



American
Reading Forum

Yearbook

2002

2001 Contenders/Winners: Children's Book Awards in Five English Speaking Countries

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Thousands of books for children are published each year around the world, and some of the best of those published in English in other countries are also published or distributed in the United States. Teachers may use such books to broaden children's knowledge of other people and other places as well as to develop an understanding that people of other geographic areas, cultures, ethnic groups, and races are more alike than they are different. Many of the award winning books and those listed as finalists for awards are great for children's recreational reading, and they also can be used in instruction in the same way books from the United States are used.

Fifteen years ago, in 1986, the presenters began their collection and study of selected children's book award winners from five mainly English speaking countries: Australia, Canada, Great Britain, New Zealand, and the United States. They also added the previous five years (1981-1985) of winners to the collection. In 1992, they began to collect and study finalists (shortlisted and honor books) as well as the winners. Over the 21 years, the collection totaled 740 titles.

Awards from non-United States countries selected for the study were those the presenters concluded were most like the American Library Association's Caldecott and Newbery Medals. Each country has an award for illustration and another for quality of literature. However, Australia has two *in-between* awards (A2 and A3 below). The Early Childhood Award is new for 2001. The Library Associations in four of the countries administer the awards; in Australia, the Children's Book Council of Australia, which includes librarians, gives the awards.

The twelve awards from the five countries are these:

A1. AUSTRALIA: PICTURE BOOK OF THE YEAR (Children ' s Book Council of Australia)

A2. AUSTRALIA: BOOK OF THE YEAR-EARLY CHILDHOOD (Children ' s Book Council
of Australia)

A3. AUSTRALIA: BOOK OF THE YEAR-YOUNGER READERS (Children ' s Book Council
of Australia)

A4. AUSTRALIA: BOOK OF THE YEAR-OLDER READERS (Children ' s Book Council of
Australia)

C1. CANADA: AMELIA FRANCES HOWARD-GIBBON AWARD (Canadian Library
Association)

C2. CANADA: BOOK OF THE YEAR FOR CHILDREN (Canadian Library Association)

G1. GREAT BRITAIN: KATE GREENAWAY MEDAL (Library Association-British)

G2. GREAT BRITAIN: CARNEGIE MEDAL (Library Association-British)

N1. NEW ZEALAND: RUSSELL CLARK AWARD (Library & Information Association of
New Zealand Aotearoa)

N2. NEW ZEALAND: Esther Glen Award (Library & Information Association of New
Zealand Aotearoa)

U1. UNITED STATES: CALDECOTT MEDAL (American Library Association)

U2. UNITED STATES: NEWBERY MEDAL (American Library Association)

The 2001 announcement dates from the five countries were the following:

AUSTRALIA (Shortlists - April 10; winners/honor books - August 16)

CANADA (Winners/honor books - May 30)

GREAT BRITAIN (Shortlists - May 1; winners/honor books - July 12)

NEW ZEALAND (Shortlists - August 20; winners/honor books - September 20)

UNITED STATES (Winners/honor books - January 15)

This presentation covers the 2001 winners and contenders of the 12 awards/medals. Attention will focus on the availability of the 68 non-United States books in the United States and on literary types (genre) of the total collection of 77 books (74 separate titles since three books are listed for two awards each). Then brief reviews will be given for each of the winners and finalists (shortlisted and/or honor books).

Four previous presentations on parts of this collection of winners and finalists have been made at the American Reading Forum. These reports are summarized in the following American Reading Forum Yearbooks:

American Reading Forum Yearbook. Volume XXI (pp. 125-148) (2001) Three years (1998-2000) of children's book award winners/contenders from five English speaking countries.

American Reading Forum Yearbook. Volume XIX (pp. 58-71) (1998) 1997 contenders/winners: Children's book awards in five English speaking countries.

American Reading Forum Yearbook. XVIII (pp.52-71) (1996) Children's book awards and 1995 shortlists from five English speaking countries.

American Reading Forum Yearbook. Volume XI (pp.68-80) (1991) Literacy through literature: International award winning children's books.

Sources of the books are the following: Australia - Angus & Robertson Bookworld, Melbourne; Canada - Mable's Fables, Toronto; Great Britain - Harrods, London; New Zealand -

Children ' s Bookshop, Posonby (Auckland suburb); and United States - local bookstores.

Published/Distributed in the United States

Many of the books from other countries are either published or distributed in the United States. Table 1 summarizes the U.S. availability data on the 68 books from the four non-U.S. countries. It may be noted that 90% of the books from Canada and 80% of those from Great Britain are either published or distributed in the United States. Less than one-half (42%) of the Australian books and less than a fourth (22%) of the New Zealand titles are available in the United States. More of the illustrated books (71%) make their way to the United States than do the quality of literature titles (55%).

Table1.

Published/Distributed in the United States,

2001 (Non-U.S. Countries)

	Illustration		Quality of Literature		Total	
Australia	2 of 6	33%	8 of 18	44%	10 of 24	42%
Canada	10 of 10	100%	8 of 10	80%	18 of 20	90%
Great Britain	7 of 7	100%	5 of 8	63%	12 of 15	80%
New Zealand	1 of 5	20%	1 of 4	25%	2 of 9	22%
	20 of 28	71%	22 of 40	55%	42 of 68	62%

Genre of Illustration and Quality of Literature Titles

Table 2A presents data on genre of the 32 winners/contenders for illustration awards, and Table 2B contains genre information on the 45 quality of literature titles. The overwhelming

majority of the illustrated books, as reported in Table 24, are classified as fantasy (56%) with realistic fiction (16%) taking second place. For the quality of literature titles, just the opposite was found: 53% realistic fiction and 29% fantasy.

Table 2A.

Genre (Illustration)	Aust.	Can.	GB	NZ	US	Total	%
Fantasy	4	2	6	4	2	18	56
Realistic fiction	1	3	0	1	0	5	16
Verse	0	3	0	0	1	4	13
Legend/fairytale	0	2	0	0	0	2	6
Information/ biography	1	0	0	0	1	2	6
Historical fiction	0	0	1	0	0	1	3
Total	6	10	7	5	4	32	

Table 2B.

Genre (Quality of Literature)	Aust.	Can.	GB.	NZ.	US	Total	%
Realistic fiction	11	3	2	3	5	24	53
Fantasy	5	2	5	1	0	13	29
Historical fiction	0	4	1	0	0	5	11
Information	1	0	0	0	0	1	2
Verse	1	0	0	0	0	1	2
Fairytale	0	1	0	0	0	1	2
Total	18	10	8	4	5	45	

Brief Reviews of the 2001 Winners/Contenders

Brief reviews of the 77 winners and contenders are presented here. The reviews should assist teachers, librarians, parents, and teachers of teachers in book selection. Some titles have specific or general geographic settings; some deal with cultural, ethnic, and racial differences; and some help readers to realize that people from different places and different cultures, ethnic groups, or races have many more similarities than they have differences.

