological impact of teaching standard English to students who belong to a very distinct culture group. He questioned the teaching of standard English to speakers of low-status dialects on the grounds that the social and culture environment of dialectical speakers, and the peer group influence on these speakers can be expected to negate any attempt to acculturate them to standard English.

However, Cullinan (1974) pointed out that the black dialectical speaker is viewed by most people as being socially, intellectually, and vocationally handicapped. She contended that the dialect a person adopts indicates the role in life which a person has chosen. Many people are bidialectical or multidialectical; they are able to switch from one dialect to another depending upon the social group and situation in which they are involved.

A third basic issue is, what are the questions that need to be answered by further research? Wolfram (1970) suggested that studies need to be developed to show how much information is lost when a nonstandard English speaker

translates standard English into his own dialect. Wolfram (1970) and Cullinan (1974) raised the question about the qualifications and training of teachers in helping children to become bidialectical and developing the techniques and skills necessary for recognizing the distinct and unique features of a specific dialect. These techniques are needed so that dialectical miscues can be distinguished from reading miscues as a child learns to read.

Further research is needed to determine what kind of reading materials are most effective in teaching reading to nonstandard English speakers. Shuy (1969) suggested materials which have eliminated grammatical features which are not present in the dialect. In other words, the common core of standard and nonstandard English need to be used in beginning reading materials. Baratz (1969) recommended that beginning reading materials be written completely in the nonstandard dialect. Strickland (1974) was concerned about the fact that the above approaches assume that there is one universal nonstandard dialect which all black children speak. Moreover, Wolfram (1970) reported that the black community rejects the idea of black dialect readers on the grounds that the readers denote inferiority of the black race. It

is also noted that Ramsey (1972) indicated that materials should not be developed in black dialect for reading instruction since she found that children comprehend in equivalent ways whether they are reading standard English or black English material. Strickland also stated that materials based on the child's own language is a better alternative.

The importance of the many studies and writings about dialects were pertinent to the present study in that the Charlotte Park School served a group of children who spoke nonstandard English. Until all alternative approaches to dialectical reading materials are field tested in classrooms, the implications for the Charlotte Park teachers were a needed awareness of the developments and the questions raised. It was also noted that a major technique of beginning reading at Charlotte Park was using material based on the individual children's language as suggested by Strickland (1974). Cullinan (1974) paraphrased a basic belief of the Tennessee Right To Read Plan about language when she said,

> Bidialectism has seldom been increased by restricting oral language usage in the classroom, having students fill in blanks on sterile exercises, or making them strive toward tidy language usage considered correct in English textbooks (p. 7).

Reading Programs

The Webster Dictionary (1964) defined program as a course of action prepared or announced beforehand. It was noted that Niles (1970), Dechant (1964), Smith (1972), Stauffer (1969), Russell (1961), Barrett (1969), Chall (1965), and Raymond (1973) were concerned with the conditions, stages, characteristics, steps in implementation, goals, and evaluation procedures necessary for a good reading program. However, not one provided a definition of a reading program in terms of a precise course of action prepared beforehand. This omission was an indication of the general state of confusion and lack of cohesiveness which exist in school reading programs. There was also a noted need for accurate, operational definitions when describing research and descriptions of reading programs. The terms methods, approaches, programs, process and the names of specific materials were found to be used as having indiscriminate, synonymous and interchangable meanings in many current writings. For example, Chall (1967) classified the language experience approach as a reading program, while Russell (1961) classified the language experience approach as a method. Therefore, the current literature reflected

controversy, indecisiveness, and uncertainty as reading programs were reviewed.

Several basic questions about reading programs arise. First, what is a reading program? Robinson (1974) reported that when teachers were asked about the content of their reading program, the reply was almost always the name of a basal reader. Staiger (1958) found that 95% of teachers use a basal series. Russell (1961) stated that good teachers use basal readers as only part of a total reading program. He reasoned that most basal readers have been carefully written for gradation, variety, organization, and content but that a balanced program includes a great variety of other materials.

Harris (1972) summarized the new dimensions in basal readers as an increased emphasis on decoding in beginning reading, critical and creative reading, behaviorally stated objectives, less control on and richer vocabularies, multi-ethnic and multicultural content, and multimedia supplementary enrichment materials that are part of the basal series. He reported that new formats included paperbacks, sans serif type, illustrations which include realistic pictures, photographs, cartoons, abstract art, diagrams, maps, and charts. New readers tended to be numbered by levels rather than by specific grades.

These reports were relevant to this study in that the majority of the Charlotte Park faculty used a basal series as a part of their direct instruction in skills (Appendix B). However, it was the first time that the basal reader was not the only material used for many of the teachers.

The next question is, what is a reading program if it is more than a basal reading series? The literature revealed two different perspectives in answering this question. The first perspective was a broad, theoretical, overview of the entire reading curriculum for a school or school system. The second perspective viewed the reading program in terms of methods, materials, reading skills, and interactions between teachers and students at the local classroom level.

For instance, Barrett (1969) observed that reading programs tend to be developed according to the definition of the reading process that is adopted. He contended that those who view the reading process as one of decoding symbols, develop programs where sound/symbol skills are taught, oral reading is emphasized, and cognition is taught only in an incidental way. In contrast, those who define the reading process as being two dimensional and involving both perception and cognition, tend to place strong emphasis on meaning and levels of thought as well as word perception skills.

However, Barrett proposed that the reading process is three dimensional and includes perceptual, cognitive, and affective factors. Therefore, he designed a model for a reading program that included goals, activities, and evaluation procedures for three interdependent and interacting strands. His model included perceptual goals, cognitive goals, and affective goals. Barrett did not provide the procedures necessary to implement this type of program.