Following each review, the genre of the book is given in parentheses. For those non-U.S. titles available in the United States, names of the U.S. publishers or distributors are listed. Interest levels, cited in parentheses in terms of grade levels, are cited for those titles for which information could be located. This information was obtained primarily from *Books in Print* and from selected issues of *Publishers Weekly*. An asterisk (*) indicates the winner in each of the 12 award lists.

A1. AUSTRALIA: 2001 Winner/Contenders - *Picture Book of the Year* (CBCA)

*Margaret Wild/Ron Brooks (ill.) *Fox*. Allen & Unwin. (US: Kane/Miller, 2001) (2-up)

One-eyed Dog helps crippled Magpie, and lonely Fox comes along and interferes. Striking illustrations in collage and mixed media reinforce the text, which is printed in child-like manuscript. (Also finalist in Great Britain for 2000 Kate Greenaway Medal) (Fantasy)

Cathy Applegate/Dee Huxley (ill.) *Rain Dance*. Scholastic Australia. After two long years without rain, a young girl, her mother, her baby sister, and her dog celebrate the drenching rain on their isolated farm located in the Australian outback. Orange, yellow, brown, and blue pastel and pencil illustrations depict the desolate desert setting. (Realistic fiction)

Matt Ottley. *Faust's Party*. Hodder. In this tale in brief text and colorful pictures, watchdog Faust, left in charge of the house when his family goes picnicking, tries hard to expel invading mischievous creatures. (Fantasy)

Tobby Riddle. *The Singing Hat*. Penguin. (US: FSG, 2001) (PS-2) When a bird builds its nest on the head of sleeping Colin Jenkins, his decision not to disturb the bird and its egg brings him a lot of attention, favorable and unfavorable, and drastically changes his life. Riddle's cartoonist background is reflected in the illustrations. (Fantasy)

Elaine Russell. *A Is for Aunt*. ABC Books. Using the letters of the alphabet for organization, the writer/illustrator tells in small bits (one story per letter) about her family life growing up in an Australian bush mission. Childlike illustrations support the text. (Autobiography/Alphabet book).

Shaun Tan. *The Lost Thing*. Lothian. On holiday, a young boy, looking for bottle caps

to add to his collection, finds a Alost thing@ on the beach, in this humorous story with surreal illustrations and manuscript text. (Fantasy)

A2. AUSTRALIA: 2001 Winner/Contenders - *Book of the Year: Early Childhood* (CBCA)

*Catherine Jinks/Andrew McLean (ill.) *You' ll Wake the Baby*. Penguin. Mum is constantly cautioning boisterous Andy and Annie not to make noise or they ' ll wake the baby, in this story accompanied by expressive pictures. When the children finally fall asleep, Mum cautions noisy baby not to wake the sleeping children. (Realistic fiction)

Bob Graham. *Max*. Walker. (US: Candlewick, 2000) (PS-2) Young Max, son of superpersons Captain Lightning and Madam Thunderbolt, is precocious in developing except in the important skill of flying, even with parental coaching. Ink and watercolor illustrations in a variety of page layouts will appeal to children. (Fantasy)

Alison Lester. *Ernie Dances to the Didgeridoo*. Hodder. (US: Houghton, 2001) (PS-3) In this mixture of fact and fiction, white Ernie spends a year in Arnhem (near Darwin) among Aboriginal people and learns about their customs, language, and surroundings. Colorful, comic strip-like illustrations accompany the text. A one-page introduction presents information about the setting, the book background, and a short glossary of Aboriginal seasons. (Realistic fiction/Information)

Lyn Lee/Kim Gamble (ill.) *Pog*. Omnibus. Young monster Pog is brave but has one fear - that of children - until he finds small Tom stuck in a thorny bush. Humorous pictures, including likenesses of Pog ' s siblings (baby Bedlam and brother Vandal), add to the humor. (Fantasy)

Margaret Wild/Kerry Argent (ill.) *Nighty Night!* ABC Books. (US: Peachtree Pub.,

2001) Just as in human families, baby sheep, ducks, chickens, and pigs ignore parents' attempts to get them to go to bed and to sleep, as shown in this humorous tale with pleasant pictures.

(Fantasy)

Margaret Wild/Stephen Michael King (ill.) *The Pocket Dogs*. Omnibus. (US: Scholastic 2001) In text and cartoon-like illustrations, the delightful story of Mr. Pockets' Pocket Dogs Biff and Buff is told. Life moves smoothly until a hole wears in Mr. Pockets' right pocket.

(Fantasy)

A3. AUSTRALIA: 2001 Winner/Contenders - Book of the Year: Younger Readers (CBCA)

*Diana Kidd. *Two Hands Together*. Penguin. Lily and her younger brother Jake, children of a unloving but racist father, become friends with an Aborigine family that moves in next door, and when their father learns about it, he embarrasses the children by his protest. A near tragedy softens the father's feeling toward his neighbors. (Realistic fiction, touch of Fantasy)

Errol Broome. *Away with the Birds*. Fremantle Arts Center Press. (US: Fremantle Arts Center Press, 2000) Lonesome Seb, in a new town and new school, visits often with elderly Mr. Neary, who owns and races pigeons. When Mr. Neary moves away to live in a retirement village, he leaves his pigeons with Seb, who not only learns a lot about pigeons but more importantly, because of the pigeons, he gains friends. (Realistic fiction)

Ursula Dubosarsky. *The Game of the Goose*. Penguin. In this fantasy, three children playing the AGame of the Goose@ little expect the frightful and magical events in which they will become involved. (Fantasy)

Odo Hirsch. *Somethings Fishy, Hazel Green!* Allen & Unwin. When someone steals Mr. Petrusca's two special lobsters, Detective Hazel vows to find the culprit, and she handles the problem in her usual determined and energetic manner. Young readers will enjoy Hazel's antics, recounted with humor. (Realistic fiction)

Ruth Starke. *Nips XI*. Lothian. As Multicultural Week plans are being made in school, Vietnamese Australian Lan would rather emphasize sameness than have Asian children dress in native costumes. Nothing, he concludes, is more Australian than cricket, and so he takes the leadership in forming a school team made up of students from families relatively new to Australia. Readers will pull for Lan and his teammates as they expend efforts and emotions in becoming proficient in a game new to them. (Realistic fiction)

Colin Thiele/Peter Gouldthorpe (ill.) *Pannikin & Pinta*. Lothian. Set in South Australia, this is a tale of the struggle for survival of a pelican family when the lakes dry up and they must fly across the scorching desert in search of food and the sea. Readers will learn much about the geography and terrain of this section of Australia as well as how harsh the climate and weather can treat birds. Colorful photo-like pictures accompany the text. (Information)

A4. AUSTRALIA: 2001 Winner/Contenders - *Book of the Year: Older Readers* (CBCA)

*Judith Clarke. *Wolf on the Fold*. Allen & Unwin. Six episodes, from 1935 to 2002, are loosely tied together by Kenny, 14 years old in 1935 and a ghost in 2002. In addition to Kenny, other common threads are insecurity, threatening relationships, understanding support, and caring people in this appealing collection of short stories. (Realistic fiction/Fantasy)

Bill Condon. *Dogs*. Hodder. Monster, a racing dog, changes the lives of two teenage boys (Stephen and Hangan), each in a one-parent family with strained father-son relations.