From a similar broad viewpoint, Russell (1961) delineated a reading program, first, in terms of the following horizontal stages: (1) readiness, (2) reading in the primary grades, and (3) reading in the intermediate and junior high grades. He described these stages as a continuous program where children move individually from initial success in readiness activities to the development of basic habits, skills, and attitudes of primary reading to the more mature and independent reading of the upper grades. Russell cautioned teachers to be aware that individuals progress along this continuum at different rates according to physical, mental, social-emotional, and psychological factors. However, it was noted that although he recognized the different rates of growth of children, Russell continued to list skills and expectations of first graders, second graders, third graders, etc.

Russell next defined the vertical phases of a reading program in terms of developmental sequences. These vertical phases included the building of meaning vocabularies, word recognition, study skills, personal growth through reading, and creative reading abilities. It was recognized at this point, that Russell's book, Children Learn To Read, was typical of the kind of text that is frequently used in the training of teachers of reading. Although paying lip service to the theoretical foundations of linguistics, psychology, sociology, and educational research, Russell was unable to adequately apply these findings to his description of an effective reading program. This conclusion was reached as a result of his heavy emphasis on words in isolation and the separation of content reading from the teaching of reading. He completely overlooked the interrelationships between oral language and the reading program after the readiness stage. Also, Niles (1970) and Spencer (1973) disagreed with Russell in that they insisted that the reading program is not limited to the elementary or junior high grades but needs to be extended to include high school, colleges, and adult education.

A different broad viewpoint of a reading program was presented by Dechant (1964) and Niles (1970). For example,

Niles proposed that the following six conditions were necessary for an effective reading program. First, educators need to continue to develop a better understanding of the reading process. Second, the physical and affective climate of the classroom, school, and community is one which values reading as a pleasurable and worthwhile activity and is built upon the positive attitudes and strengths of students, teachers, parents, and citizens of the community. Third, the reading curriculum is built upon stated behavioral objectives, involves many people, and is a unified plan from pre-reading to adult reading. Fourth, organizational patterns are adopted which lead to more individualization of instruction and more effective use of teacher time and competence. Fifth, ways are found for better selection and preparation of teachers. Sixth, improvements are made in selection of materials and the procedures for using them. These conditions which were summarized by Niles were pertinent to this study in that the Tennessee Right To Read Plan for an adequately balanced reading program incorporated each condition as part of the plan. In like manner, the Charlotte Park faculty studied the implications of each condition as they implemented the Right To Read program for the 1973-1974 school year.

Dechant agreed with Niles but was more explicit in describing a developmental reading program. He emphasized the interrelationship between reading and other communicative experiences. Flexible and differentiated instruction to meet the wide variation of student ability was also stressed. He felt that reading is a part of all content areas, not isolated as a subject. He also stressed the importance of continuous identification and remediation of deficiencies in reading.

In his book, Diagnosis and Remediation of Reading Disability, Dechant defined diagnosis as a "...blueprint for instruction..." which " ..identifies minor difficulties before they become disabilities (p. 2)." He contended that children become disabled readers because simple reading inadequacies are ignored and allowed to accumulate until it becomes too late to prevent failure. Dechant's overall description of a reading program reflected the general philosophy of the Tennessee Right To Read Plan, but like the other broad overviews presented, little assistance was given to teachers on how to implement these programs. When specific activities and procedures were discussed, there seemed to always be a gap between the stated theoretical beliefs and the suggested applications. Therefore, it was assumed

that there is a relationship between this gap and the perplexing reading problem in the United States.

Then, the next question is, what do we know about reading methods, approaches, materials, children, and teachers that give some clues as to how to close the gap between theory and practice? This part of the literature search covered those writings which were more narrow in perspective than the previous reports.

Reading Methods. Dechant (1969) classified word identification methods into two categories: (1) synthetic, and (2) analytic methods. The analytic methods begin with word parts like letters, symbol/sounds, or syllables. The synthetic methods deal with longer units like words, phrases, sentences, paragraphs, and stories. Chall (1967) examined the debate between advocates at one extreme who said that beginning reading is most effective when a pure synthetic approach is used and advocates at the other extreme who said that a sight-word and meaning method is best for beginning reading. Chall concluded that a code-emphasis method produces better results than a meaning-emphasis method for the beginning reading program. However, once a pupil learns decoding skills, further work on decoding is wasted time.

However, Goodman (1971) presented the view that there is no argument between whether to start with code or meaning because decoding means going from written languages to meaning itself. His rationale was that if a child moves from the code of reading to the code of oral language, then decoding has not taken place. The message or meaning has to be reconstructed before true decoding takes place. Lefevre (1964) added support to Goodman's view when he stated:

> ...alphabet and word methods of primary reading instruction naturally tend toward word and fragmented reading, especially if the child is not taught to read printed and written segments as graphic counterparts of the larger structures of his language (p. 5).

Lefevre stressed the importance of pitch, stress, and intonation in seeing whole language patterns which lead to meaning. He inferred that children are able to develop their own phonic generalizations by an inductive process without the direct instruction of these phonic rules.

Stauffer (1969) concurred with this viewpoint. He pointed out that a great number of children come to school who can already read and are able to formulate their own reliable system for decoding new words. Stauffer stated,

> Phonic techniques for word analysis can be taught and be quite functional when used as one of a combination of skills for dealing with unfamiliar words (p. 319).

However, he warned that children are not phoneticians and cannot be expected to use all the possible rules that a linguist would know. It was noted that Aaron (1960) found that even teachers and prospective teachers reveal a considerable lack of knowledge about phonic generalizations.