Some of the changes are good, some bad. (Realistic fiction)

Sonya Hartnett. *Thursday's Child*. Penguin. In this well written but sad and depressing story, the young narrator tells of her poverty-stricken and dysfunctional family, living on a submarginal farm in an isolated area at a time between the two world wars. Tin (Thursday's child), who becomes wild like an animal, plays a major role though he has only fleeting - but dramatic - contacts with his family. (Realistic fiction)

Steven Herrick. *The Simple Gift*. UQP. (US: ISB, 2000) This novel in free verse tells the poignant story of 16-year-old Billy's life on his own after escaping a brutal and drunken father. The more than 100 poems are mainly voices of Billy, Old Bill (a drunk living in an abandoned rail car), and 17-year-old Caitlin (a rich girl who works at McDonald's and becomes Billy's girlfriend). Occasional language and a few scenes may be offensive to some readers. (Verse)

James Moloney. *Touch Me*. UQP. (US: ISB, 2000) Xave's year in school at St. Matts becomes an emotional rollercoaster ride: he is demoted to second team in Rugby - under a demanding coach; he falls in love with Nuela, a beautiful and forceful girl who wears men's clothing; his mates and other students make fun of Nuela's dress and actions; he loses a friend and feels responsible for the loss. (Realistic fiction)

Markus Zusak. *Fighting Ruben Wolfe*. Omnibus. (US: Scholastic, 2001) (5-10) Cameron and older brother Rube, teenagers in an economically and emotionally stressed family, become involved in illegal boxing matches where they fight not only for small earnings but for self respect and self understanding, in this interestingly told story by a young writer. (Realistic fiction)

C1. CANADA: 2002 Winner/Contenders - Amelia Frances Howard-Gibbon Award (CLA)

*Marilynn Reynolds/Laura Fernandez & Rick Jacobson (ill.) *The Magnificent Piano Recital*. Orca. (US: Orca, 2001) (PS-3) When Arabella and her piano-teacher mother move to a small northern lake sawmill town, the people of the town consider them overdressed and fancy, especially the mother who teaches in the one-room school - until later when she stages a piano recital of her pupils before the town people and Arabella performs magnificently. Clothing and other items in the illustrations are reminiscent of the late 1800s or early 1900s (Realistic fiction)

Michael Bedard/Murray Kimber (ill.) *The Wolf of Gubbio*. Stoddart. (US: Stoddart, 2001) (K-5) A stranger who comes to Gubbio makes peace between the town's people and the wolf that threatens them, in this legend of St. Francis of Assisi. Illustrations reflect the middle ages. (Legend)

David Bouchard/Zhong-Yang Huang (ill.) *The Mermaid's Muse: the Legend of the Dragon Boats*. Raincoast Books. (US: Raincoast Books, 2000) The poet Qu Yuan and a mermaid (a sea dragon in disguise) sail off together with unexpected consequences, in this mixture of legend and history accompanied by elaborate oil paintings. (Legend/Historical fiction)

Jan Bourdeau Waboose/Brian Deines (ill.) *Sky Sisters*. Kids Can Press. (US: Kids Can Press, 2000) (PS-2) Two young Indian sisters go out into the Arctic night to enjoy the Northern Lights (aurora borealis). Attractive oil paintings add considerably to the text. (Realistic fiction)

Jeanne Bushey/Vladyana Langar Krykorka (ill.) *The Polar Bear's Gift*. Red Deer Press. (US: Red Deer Press, 2001) (PS-3) A young Eskimo girl cares for a wounded cub she finds stranded far out on a frozen bay and receives a magic gift from the mother bear. Color

illustrations reflecting the Arctic cold add greatly to the story. (Fantasy)

Cary Fagan/Regolo Ricci (ill.) *The Market Wedding*. Tundra. (US: Tundra, 2000) (1-4)
Morris, the fish seller, makes grandiose plans for his wedding to Minnie, the hat seller, but little did he and Minnie expect the plans to unravel. The story is adapted from Abraham Cahan's *A Ghetto Wedding*, and illustrations depict a late 19th century setting. (Realistic fiction)

Robert Heidbreder/Kady MacDonald Denton (ill.) *I Wished for a Unicorn*. Kids Can Press. (US: Kids Can Press, 2000) (PS-3) A young boy's vivid imagination turns his dog into a unicorn, and they have an exciting adventure, in this tale told in delightful verse and pictures. (Verse)

Hazel Hutchins/Ruth Ohi (ill.) *Two So Small*. Annick. (US: Annick, 2000) (PS-1)
A Two so small, a boy and his goat, help a baby giant they find on their way to Grandmother's house, in this story told in humorous text and watercolor illustrations. The final picture is a large foldout sheet showing a friendly mother giant holding A two so small in her hand. (Fantasy)

Kevin Major/Alan Daniel (ill.) *Eh? to Zed: A Canadian Abecedarium*. Red Deer Press. (US: Red Deer Press, 2001) (PS-3) In this delightful verse tour of Canada, in what at first may seem to be unrelated words - four or five per page, pictures illustrate each word used. Four pages in small print at the back of the book explain why each word was included. (Verse)

Giles Tibo/Tom Kapas (ill.) *The Cowboy Kid*. Tundra. (US: Tundra, 2000) (K-2) The Cowboy Kid, homeless and living on city streets, uses his great imagination to escape and to free a wide variety of horses, in this story told in brief text and attractive pictures. (Verse)

C2. CANADA: 2002 Winner/Contenders - *Book of the Year for Children* (CLA)

*Nan Gregory/Ron Lightburn (ill.) *Wild Girl & Gran*. Red Deer Press. (US: Red Deer Press, 2001) (PS-3) When Gran moved in, she and Wild Girl, both with vivid imaginations, become close buddies, and when Gran dies, Wild Girl is distraught. Wild Girl's mother tells her daughter stories about Gran and helps to ease the pain for both mother and daughter.

Illustrations in acrylics help to set the emotional tone for the story. (Realistic fiction)

Deborah Ellis. *The Breadwinner*. Groundwood. (US: Groundwood, 2001) Eleven-year-old Parvana, disguised as a boy so she can work in Kabul, becomes the family's Abreadwinner@ after the dreaded Taliban imprisoned her father. The horrors caused by the oppressive Afghanistan military oversight and the pervasive poverty in the country are brought to life for readers in this historically accurate story setting. Facts about Afghanistan and the deadly Taliban and a glossary of terms are included after the story. (Historical fiction)

Anita Horrocks. *Topher*. Stoddart. (US: Stoddart, 2000) In this engaging mystery with a touch of the supernatural, Chris (almost 13), his sister Stacie (7), and their father Liam are in the process of repairing a family lake cottage Liam has recently inherited from his deceased mother. Among the mysteries that will capture readers' attention are these: why Liam hates the cottage so much and wants to sell it; why Liam avoids talking about his parents, his deceased brother Topher, his childhood years; why Stacie Aremembers@ events in her father's boyhood that she could not possibly have observed. (Fantasy)

Martha Jocelyn. *Earthly Astonishments*. Tundra. (US: Dutton, 2000) (3-7) Twelve-year-old midget Josephine, indentured by her parents to an abusive girls' school matron in the late 1800s, escapes and becomes the star of a Afreak@ show. Her friendships with albino

Charley (14) and his mother help her to show strengths previously masked by her physical abnormality. (Realistic Fiction)

Eileen Kernaghan. *Snow Queen*. Thistledown Press. (US: Thistledown Press, 2000)

Hans Christian Andersen's classic fairy tale is interestingly retold, with some modifications. (Fairy tale)

Jean Little. *Willow and Twig*. Penguin/Viking. Abandoned by their mother, 10-year old Willow (Indian) and her deaf and emotionally disturbed 4-year-old half brother Twig (part Jamaican) go across continent from Vancouver to Ontario to live with their grandmother, a blind great uncle who writes children's books, a not-so-kind great aunt, and an assortment of dogs. The children gradually feel that they belong, and Willow, who has been Twig's "substitute mother" since his birth, gradually overcomes her resentment when others attempt to help with Twig. (Realistic fiction)

Bill Richardson. *After Hamelin*. Annick. (US: Annick, 2000) (5-8) Penelope, 101 years old, tells of her experiences as one of only two Hamelin children who did not follow the Pied Piper and of her efforts to locate and save the children. (Readers need familiarity with Robert Browning's poem *The Pied Piper of Hamelin* as background for this story.) (Fantasy)

Eric Walters. *Caged Eagles*. Orca.. (US: Orca, 2000) (7-11) In early 1942, soon after Pearl Harbor, Japanese Canadian Tadashi (14) and his family and other Japanese Canadians are incarcerated far from their small fishing village in an internment camp. Readers will be saddened by the realistic descriptions of the mistreatment imposed on innocent citizens imprisoned because of the fear that they could be spies for Japan, even though their parents were good citizens and the young were born in Canada. (Sequel to *War of the Eagles*) (Historical fiction)

Irene N. Watts. *Remember Me*. Tundra. (US: Tundra, 2000) (5-up) In 1938 as war clouds were gathering in Europe, 11-year-old Marianne was sent from Germany to England to escape Nazi persecution of Jews, only to learn that prejudice against Jews was not restricted to Nazi Germany, in this emotionally-packed story written by a person who herself as a child was sent out of Germany to England in 1938. (Sequel to *Good-bye Marianne*) (Historical fiction)

Ting-zing Ye. *White Lily*. Doubleday. In the early 1900s, when girls and women in China were expected to play subservient, roles to males, White Lily, with the help of her brother, broke with tradition by failing to bind her feet and by wanting to be a scholar. In an afterword, Ye explains the history of the women's foot-binding custom and refers to her aunt who hobbled through life with bound feet. (Historical fiction)

G1. GREAT BRITAIN: 2000 Winner/Contenders - *Kate Greenaway Medal* (LA-B)

*Lauren Child. *I Will Not Ever Never Eat a Tomato*. Orchard. (US: Candlewick, 2000) (PS-up) Older brother Charlie tricks sister Lola into eating vegetables and other food she detests, including tomatoes, by giving them different names and origins. Cartoon-like illustrations add much to the story. (Fantasy)

Anthony Browne. *Willy's Pictures*. Walker. (Candlewick, 2000) (2-up) Inspired by some of the world's greatest paintings, Willy the chimp tells stories with his paint brush and humorous comments. The paintings that inspired him are reproduced on a foldout at the end of the book. (Fantasy)

Ruth Brown. *Snail Trail*. Anderson. (US: Crown, 2000) (PS-up) Snail's trail-up a hill, into a forest, over a bridge and beyond - as revealed on the last double-page spread is around and through garden tools and apparel in this briefly worded and brightly illustrated story. (Fantasy)

Lauren Child. *Beware of the Storybook Wolves*. Hodder. (US: Levine/Scholastic, 2001)
(K-up) Don't leave a book of fairy tales open at night in your room when you go to bed, or the characters may come out to threaten you as they did Herb in this humorously told and illustrated story. (Fantasy)

Ted DeWan. *Crispin: The Pig Who Had It All*. Doubleday (US: Doubleday, 2000).
(PS-up) Spoiled Crispin learns that simple objects can be more enjoyable than expensive toys. Bright colored, expressive illustrations accompany the story. (Fantasy)

Berlie Doherty/Jane Ray (ill.) *Fairy Tales*. Walker. (US: Candlewick, 2000) (2-up)
Twelve classic fairy tales are retold and beautifully illustrated in ink, watercolors, and collage. Information at the end gives the original sources of the tales. (Fairy tales)

Margaret Wild/Ron Brooks (ill.) *Fox. Cats Whiskers*. (US: Kane/Miller, 2001) One-eyed Dog helps and encourages crippled Magpie, until lonely Fox comes along and interferes. Striking illustrations in collage and mixed media support the text. (Also winner in Australia of 2001 Picture Book of the Year.) (Fantasy)

G2. GREAT BRITAIN: 2000 Winner/Contenders - *Carnegie Medal* (LA-B)

*Beverley Naidoo. *The Other Side of Truth*. Puffin. (US: HarperCollins, 2001) (5-up)
After an unsuccessful assassination attempt on their father's life (which kills their mother instead), Sade (13) and her brother Femi (10) are smuggled out of Lagos, Nigeria to London to escape the government vendetta against the family because of the father's outspoken articles in newspapers. In London, the children face many adjustment problems. (Historical fiction)

David Almond. *Heaven Eyes*. Hodder. (US: Delacorte, 2001) (5-up) Erin, Jan, and Mouse (three "damaged" children) escape down the river on a raft from Whitegates orphanage

and drift into the strange lives of young Heaven Eyes and Grampa. (Fantasy)

Melvin Burgess. *The Ghost Behind the Wall*. Anderson. (4-up) In this ghost story with a peculiar twist, David, bent on mischief and vandalism, meets a lonely ghost, seemingly seeking revenge against an old man in his 90s. (Fantasy)

Sharon Creech. *The Wanderer*. Macmillan. (US: HarperCollins, 2000) (6-up)
Thirteen-year-old Sophie sails with two male cousins and three uncles from the United States to England on the *Wanderer*. As they travel, sometimes with rough seas and turbulent emotions, the relationship of Sophie to other crew members as well as to aging grandfather Bompie (who resides in England) becomes clear to readers. (Also United States 2001 Honor Book for Newbery Medal) (Realistic fiction)

Jamila Gavin. *Coram Boy*. Mammoth. (US: FSG, 2001) (7-up) This interesting tale, with two merging plots involving father-son relations, is set in England in the mid-eighteenth century. Strong characterizations and superb descriptions will appeal to readers. The *Coram Boy*, highly talented in music and living in an orphanage, is at the heart of the story. (Realistic fiction)