Stauffer (1969) also specified strategies other than phonic analysis which children use in perceiving words. These word recognition skills involve the ability to use context clues, structural analysis clues, and sight vocabulary clues. Chambers (1969), McCullough (1969), and Emans (1969) presented detailed explanations of these techniques and ways for teachers to assist students in developing these techniques.

Research studies that hypothesized one or the other method to be the answer were found to be inconclusive. For example, Chall (1967) cited 25 studies that compared systematic and intrinsic phonic methods for beginning reading to reach her conclusion that a systematic phonic method is most effective (pp. 109-111). Yet, Chall conceded that most existing research on beginning reading programs "...says nothing consistently...and if you select judiciously and avoid interpretations, you can make the research 'prove'

almost anything you want it to (p. 87)." In similar manner, Gates (1966) warned:

> ...even when the 'experimental method' surpasses the 'control method' by a wide margin, the way in which the experimental procedure confounded Johnny and Fred and Mary and Peter is concealed in the mass scores, however high the reliability of the averages may be (p. 19)

Gates asserted that seldom does one single variable account for differences in learning.

At this point, it was concluded that an eclectic approach to the teaching of reading emphasizes both analytical and synthetic methods of word perception. The amount of emphasis depends upon the insight and skill of the teacher in knowing her students.

Theoretical foundations and methods for teaching reading comprehension were reviewed next. Thorndike (1974) offered evidence that reading comprehension includes all the features of reasoning. He suggested that a child's reading comprehension is a reflection of the child's intellectual processes. Thorndike hypothesized that as a child's ability to think and read with understanding improves, his reasoning ability as measured by intelligence tests is also improved.

In similar manner, Dechant (1961) reviewed the interrelationship between comprehension and concept formation. He cited the study by Vineyard and Massey (1957) which

showed that there is a high relationship between comprehension and vocabulary proficiency. Therefore, Dechant concluded that a child's development of concepts is related to the development of vocabulary that is highly correlated with reading comprehension.

McCullough (1969) added clarity to Dechant's reasoning in her explanation of concept development. She stated that concepts are based upon direct experiences with objects, processes, and other lower-level concepts. This concept development is aided by language and other symbols. McCullough's description was compatible with both Piaget's and Bruner's cognitive theories. As a consequence, it was concluded that reading comprehension is highly interrelated with a child's total development.

Then, the next question is, can reading comprehension be taught? Stauffer (1969) claimed that his directed reading-thinking approach developed skills essential to comprehension. He stressed the importance of pupils being taught to examine, hypothesize, find proof, suspend judgement, and make decisions. Stauffer specified that this method of teaching is based on the problem-solving steps of: (1) confrontation by a problem, (2) reading to find a solution, and (3) finding or failing to find a solution.

His method is pertinent to this study in that the activities and objectives of the two components of the Tennessee Right To Read Plan which stressed content reading and research skills reflected Stauffer's specifications and emphasis.

Goodman (1973) provided further insight into strategies for assisting the child to comprehend when he denounced the idea that content textbooks teach meaning. He pointed out that vocabularies in different content textbooks vary and strategies for comprehending math, or social sciences, or home economics differ greatly. Therefore, all teachers need to introduce ideas and experiences that are related to the background and interest of the learners before reading ever takes place. In other words, concepts and language competency are developed, then comprehension through reading is possible.

Stauffer (1969), Niles (1970), and Herber (1970) supported Goodman's position. As a consequence, Herber delineated detailed methods for content teachers to use in guiding students to comprehend different content reading materials. He stressed the fact that each subject has its own technical vocabulary and strategies for thinking. Herber provided study guides and activities for elementary,

junior high, and secondary schools. Many of the suggested activities were used at the Charlotte Park Elementary School during the 1973-1974 school year.

Language Experience Approach. Van Allen (1973) maintained that reading is an integral part of the total communication instructional program. He recommended the language experience approach which is built upon the child's native language. He stated his rationale as:

> What I can think about, I can talk about
> What I can say, I can write
> What I can write, I can read
> I can read what I can write and what other people can write for me to read (p. 269).

Stauffer (1969), Dechant (1964), Smith (1972), and Raymond (1973) also supported the language experience approach in teaching children to read. Strickland (1974) and Jaggar (1974) stressed the importance of the language experience approach with children who speak Black English. Jaggar stated:

> Based on the recognition that reading is a language-based process and that the black child is a competent user of language, it is proposed that the child's language be used as the primary medium for teaching him to read (p. 88).

In addition, Levy (1974) reported the results of her study which showed that beginning basal readers do not

use sentence lengths or syntactic structures that correspond to the children's oral language patterns. She urged that teachers use the student's own speech to construct beginning reading materials.

The language experience approach was utilized by teachers at Charlotte Park as they implemented activities for direct instruction in skills, oral language development, content reading, and research projects. Therefore, the literature review on this approach was relevant to this study. However, it was noted that very few experimental research findings were available on this approach.

Affective Growth and Reading Attitudes

A survey of the literature revealed only a few research studies which focused on reading attitudes and affective growth. On the other hand, the need for affective development and the importance of reading attitudes were well established in the literature.

For example, Combs and Snygg (1959) concluded that the attitudes which are acquired along with subject matter is more pertinent than the subject matter itself. They proposed that a criterion for success of any technique learned at school is the degree to which the technique is voluntarily used by students in their daily life outside of school.

In a similar manner, Rogers (1961) presented the view that schools have the responsibility to provide educational opportunities which encourage each individual to reconstruct experiences by reorganizing his deepest self, his values, his attitudes, his very person. Rogers called this the process of becoming a more fully functioning person. As another example, Greer (1972) reasoned that the classroom reading program is a context which offers many opportunities to place as much emphasis on affective growth as is given to cognitive and physical growth. She defined affective growth as:

> ...a continuum of growth involving three basic elements, feeling-emotions-values, and a dynamic relationship among them. Individual growth along the continuum requires the active participation of the learner (p. 337)

She explained that the dynamic relationship between feelings, emotions, and values is one by which each shapes and is shaped by the other. The ability to feel influences the quantity and quality of emotions; the larger the collection of emotions is the broader the plane for feeling. When emotions and feelings cluster about and are associated with objects, people, states, and events, values are formed. Thus, the quality and quantity of emotions determine the depth of commitment to that value. Therefore, Greer

suggested that reading is an area which can promote the development of affect, since literature evokes feelings, emotions, and values.

Another facet of the importance of the affect in reading was presented by Eller (1973). He maintained that the affective life of a reader has a tremendous influence upon his assimilation of the printed word. Eller contended that the personality traits of a reader are directly related to the reading comprehension of the reader.

In support of this view, Janis (1954) found that readers with low self-esteem are less critical in their analysis of the validity of reading content. Also, Cooper and Johoda (1947) found that prejudiced persons do not comprehend the printed word without distortion. Manis (1961) found that readers distort the author's view in the direction of their own attitudes.

To add to the significance of affect, Huus (1969) pointed out the need for the development of the reading interests of students. She urged teachers to remember that the reading interests of boys and girls are highly personal and individual and that as students become older, their interests become more varied and differentiated.

From a similar point of view, Huck (1962) stressed the importance of helping students develop the taste for and the appreciation of good literature. She stated:

> It is not the number of books which we have read which is important, but the number of books which we have read that have made a difference in our lives (p. 289).

Another affective variable was discussed by Burrows (1969) when she emphasized the need for facilitating life-long values of reading. Burrows claimed that there are three phases to a climate which develops lifelong reading values. These phases are:

1. The child is exposed to the pleasures of reading at a young age.
2. The family and community of readers value reading.
3. The reader extends his reading habits throughout a lifetime.

At this point, it was recognized that affect was discussed by the use of many terms and through many approaches. However, a unified and integrated framework for conceptualizing affect was missing. Therefore, the question is asked, what is the relationship between attitudes, interests, appreciations, values, and affective growth?

Krathwohl, Bloom, and Masia (1964) described affective behavior as that which emphasizes a feeling tone, an emotion, or a degree of acceptance or rejection. Thus, learning activities which develop attitudes, interests, values, and appreciation are in the affective area. The five levels of affective behavior are: (1) receiving, (2) responding, (3) valuing, (4) organizing, and (5) characterization. These levels extend along a continuum from a simple awareness at one extreme to complete internalization at the other.

Darling (1969) clarified Krathwohl's affective taxonomy in terms of what it means for reading. He stated:

> One way to view the taxonomy is in terms of personal involvement. If a learner is sporadic in his attentiveness during reading, if he is receiving sometimes - but not all the time - then his degree of personal involvement is very low. On the other hand, if he is an avid reader and seeks to immerse himself in reading, then he is committed to reading and is personally involved to a high degree. The taxonomy represents a continuum of varying degrees of personal involvement (p. 304).

Darling suggested that the first three levels of receiving, responding, and valuing are evaluated by external measures. For example, the teacher can spot a readers awareness, willingness to receive, and controlled attention by observing his overt behavior during reading instruction. These are identified as behaviors which indicate the receiving level of affect. In a similar way, teachers can

determine if children are responding by observing their willingness to respond when called upon or by the reader volunteering to respond during reading activities. Darling also proposed that when teachers observe readers choosing books during free time and beginning to use books as a means to solve problems, they can determine that the readers are valuing reading.

According to Darling, the last two levels of Krathwohl's taxonomy are evaluated by internal measures. He submitted the potential of Rath's (et al., 1966) clarifying response strategies in evaluating the levels of valuing, organizing, and characterization. He noted that the valuing level is the link between awareness and internalization on the continuum.

Thus, when a reader is asked to use what he has read to help him conceptualize what he values and organize his value system, he is functioning at the higher levels of the continuum. Darling classified Rath's questions of clarification to determine the level of affect in Krathwohl's taxonomy. For instance, questions like, "Is this what you said about that book?" and "Where do you suppose you first got interested in that kind of story?" help to determine a reader's ability to conceptualize a value. In a similar

way, the question, "What about this book makes it stand out from other books?" helps a child to fit his choice in with his organized set of values.

As a result of Krathwohl's taxonomy for conceptualizing affective behavior, Rath's clarification strategies and Darling's interpretation, the following assumptions were reached for this study. Attitudes, interests, appreciation, and feelings are indicators of a person's values. These values are related to a person's affective behavior which indicate a person's affective development and growth pattern. However, it was recognized that these assumptions contain some elusive terms and further clarification of the concept of affective development is needed.

These writings on affective behavior were pertinent to this study since the reading attitudes of the Charlotte Park students were evaluated by external measures which assumed that observable behavior is a valid indicator of attitudes. Darling's suggestions for evaluating affective development supported this assumption.

The last question is, what can reading teachers do to promote the affective growth of students? As an answer, Huus (1969) specified that teachers can help to build positive attitudes toward reading by: (1) surrounding

students with books, (2) being a good model, (3) reading to children, and (4) introducing children to a wide variety and the best literature possible.

In support of the goal to build positive attitudes, Long and Henderson (1973) found that time spent reading outside of school is closely correlated with favorable attitudes toward reading. They also found that lower socioeconomic factors were related negatively to time spent reading outside of school. Therefore, they recommended that schools provide more blocks of time for independent reading.