Adele Geras. *Troy*. Scholastic. (US: Harcourt, 2001) (9-up) This retelling of the legend of Troy and the Trojan War, mainly as seen and felt by two sisters, includes love, lust, death, brutality, hunger, intrigue, and mischief of Greek Gods. This well written story, dealing mostly with the final weeks of the long Trojan War, includes some very mature scenes.
(Fantasy/Historical fiction)

Alan Gibbons. *Shadow of the Minotaur*. Orion. (5-up) Fourteen-year-old Phoenix, his father, and a friend, disappearing inside the computer, become a part of the program his father is

helping to develop, and they get caught up in Greek myths as they struggle desperately to get back to their world. (Fantasy)

Phillip Pullman. *The Amber Spyglass*. Scholastic. (5-up) In the last of *His Dark Materials* trilogy, the reader meets characters from several worlds and in several forms (human, angels, ghosts, talking animals, and others) as young Lyra and Will travel about trying to fulfill their destinies, including freeing the dead from their holding place. One possible controversial part is that the Authority (God) is overthrown by revolting angels and other rebels. (Earlier books: *Northern Lights* and *The Subtle Knife*) (Fantasy)

N1. NEW ZEALAND: 2001 Winner/Contenders'- *Russell Clark Award* (LIANZA)

Pamela Allen. *Can You Keep a Secret?* Penguin. Look at the humorous pictures to learn who took the King's crown, but don't tell! (Fantasy)

Pamela Allen. *Inside Mary Elizabeth's House*. Penguin. Mary Elizabeth told the boys that a monster was in her house, but they didn't believe her - until they accepted her invitation for them to come to dinner at her house. (Fantasy)

Margaret Beames/Sue Hitchcock (ill.) *Oliver in the Garden*. Scholastic. Mrs. Bundy's cat Oliver refuses to come in at night - until he meets a couple of large night creatures and gets caught in the rain. Then he decides Mrs. Bundy will be lonesome without him. Attractive dark colored illustrations, with much purple and black, reflect the night setting. (Fantasy)

Gavin Bishop. *Stay Awake, Bear!* Orchard. (US: Orchard, 2000) Old Bear and next door neighbor Brown Bear stay up all winter and decide to travel in the summer - which they snooze through. Delightful pictures in pen and ink and watercolor add to the humor in the story. (Fantasy)

*Bob Kerr. *After the War*. Mallinson Rendel. A tree, planted in 1945 when father comes home after World War II to his wife and young daughter, grows as does the family until 1999, when a winter storm kills the tree. In 2000, the now elderly wife and her daughter, son-in-law, and grandson plant a replacement tree, and the father no longer is in the illustrations. The brief text and realistic illustrations add drama to the story. (Also shortlisted for New Zealand LIANZA's Esther Glen Award) (Realistic fiction)

N2. NEW ZEALAND: 2001 Winner/Contenders - *Esther Glen Award* LIANZA).

Ken Catran. *Voyage with Jason*. Lothian. In this engaging tale influenced by Greek myths and legends and involving deceit, treachery, and violence, Pylos, a young Greek peasant boy, makes an adventurous voyage as shipboy with ship captain Jacob and a group of highborn men into dangerous and unknown waters in search of the Golden Fleece. They faced earthly and Godly opposition along the way. (Fantasy)

Joy Cowley. *Shadrach Girl*. Penguin. Cowley's superb writing brings characters to life in this last of a three-book series in which Gladly, a talented and headstrong horse, becomes an important part of a New Zealand family (father Joe, mother Sophie, Hannah - 16, Mikey - 13, Eden - 13 and adopted, and Sky - 10) as it faces threats to its security, even to the lives of several family members. (Realistic fiction)

Bob Kerr. *After the War*. Mallinson Rendel. A tree, planted in 1945 when father comes home after World War II to his wife and young daughter, grows as does the family until 1999, when a winter storm kills the tree. In 2000, the now elderly wife and her daughter, son-in-law, and grandson plant a replacement tree, and the father no longer is in the illustrations. The brief text and realistic illustrations add drama to the story. (Also shortlisted for New Zealand LIANZA

Russell Clark Award) (Realistic fiction)

*Margaret Mahy. *24 Hours*. HarperCollins. (US: McElderry, 2000) In this well-written story by one of the world's best writers for children and young adults, experienced Ellis, 17 years old and just home from boarding school, becomes involved with new friends and their serious problems. In a brief but activity-filled 24 hours, he grows in confidence and in maturity - like growing up overnight. (Realistic fiction)

U1. UNITED STATES: 2001 Winner/Honor Books - Caldecott Medal (ALA)

*Judith St. George/David Small (ill.) *So You Want to be President?* Philomel. (2-up) In humorous text and delightful illustrations, the book presents the achievements and foibles of America's 41 presidents up to but not including the current president. The varied backgrounds, activities, and thought of past presidents - often in tongue-in-cheek style - are revealed, presumably, for those children who may "want to be president:" The book closes with a brief statement (years in office, birth place, concerns, and accomplishments) about each of the 41 presidents. (Information)

Doreen Cronin/Betsy Lewin (ill.) *Click, Clack. Moo Cows That Type*. Simon. (PS-2) After finding an old typewriter in the barn, Farmer Brown's cows type him a note threatening to strike if they can't have electric blankets. Duck, the go-between, helps to bring about a settlement, and then he and other ducks send Farmer Brown a typewritten request of their own! Watercolor illustrations add to the humor. (Fantasy)

Ian Falconer. *Olivia*. Atheneum. (PS-2) Piglet Olivia, energetic and a bit mischievous, comes to life for young readers as the author/illustrator records Olivia's activities at home and on a rainy day visit to the museum. Skimpy black and white drawings with traces of red make

Olivia stand out. (Fantasy)

Ernest Lawrence Thayer/Christopher Bing (ill.) *Casey at the Bat*. Handprint. (All ages)
Bing's supportive illustrations, depicting 1800s baseball in Mudville, bring Thayer's well-known poem to life - but Mighty Casey still strikes out! (Verse)

U2. UNITED STATES: 2001 Winner/Honor Books - Newbery Medal (ALA)

*Richard Peck. *A Year Down Yonder*. Dial. (5-up) Fifteen-year-old Mary Alice, in the 1937 depression, leaves her Chicago home to spend a year with her eccentric Grandma who lives in a small Illinois town. In this humorous but engaging story, Mary Alice must adjust to classmates who call her "city girl" and to a strong-willed grandmother who takes delight in bringing down those with false pride even though, inside, she is kind and caring. (Sequel to *A Long Way from Chicago*, a 1999 Newbery Honor Book) (Realistic fiction)