A related finding was reported by Johns and Reed (1972) who concluded that suburban students responded more positively to oral reading by teachers than inner-city students. However, it was noted that this study involved inner-city and suburban students who were segregated.

These findings, therefore, are relevant to this study in which inner-city and suburban students were integrated and also read to daily by their teachers. Other relevant factors were that Charlotte Park students were provided time, an abundant variety of books, and good literature for pleasure reading.

Another finding which was important to this study was reported by Rose, Zimet and Bloom (1972). They found that

even first grade students have definite content preferences for reading. The researchers suggested that teachers need to provide children with choices in the content that they read.

A similar survey done by the Beta Upsilon Chapter of Pi Lambda Theta (1974) indicated that children's interests of all ages are varied and yet quite definite. The survey results indicated that six, seven, eight, and nine year olds like books because of the content. Girls mentioned plot and characters as an interest factor more often than boys. Yet, boys preferred science, sports, and transportation more often than girls. This survey indicated that children have more positive attitudes toward reading when their individual interests and tastes are recognized.

The literature review on how to promote reading attitudes and affective growth was inconclusive and disjointed. However, the few writings which were available indicated that the affect is an important variable in reading and an integral part of any reading curriculum. Therefore, this study focused on the potential of the Tennessee Right To Read Plan to promote positive reading attitudes which are part of affective development.

Summary of the Review of Literature

There was evidence in the literature that a trend was occurring in reading toward a more adequate and integrated understanding of the behavioral operations upon which language and reading are based. This was a move away from a vast accumulation of research efforts in the past which were mostly method studies. The current trend reflected an effort to identify, evaluate, and integrate knowledge from the many disciplines which are relevant to reading.

As a result of this effort, there was a deeper understanding of the complexity of the reading process. Goodman's psycholinguistic model of the reading process was an example. Another development was the effort to synthesize learning theories, language acquisition theories, and reading theories into a comprehensive whole. A consequence was the recognition of the relationship between oral language, cognitive learning, and reading.

The literature also revealed the significance of sociological variables that influence how an individual learns to read. The whole question of dialects and socioeconomic factors as determinants in reading remained unanswered.

However, it was noted that there remained a gap between the theoretical bases of reading and the actual school reading programs. Applied research at the local school level was lacking. Intensive case, observational, and longitudinal studies are possible approaches in closing this gap.

Another area in which there was a deficit in knowledge was the affective realm of reading. Many of the available writings were ineffective in defining, measuring, and planning instruction for affective development.

In conclusion, the literature suggested that there is no simple breakthrough in reading. However, the evidence indicated that the Tennessee Right To Read Plan for an adequately balanced reading program was a step toward a more effective approach to reading.

CHAPTER 3

PROCEDURES

Faculty Preparation

During August of 1973, the entire faculty of the Charlotte Park Elementary School participated in a two week workshop in which the Tennessee Right To Read Plan was presented. Each component was discussed and analyzed with respect to the Charlotte Park students, teachers, and parent expectations for their children. As a result, the following objectives were cooperatively formulated:

1. To plan a skills program that will help each child become competent in word attack skills, comprehension skills, vocabulary development, and study skills
2. To help each child become competent in oral expression by conducting rap sessions with the children
3. To provide experiences from which each child will gain confidence in his/her own creative endeavors
4. To help children develop the habit of personal reading

5. To encourage each child to learn to love reading by developing Read for Fun areas in each room
6. To provide children with time to enjoy being children by planning for choice activities
7. To emphasize reading in all the content areas and to provide opportunities for meaningful research based on the children's interests

The teachers worked in small groups to design short-range and long-range plans for implementing the Right To Read program during the 1973-74 school year. Time was provided for teachers to organize materials and equipment, and to help each other in setting up the physical learning environment in each room. Small group, study sessions included the presentation of various methods, approaches, and materials for teaching reading.

Throughout the 1973-74 school year, faculty planning sessions were held regularly for the purpose of sharing ideas and evaluating the progress of the program. Several teachers asked for professional leave days to participate in study sessions during which the various theories of language acquisition, cognition, and the reading process were examined. Professional books and journals were circulated among the staff for self-study during the year.

Teachers also planned regularly on a weekly basis with other teachers in their respective grade groups. The supportive services of the director of elementary education, the elementary consultant, the social worker, the attendance worker, the psychologist, and content subject supervisors for the Charlotte Park School were requested as needed.

In contrast, the Ransom Elementary faculty did not have a two week workshop preceeding the beginning of school. Although the Ransom teachers planned together during faculty meetings, they did not formulate a common set of objectives for the school reading program. (Appendix C shows the results of a survey of reading materials used by Ransom teachers during the 1973-74 school year.)

Selection of Subjects

The experimental group included 25 third and 25 fourth grade Charlotte Park students who were matched with 25 third and 25 fourth grade Ransom students as the control subjects. The experimental and control subjects were matched according to stanines which were determined by scores on the Metropolitan Achievement Tests and the Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills which were respectively administered to both

groups of third and fourth grade students in the fall of 1973. The subjects in the experimental groups were also matched as closely as possible to the control subjects according to grade, sex, and race at the time of the collection of data. A balance was planned so that at each grade level, five students were selected who scored at the lower stanine level, five students were selected who scored at the higher stanine level, and fifteen were selected who scored near the average stanine level. This scheme was used for both the experimental and the matched control groups. Data on the reading stanines grade, sex, and race of subjects are summarized in Table 1 and Table 2.

TABLE 1

Summary of Matched Sample Characteristics

for Third Grade

Stanine Intervals	Third Grade N	M N	F N	B N	W N
1 - 3	5	2	3	4	1
4 - 7	15	9	6	6	9
8 - 9	5	1	4	0	5
TOTAL	25	12	13	10	15

Note.-The characteristics were identical for the sample groups from the experimental and the control schools.

TABLE 2

Summary of Matched Sample Characteristics

for Fourth Grade

Stanine Intervals	Third Grade N	M N	F N	B N	W N
1 - 3	5	2	3	5	0
4 - 7	17	9	8	3	14
8 - 9	3	1	2	0	3
TOTAL	25	12	13	8	17

Note.-The characteristics were identical for the sample groups from the experimental and the control schools.

Measurement Instruments

The Vocabulary and Comprehension subtests of the 1965 Gates-MacGinitie Tests, Primary C (Form 1) were administered to all third grade subjects. The Vocabulary and Comprehension subtests of Survey D (Form 1M) of the 1965 Gates-MacGinitie Tests were administered to all fourth grade subjects.

A reliability coefficient of .85 was obtained for the Primary C Vocabulary subtests when alternate forms were administered on two separate days. This reliability study was reported in the Technical Manual for the tests (Gates and

MacGinitie, 1965). The same study revealed an alternate form reliability coefficient of .87 for the Comprehension subtests. Reliability coefficients of .85 and .83 were respectively found for the Vocabulary and Comprehension subtests of Survey D in the same study.

Lennon (1969) reported studies by Hunt, Stoker, and Kropp that seem to indicate that measurements of numerous and complex factors in reading comprehension and verbal ability are measuring the same abilities that are denoted in the more simple tests which attempt to measure only vocabulary knowledge and literal comprehension. He concluded that a general verbal factor or vocabulary knowledge and literal comprehension can be measured reliably. He suggested that ability measured by these two factors are highly correlated with the more complex abilities which have not been reliably measured. Therefore, for the purpose of this study, the rationale was adopted that vocabulary knowledge and comprehension measurements are the best indicators of total reading ability that is presently available.

A second group of data was collected from the Rowell's Scale of Reading Attitude Based on Behavior, which was rated by classroom teachers for both the experimental and control groups during May of the 1973-74 school year.

This attitude scale was developed by Rowell (1972) and based on the Likert design. Items one through six described reading situations that take place during direct instruction in skills; items seven through thirteen reflected reading for pleasure situations; items fourteen through sixteen related to activities in reading in the content areas. Each item was rated with one of five possible responses. The most positive response was scored as five, and the least positive response was scored as one. The three subscales of this instrument reflected three of the major components of the Tennessee Right To Read Plan. This reflection was a deciding factor in selecting this scale.

The reliability of the scale was determined by having four pairs of supervising teachers and student teachers rate children according to the scale. Rowell reported that careful measures were taken to prevent the pairs from talking about the ratings. Therefore, four separate correlation coefficients were obtained. The average of the coefficients was .88.

The validity of the scale was determined by comparing reading attitude scores given separately by the supervising teachers for each student with the scores given by the student teachers using the Rowell scale. The second set of

reading attitude scores were based on the criterion of children's interest in books and preferences for reading as a subject. The average of the coefficients of correlation was .70.

Each individual item on the scale was also analyzed according to the percentage of agreement by the supervising teachers and student teachers. It was found that on each of the 16 items, 77% to 100% of the ratings were identical or different by only one unit.

Design

The research design for this study was the post observation matched groups design. The experimental and control groups were matched to control for the variables of sex, race, grade, and reading ability.

An item analysis of Rowell's Scale of Reading Attitudes Based on Behavior yielded significant coefficients of reliability for each of the three subscales. The coefficient of reliability for the total scale was .97, as measured by Cronbach's Alpha. The results of this analysis as reported in Table 3 indicated that the total scale measured accurately and consistently from one time to another. It was also noted that the three subscales were equally reliable.

TABLE 3

Coefficients of Reliability for the Attitude Scale

SUBSCALES	COEFFICIENTS
Direct Instruction in Skills	.95
Reading for Pleasure	.94
Reading in the Content Areas	.95
TOTAL SCALE	.97

A single classification of analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to test the two hypotheses of this study. Six dependent variables were analyzed separately by this test. These variables were the raw scores for vocabulary and comprehension from the Gates-MacGinitie tests. The other four variables were the attitude scores for direct instruction in skills, pleasure reading, content reading, and the total scale. The .05 level was established as the criterion of significance for each analysis. Also, the group mean for each variable was computed for the experimental and control schools.

The restatement of the hypotheses was:

Null Hypothesis 1. There will be no significant difference of scores for the reading achievement of third and fourth grade students at the Charlotte Park Elementary School when compared to the reading achievement of third and fourth grade students at the Ransom Elementary School.

Null Hypothesis 2. There will be no significant difference of the reading attitudes of third and fourth grade students at the Charlotte Park School when compared to the reading attitudes of third and fourth grade students at the Ransom Elementary School.

CHAPTER 4

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

Results

Table 4 presents a summary of the results of the analysis of variance for each of the dependent variables.

TABLE 4

Summary of ANOVA Results

Variable	Source	Mean Square	df	F-Ratio
Vocabulary	Total	130.57	99.	
	Groups	40.95	1.	.31
	Error (G)	131.49	98.	
Comprehension	Total	125.46	99.	
	Groups	388.11	1.	3.16
	Error (G)	122.78	98.	
Direct Instruction In Skills-Attitudes	Total	24.07	99.	
	Groups	675.99	1.	38.81*
	Error (G)	17.42	98.	
Reading for Pleasure-Attitudes	Total	43.74	99.	
	Groups	1056.24	1.	31.61*
	Error (G)	33.41	98.	
Reading in the Content Areas-Attitudes	Total	14.51	99.	
	Groups	234.09	1.	19.07*
	Error (G)	12.29	98.	
Total Attitude Scale	Total	209.34	99.	
	Groups	5446.44	1.	34.93*
	Error (G)	155.90	98.	