Joan Bauer. *Hope Was Here*. Putnam. (7-up) Sixteen-year-old Hope, the narrator, and her aunt who reared her take jobs as waitress and head cook in a busy restaurant in a small Wisconsin town. They get exposed to dirty politics when the restaurant owner, suffering from leukemia, enters the race for town mayor in an attempt to unseat a corrupt incumbent. Hope learns a lot about herself as well as others, and readers learn a lot about the restaurant business in this interesting and often humorous story. (Realistic fiction)

Sharon Creech. *The Wanderer*. Harper. (6-up) Sophie, 13, two male cousins, and three uncles serve as the crew of the Wanderer on an adventurous and often dangerous trip across the Atlantic to England to visit aging grandfather Bompie. As Sophie and Cousin Cody alternate as narrator, readers learn about tension arising from six people living so close together for so long a time. They also learn about the real place of Sophie in the family. (Also shortlisted for Great

Britain's 2000 Carnegie Medal) (Realistic fiction)

Kate DiCamillo. *Because of Winn-Dixie*. Candlewick. (3-up) When 10-year-old Opal "adopted" Winn-Dixie to save the dog from the dog pound, she gained a confidant who helped to open doors to new friends, in this serious story involving serious human relations, including losses. (Realistic fiction)

Jack Gantos. *Joey Pigza Loses Control*. FSG. (5-up) Joey, on medication to control his hyperactivity, goes to spend the summer with the father he hardly knows and finds his own hyperactivity to be like that of his dad, in this sequel to an earlier book. (Realistic fiction)

Summary Comments

This presentation attempted to aid participants in learning about 2001 winners and finalists of children's book awards from five mainly English speaking countries. This collection contains some of the year's best books published for children. Information and reviews were based on a study of 77 books from Australia, Canada, Great Britain, New Zealand, and the United States. Such books can be read by children for enjoyment, or they may be used in instruction. Some of the titles can help young readers increase their knowledge about other people and other places, but of more importance, they can help readers understand that people, regardless of their origin, are much more alike than they are different.

Students' Perceptions of Their Rights as Readers: Including Students' Voices in the Dialogue

Jo Ann F. Bass, Sheryl Dasinger, Victoria J. Risko, Mona W. Matthews, Laurie Elish-Piper, Jerry L. Johns, Randall V. Bass

Beginning in the mid-1990s, there has been an increase in research and publications dealing with affective factors associated with reading (Cramer & Castle, 1994; Guthrie & Wigfield, 1997). Research involving theories associated with the affective domain has led to the creation of a model of reading attitude acquisition (McKenna, 1994) and an explanation of motivation constructs (Wigfield, 1997). Other researchers have developed instruments for measuring aspects of the affective domain such as motivation to read (Gambrell, Palmer, Codling, & Mazzoni, 1996) and reader self-perception (Henk & Melnick, 1995). Investigators studying factors residing within the learner (e.g., reader expectations, reading ability, and developing self) have provided a clearer understanding of the role of internal factors in reading (Nell, 1994; Schunk & Zimmerman, 1997; Ruddell & Unrau, 1997). Similarly, researchers exploring external variables (e.g., teacher attitudes, teaching methods, materials, and curriculum) have found that factors not residing within the learner have an impact on the affect (Dwyer & Dwyer, 1994; Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000; Ivey & Broaddus, 2001; Santa, 1997). These avenues of research have had a common thread: They have revealed ways to assist in developing students who possess what Santa (1997) described as an "internalized continuing literacy passion" (p.218).

Both internal and external factors associated with affective areas of reading are represented in the Reader's Bill of Rights that Pennac (1992/1999) enumerated and discussed in *Better Than Life*. Pennac wrote the rights after observing his son's changing attitudes to reading,

which Pennac attributed in part to the restrictions teachers placed on what and when his son could read. According to Pennac, all readers should possess:

1. The right not to read.
2. The right to skip pages.
3. The right to not finish.
4. The right to reread.
5. The right to read anything.
6. The right to escapism.
7. The right to read anywhere.
8. The right to browse.
9. The right to read out loud.
10. The right to not defend your taste (pp. 170-171).

Beginning in 1998, we have undertaken four investigations using Pennac's Reader's Bill of Rights. In the first two investigations, we studied preservice and inservice teachers' beliefs about their rights of readers. The third and fourth investigations focused on elementary students' perceptions of their rights as readers when engaging in recreational reading and academic reading.

In the initial study, we explored if preservice and inservice teachers agreed or disagreed with the ideas conveyed in the rights and the degree to which they believed the rights described their behavior. We found that preservice and inservice teachers strongly agreed or agreed with nine of the 10 rights. The teachers did not agree as strongly with the *right not to read*. When asked to indicate the degree to which the statements described themselves, the teachers indicated that the *right to reread*, the *right to read anything*, the *right to escapism*, the *right to read*

anywhere, and the *right to browse* were very much or much like themselves. There was less agreement that the statements concerning the *right not to read*, the *right to skip pages*, and the *right to not finish* described themselves (Elish-Piper, Matthews, Johns, & Risko, 1999).

Our second investigation explored if teachers accorded their students the same rights they accorded themselves. This study revealed that preservice and inservice teachers believed that they should be accorded eight of the rights (*not to read, skip pages, to not finish, read anything, escapism, read anywhere, browse, not defend your taste*), yet they were less certain that their students had these same rights. They were more certain that their students had the rights *to reread* and *to read out loud*. (Elish-Piper, et al. 2000).

We then turned our attention to students' perceptions of their rights as readers when reading for pleasure and when reading their school assignments. Generally, for all 10 statements, students had stronger perceptions of their rights as readers when they read for pleasure than when they read their school assignments (Matthews, et al. 2001).

The focus on students continued with this our fourth investigation of the Reader's Bill of Rights. In this investigation, we used a survey to examine students' perceptions of what they should be allowed to do when reading during their free time and when reading lessons or assignments given to them by a teacher. We also engaged students in discussing why they felt as they did and in providing feedback on the survey instrument.

Methodology

Participants

The survey instrument was administered to 157 fifth and sixth graders in the South and the Midwest. At Site 1, an urban school in the South, 32 fifth graders completed the survey. The student body was composed of 59% Caucasian, 38% African American, 2% Asian, and 1% Hispanic students; 33% of the students in the school were eligible for free/reduced lunch. The school was an Expeditionary Learning school in which students were involved in long-term projects and chose topics they were interested in studying. The students in this classroom were involved in a variety of literacy activities. These included reading and writing workshop, literature circles, class meetings, rubric development, and flexible grouping to meet individual reading needs. In addition, the children had 30 minutes of free-choice reading each day. Accelerated Reader (AR) was used, and the teacher reported that the school had a large selection of books. Children could choose books not on the AR list. If students chose a book not on the list, they created their own test for the book. The teacher also had what she called a Doughnut Club, where she and any interested students met prior to the beginning of school to read self-selected books. The students who completed the survey ranged in reading performance from 2.5 to 11.5 grade equivalencies.