*Statistically significant at the .05 level

There was no statistical, significant difference in either the vocabulary or the comprehensive analysis signifying that the Null Hypothesis 1 was supported by the data. The experimental group did not score significantly higher over the control group in vocabulary knowledge, ($F=.31$, $df=1/98$, $p > 0.50$). There also was no significant difference ($F=3.16$, $df=1/98$, $p > .07$) in the comprehension scores of the experimental group when compared to the control group However, it was noted that the comprehension F-ratio was much higher than vocabulary and relatively closer to significance of difference at the .05 level.

Null Hypothesis 2 was not supported by the data. The F-ratios of 38.81, 31.61, 19.07, and 34.93 for the respective variables of direct instruction in reading, pleasure reading, content reading, and total attitude scale were significantly different at the .05 level. This data indicated that the attitude ratings of the experimental group were definitely more positive than the control group. Thus the Null Hypothesis 2 was rejected.

Table 5 presents the summary of the experimental (E) and control (C) group means for each variable.

TABLE 5

Summary of the Experimental (E) and Control (C) Means for the Six Dependent Variables

Variable	E Means	C Means
Vocabulary	31.16	29.88
Comprehension	31.40	27.46
Direct Instruction in Skills-Attitudes	26.78	21.58
Reading for Pleasure-Attitudes	27.84	21.34
Reading in the Content Areas-Attitudes	11.06	8.00
Total Attitude Scale	65.68	50.92

The group mean for Charlotte Park students, the experimental group, was higher in each case. With the vocabulary and comprehension variables, the higher means were especially noted in that it indicated a possibility that the Right To Read Plan was the factor which accounted for the higher means.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

It was the purpose of this study to investigate the effect that the eclectic approach of the Tennessee Right To Read Plan had on the reading achievement and reading attitudes of the third and fourth grade students at the Charlotte Park Elementary School in Nashville, Tennessee.

The procedures used for the investigation included a post observation matched groups design. The experimental and control sample groups were matched according to grade level, sex, race and reading achievement or aptitude stanine scores. Data was collected from the vocabulary and comprehension subtests of the 1965 Gates-MacGinitie Tests and from Rowell's Scale of Reading Attitude Based on Behavior. A single classification of analysis of variance was used to analyze the six dependent variables in order to test the two null hypotheses of the study.

The first hypothesis which stated that there would be no significant difference in reading achievement was supported by the data. However, there was evidence that the group means of the experimental group on the vocabulary and comprehension subtests were slightly higher than the control

group. This central tendency data was interpreted to mean that a positive effect of the Right To Read Plan on reading achievement cannot be completely ruled out. It is possible that a significant effect would develop over an extended period of time which is longer than one year. A follow-up investigation of the long-term effects of the Right To Read Plan on achievement is recommended before a definite conclusion is reached.

The second hypothesis which stated that there would be no significant difference in reading attitudes was not supported by the data. In each of the three subscales, there was a significant difference.

However, it was found that the greatest difference was in the subscale which measured attitudes in the direct instruction of reading skills. The smallest difference was found in the content reading subscale. Further study is needed to determine if these results indicated that the content reading component of the Right To Read program at Charlotte Park was not as effective as the direct instruction component. Another factor to be considered is the possibility that the teachers who rated the attitudes placed more importance on the attitudes in direct, instruction of skills. Another explanation for these findings is that teachers

are more cognizant of students' behavior in direct instruction than they are about behavior in reading in the content areas. These alternative explanations are questions to be considered in future study.

Although the results are very tentative due to the basic assumptions and limitations of this study, the findings suggest that the Tennessee Right To Read Plan provided certain variables or combinations of variables which made a significant difference in the positive reading attitudes of the third and fourth grade students at Charlotte Park. Therefore, a tentative conclusion is that the eclectic approach of the Tennessee Right To Read Plan has a positive effect on the reading attitudes of both black and white students from lower and middle-class socioeconomic backgrounds and from inner-city and suburban homes in Tennessee.

Indication for Future Research

However, several basic questions remain unanswered. First, what is the long-term effect of the Tennessee Right To Read Plan? Second, what effect did the Right To Read Plan have on teacher competency and teacher attitude? The last question is, what effect would the Tennessee Right To Read Plan have on other students in other sections of the country? Hopefully, future studies will provide answers to these questions.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

MEMORANDUM FROM THE TENNESSEE COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION INITIATING THE RIGHT TO READ PLAN

MEMORANDUM*

TO: All County, City, and Special School District Superintendents

FROM: Benjamin E. Carmichael, Commissioner of Education

SUBJECT: Tennessee's Right To Read Plan

The pocketed folder of brochures entitled "Begin in Delight-End in Wisdom" is a part of the Tennessee Right To Read Plan. The brochures have been designed to initiate a state-wide study program among all people concerned with developing more effective reading instruction.

Sound programs in reading must be built upon (1) an adequate concept of the reading process; (2) an application of the available knowledge concerning language acquisition; (3) the provision of the four components essential for adequate and balanced reading programs; (4) an understanding of the limitations of standardized testing; and (5) an objective evaluation of research.

Diverting money, interest, professional talents and rewards to programs narrowly and primarily focused on no higher goal than raising the achievement test scores of students is questionable. Only reading programs broadly conceived and imaginatively carried out will insure the children of Tennessee their right to achieve the highest level of literacy of which they are mentally capable.

In order to clarify the concepts presented in the brochures, the Department of Education will sponsor during the 1972-73 school year regional conferences in which demonstrations of adequate and balanced reading programs for all students will be given. The demonstrations will be open to representatives from each local system. In the schools and school systems serving as demonstration centers, you will see reading programs which have been developed as a part of the regular instructional program within existing local school district resources.

*Retyped copy of the original memorandum of December 18, 1972

APPENDIX B

INTEGRATION AND SOCIOECONOMIC STATISTICS FOR THE CHARLOTTE PARK AND RANSOM SCHOOLS

APPENDIX B

INTEGRATION AND SOCIOECONOMIC STATISTICS FOR THE CHARLOTTE PARK AND RANSOM SCHOOLS

TABLE 6

Integration Statistics

School	Black	White	Total	Black %
Charlotte Park	214	375	589	36.1
Ransom	84	143	227	37.0

Note.-Information was reprinted from the 1973-74 Pupil Integration Report prepared by Joseph R. Garrett, Director of the Division of Public Accounting. Transfers and Records of the Metropolitan Nashville Public Schools.

TABLE 7

Socioeconomic Statistics

Public Schools Serving Children in Eligible Areas for Title I Activities				
Name of Public School	Total Number of Children Enrolled in Each School	Number of Children Residing In Attendance Area From Low-Income Families: Total	Number of Children Residing In Attendance Area From Low-Income Families	Percent of Low-Income Children
Charlotte Park	589	645	94	14.57
Ransom	227	282	83	29.43

Note.-Information was reprinted from Project Higher Ground by the Title I staff of the Metropolitan Nashville School System.

APPENDIX C

INVENTORY OF MATERIALS USED BY TEACHERS AT THE CHARLOTTE PARK AND RANSOM SCHOOLS

APPENDIX C

INVENTORY OF MATERIALS USED
BY TEACHERS AT THE
CHARLOTTE PARK AND RANSOM SCHOOLS

	Ransom	Charlotte Park
Harper & Row Design for Reading Series	X	X
Harper & Row Phonics Workbooks	X	X
Random House High Intensity Materials	X	X
Harper & Row Content Readers		X
Scholastic Individualized Program		X
Pleasure reading materials	X	X
Language experience stories		X
Teacher-made materials		X
Reading Games		X
Programmed Sullivan Readers		X
Supplementary Readers		X
Barnell-Loft Programmed Materials	X	X
Audio Reading Progress Labs	X	X
Cates-Peardon Reading Program	X	X
Random House Reading Programs (Red, Orange, Yellow, Green)	X	X

	Ransom	Charlotte Park
Michigan Language Program	X	
Random House Skilpacers		X
Ginn Word Enrichment Program	X	
Target Programs (Red, Yellow, & Blue)	X	X
SRA - Ia, Ib, Ic, IIa, IIb	X	X
Durrell Word Study	X	
Talking Alphabet-Scott Foresman	X	X
Singer Consonant Module		X
Singer Vowel Module		X

APPENDIX D

READING ASSESSMENT SOURCES USED BY CHARLOTTE PARK TEACHERS

APPENDIX D

READING ASSESSMENT SOURCES
USED BY CHARLOTTE PARK TEACHERS

Harper & Row Mastery Tests	Criterion referenced Check the pupil's proficiency in the use of skills taught
Classroom Reading Inventory by Nick Silvaroli	Determines reading grade level of pupils
Basic Test of Reading Comprehension from Random House	Placement of student in the appropriate level of the High Intensity Reading Systems
Random House High Intensity Check-In Tests	Criterion referenced Measures pupil's mastery or lack of mastery of 500 skills covered in the High Intensity Reading Systems
Metropolitan Achievement Tests	Measures pupil's reading progress and helps to identify strengths and weaknesses
Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills	Assesses level of intellectual development and predicts potential rate of progress
Teacher Observation	Informal evaluation of reading needs according to observed behavior
In-school Reading Skill Check List	Cumulative check list of skills mastered which is kept in cumulative record

APPENDIX E

READING ASSESSMENT SOURCES USED BY RANSOM TEACHERS

APPENDIX E

READING ASSESSMENT SOURCES
USED BY RANSOM TEACHERS

Basic Test of Reading Comprehension from Random House	Placement of student in the appropriate level of the High Intensity Reading Systems
Random House High Intensity Check-In Tests	Criterion referenced Measures pupil's mastery or lack of mastery of 500 skills covered in the High Intensity Reading Systems
Metropolitan Achievement Tests	Measures pupil's reading progress and helps to identify strengths and weaknesses
Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills	Assesses level of intellectual development and predicts potential rate of progress
Teacher Observation	Informal evaluation of reading needs according to observed behavior

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VITA

Janice Mickle was born in Nashville, Tennessee, on April 6, 1938. She attended elementary and secondary schools in that city. She moved with her family to Oak Ridge, Tennessee, in 1955, and she graduated from Oak Ridge High School in 1956. The following September, she entered the University of Tennessee, majoring in elementary education. In September of 1958, she transferred to the George Peabody College for Teachers, and she received a Bachelor of Science degree in elementary education in August, 1961.

In September of 1962, she was employed by the public school system in Huntsville, Alabama as a third grade teacher. In September of 1965, she was employed by the public school system in Nashville, Tennessee. In March of 1970, she was appointed as an elementary consultant for the District III area of that system.

She entered the University of Tennessee at Nashville in September of 1971, and she received the Masters of Science degree in elementary education in August of 1974. She is a member of the Delta Kappa Gamma International Society.