Fifty-two (52) sixth graders attending a suburban school in the Midwest were the participants at Site 2. The school had a student body that was predominately Caucasian, with 8% African American and 1% Hispanic students. Of the students in the school, 20.3% were eligible for free/reduced lunch. The school had a balanced reading program, with students grouped by ability. The teachers all had basal readers, which were used primarily as a resource. Most of the teachers used one or two cycles of literature circles per grading period. AR was not used in the school. Students were given about 15-20 minutes per day for free reading, and they also engaged

in free reading if they finished their work early. The sixth graders who completed the survey had reading levels that ranged from grade 2 to 10+, as determined by teacher observation and judgment.

Participants at Site 3 were 67 fifth graders attending a school in a predominantly rural area of the South. The student body was composed of approximately 55% Caucasian, 40% African American, and 3% Hispanic students; about 2% of the students were placed in other categories. Approximately 64% of the students in the school were eligible to receive free/reduced price lunches. The teachers reported having a balanced reading program in which they used basal readers, trade books, AR, and computer programs in reading. Students were grouped according to their scores on the Iowa Tests of Basic Skills (ITBS), and they changed classes for reading. Students were given 15 minutes of free reading time in reading class, and they read when they finished their work. The students' reading grade levels ranged from 1.2 to 6.3, as measured by the ITBS.

Site 4 had 6 fifth graders, 4 African American and 2 Caucasian students, who attended an urban school in the South. All six students were eligible for free/reduced lunch. The students were referred by the classroom teacher for reading support, either by the Title I reading teacher or the college students assigned as classroom tutors. The reading program in the school consisted of literature sets and AR. AR was integral to the students' reading instruction--books were assigned by levels designated by the program's tests. Literature was discussed in class and read independently, with comprehension evaluated by AR tests. Students were assigned to language arts classes, but not grouped by ability. Students had 30 minutes per week for free reading, during which they were taken to the library. All books in the library were leveled according to criteria embedded in the AR program.

Instrument

The two-part survey instrument consisted of 20 statements (see Appendix). Students rated on a Likert-type scale (A=Strongly Agree, B=Agree, C=Not Sure, D=Disagree, and E=Strongly Disagree) the degree to which they agreed or disagreed with each statement. Part I consisted of 10 items that asked students what they felt they should be allowed to do when reading during their free time. Part II consisted of 10 items that asked students what they felt they should be allowed to do when reading to complete lessons or assignments given to them by a teacher.

After considering input from attendees at the Problems Court session at the 2000 American Reading Forum, we revised the instrument used in the study we conducted last year. However, we retained Pennac's 10 rights as the basis of the instrument. We changed some of the wording to make it clearer for students. In the directions and in the stems of the questions, we reworded *have the right to should be allowed*, *read for pleasure to read during free time*, and *read school assignments to read for lessons or assignments*. In Item 6, the phrase *escape from reality* was changed to *escape from the real world*. The word *browse* in Item 8 became *glance through what I'm reading*. In Item 10, *defend my tastes in what I read* was rewritten as *explain my choice of reading material*. For this investigation, the persons administering the survey read each item aloud, including a practice item written to ensure that students understood the format. The examiners waited for the students to complete each item before proceeding to the next one.

Procedures

Authors of this article, classroom teachers, and preservice teachers who were students of one author administered the survey. All persons administering the surveys adhered to the directions accompanying the instrument. Upon completion of the 20 survey items, the administrators presented the students with prompts selected to tap into areas where questions or

confusion had arisen in previous investigations into the Reader's Bill of Rights. The prompts were

1. Why did you respond as you did for item number 6?
2. What were you thinking when you responded to item number 10?
3. Sometimes when answering a survey, people want to add explanations to tell why they answered as they did for a certain item. Were there certain items where you wanted to give explanations? If so, which items? What were the explanations you wanted to share?
4. Were there any items that were hard to answer? Which ones? Why was each of these items hard to answer?
5. Were any items on the survey confusing? Which ones? Explain why each of these items was confusing.

Results

Quantitative Analysis

To determine if there were differences in students' perceptions of what they should be allowed to do when reading during their free time and when reading for lessons or assignments, we examined the score differences in these areas. Numerals 1-5 replaced the letters A-E, with 5 representing *strongly agree*. As indicated in the analysis of the total score on the paired questions, students had stronger perceptions of what they should be allowed to do when reading during their free time than when reading for lessons or assignments (see Table 1). The differences in perception were significant in seven of the 10 items on the survey. The differences in perception were not significant on items dealing with skipping pages, rereading, and reading

aloud. The difference in the totals for reading during free time and reading assignments was highly significant ($p < .0005$).

Table 1

Students' Perceptions of What They Should be Allowed to Do During Free Time and When Reading Lessons or Assignments

Item	Free time <i>M (SD)</i>	Assigned reading <i>M (SD)</i>	Difference	<i>t</i>
Choose not to read	3.15 (1.26)	1.94 (1.12)	1.21	9.97***
Skip pages	1.93 (1.20)	1.78 (1.00)	.15	1.60
Not to finish	2.75 (1.34)	1.97 (1.00)	.78	7.01***
Reread	4.44 (.82)	4.50 (.84)	-.06	-.76
Read anything	3.80 (1.08)	2.94 (1.28)	.86	7.15***
Escape from real world	4.15 (1.18)	3.43 (1.31)	.72	6.83***
Read anywhere	4.08 (1.05)	3.52 (1.30)	.56	5.61***
Glance through	3.48 (1.24)	3.28 (1.38)	.20	2.10*
Read out loud	2.81 (1.35)	2.77 (1.36)	.04	.34
Not to explain choice	3.62 (1.21)	3.25 (1.29)	.37	3.03**
Total	34.24 (5.72)	29.48 (6.00)	4.76	10.48***

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .0005$

An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to compare the responses of students from the different sites (see Table 2). On almost all items, students from the Rural South (Site 3)

reported less agreement with the items than did students from the Urban South (Site 1) or Midwest (Site 2). Rural South responses were significantly different from one or both of the other groups on seven of the 10 free reading items. Only on *read anywhere*, *glance through*, and *not to explain choice* were no differences found. For assigned reading, the Rural South group was significantly different from one or both of the other groups on four of the items, including *choose not to read*, *escape from real world*, *read anywhere*, and *read out loud*. Significant differences were also found between the Rural South group and the other two groups on the totals of both free reading and assigned reading.

Table 2

ANOVA Comparison by Site Groups--All Items

Item	Urban South <i>M (SD)</i>	Midwest <i>M (SD)</i>	Rural South <i>M (SD)</i>	<i>F</i> ratio(2, 148)
<i>Rights during free time</i>				
Choose not to read	3.03a (1.26)	3.85b (1.0)	2.67a (1.25)	14.98***
Skip pages	2.15a(1.39)	2.33a(1.32)	1.56b(.89)	6.80**
Not to finish	2.88a (1.48)	3.48b (1.26)	2.12c (1.05)	8.83***
Reread	4.56ab(.87)	4.62a(.60)	4.27b(.88)	3.20*
Read anything	4.00a(.97)	3.96a(.79)	3.54b(1.29)	3.09*
Escape from real world	3.97a (1.18)	4.52b (.73)	3.96a (1.42)	3.90*
Read anywhere	4.25(.92)	4.02(.87)	4.03(1.24)	.566
Glance through	3.75(1.16)	3.62(.91)	3.21(1.47)	2.66
Read out loud	3.88a(1.10)	3.00b(1.27)	2.18c(1.22)	22.07***
Not to explain choice	3.78(1.10)	3.81(.93)	3.43(1.44)	1.69
<i>Rights during assigned reading</i>				
Choose not to read	2.28a(1.28)	2.19a(1.30)	1.58b(1.05)	6.54**
Skip pages	1.66(.87)	1.94(1.02)	1.76(1.06)	.89
Not to finish	1.87(.93)	2.12(1.00)	1.93 (1.03)	.76
Reread	4.53(.84)	4.67(.51)	4.34(1.02)	2.29
Read anything	3.34(1.23)	2.96(1.12)	2.69(1.37)	2.98

Escape from real world	3.41a,b(1.16)	3.90a(.93)	3.06b (1.55)	6.33**
Read anywhere	4.19a(.95)	3.35b(1.10)	3.31b(1.47)	5.88**
Glance through	3.58(1.31)	3.44(1.16)	2.97(1.55)	2.79
Read out loud	3.47a(1.27)	2.54b(1.14)	2.70b(1.46)	5.33**
Not to explain choice	3.59(1.29)	3.21(1.09)	3.12(1.41)	1.52
Free reading total	36.39a(6.01)	37.19a(5.16)	30.97b(4.34)	26.18***
Assigned reading total	32.50a(5.39)	30.33a(5.65)	27.46b(5.98)	8.82***

*p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .0005

Notes. Items within a row having different letters are significantly different from each other.

Site 4 was not included in this comparison due to the small number of participants.

Qualitative Analysis

To achieve our goal of learning students' reasons for their perceptions, we analyzed students' responses to the prompts listed earlier. The first prompt asked students why they responded as they did to the item about being allowed to escape from the real world. Some students spoke about how reading takes them "to another place," that they "imagine they are there," or they imagine they are someone else, such as Harry Potter. When discussing free reading, one student said, "When you're reading a book and you really get sucked into it, you can picture in your mind that you're really there. When I'm reading a book, I get into it, and I don't hear nothing [sic] around me. If you don't get sucked in, you don't really like the book." Several students indicated that they were unsure about what it meant to escape from the real world. A few students took the item literally and said that people can't escape from the real world.

Prompt 2 asked students what they were thinking when they responded to the item that concerned explaining their choice of reading material. Students indicated that for free reading, they should be allowed to refrain from explaining their choice of reading because free reading means that they got to choose what they read and what they wanted to talk about and because "it is a free country." During instructional time, one student said that the "teacher should choose

what I am to read because I need to read the school assignments.” A student from a site where AR was used said, "When the teacher tells you to do something, you do it because she's trying to help you get more points."

Prompt 3 invited students to explain their responses to other items on the survey. Students talked about why they disagreed with the suggestion to skip pages or not finish the material, both during free reading and assigned reading. One student indicated that “my teacher told me every page is important.” Another said, “I can’t skip pages because I may not learn or know the information on those pages.” Other students indicated that they couldn’t skip pages or not finish their reading because they would not perform well on book tests, as indicated by the student who said “I would miss the questions that are at the end of the book.”

Students explained that rereading was important for their ability to remember information, especially facts, and achieve good scores on the book tests. One student indicated, “I don’t like to reread,” but “it does help me understand what I am reading.” Others indicated that rereading helps them pass tests, pass from one grade to another (“If you want to pass, you need to do work, like rereading.”), and answer questions correctly.

On the item about reading aloud, students said that they preferred to read silently because if they read aloud “they would disturb others.” One student said that it might be okay to read out loud at home, but not at school. Some students indicated they just liked to read to themselves, and others told us that they didn’t want to listen to others read.

In response to Prompt 4 about items that were hard to answer, one student said that he liked to do both oral reading and silent reading so it was hard to answer the question. Several students said it was hard to answer some items because they did not understand the meanings of

some words. They mentioned that they were not sure what *escape from the real world*, *glance*, and *choice of reading material* meant.

Students, when asked about items that they found confusing, tended to repeat what had been said previously. One student, however, said that she was not sure if the question about reading aloud meant "reading by yourself or in a group."

Discussion

The predominant pattern across these analyses suggests to us that students who completed this survey tend to think of reading as text specific. Across free reading and assigned reading time, students were reluctant to approach text with flexibility (e.g., skip certain parts of text, not finish a reading they didn't like) because of a fear that they would not perform well on their school tests. Being tested on their reading seemed to be a primary concern driving many of their responses to the survey. Wanting to succeed on school tasks (especially the test-driven tasks found in curricula, such as AR) was a compelling goal. Our data suggest that school reading, even when free reading is built into the curriculum, may appear to students to be organized for finding and remembering facts and for passing tests.

Alternatively, students did not talk about rights that we had hoped they would associate with reading, both during free reading and assigned reading. Such rights would involve reading as a process to gain meaning (vs. remembering information) or to learn something new (vs. getting good scores on school tests). Additionally, they didn't talk about the wonderment associated with the study of an author's language that can be enjoyed on rereading a passage or how new ideas sparked their imagination, creativity, or critical thought.

Implications and Conclusions

The fifth- and sixth-grade students in this study had clear ideas about reading and the rights they perceived they had in free reading and assigned reading contexts. In general, they believed that they had more rights during free reading as compared to assigned reading. They seemed to grasp quite fully the purposes and procedures for efferent reading wherein they read for information; however, many of them seemed to be missing out on the aesthetic or personal response aspects of reading. If we want students to become engaged readers who choose to read, we must reconsider the emphasis on efferent reading that dominates most classrooms. While an efferent stance is very important in school contexts, we must consider ways to help students experience an aesthetic stance toward some of their reading. By doing so, we can help students experience the joy and personal reaction to reading that Pennac (1992/1999) longed for his son to recapture as he moved further away from reading during his years of schooling. As Pennac stated, "Read, read, it's your duty to read...But what if, instead of demanding that students read, the teacher decided to share the joy of reading?" (p. 94).

Based on the findings of this study, it appears that we need to gain a better understanding of how teachers and schools can promote a love of reading in their students as they move through the grades where greater emphasis tends to be placed on reading for information and scoring well on tests. In addition, we need to examine the impact of popular incentive programs (e.g., AR) on student perceptions about their reading rights as well as their reading attitudes and practices. Additional research is also needed to understand students' perceptions of their reading rights at various grade levels including middle and secondary school. Furthermore, this research needs to elicit student responses and explanations of how various practices, approaches, contexts, and teacher characteristics affect their perceptions of readers' rights and their actual reading

practices. By exploring these issues, we can understand readers more fully and gain new insights into developing and supporting lifelong readers.

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Appendix

Reader's Bill of Rights Student Survey

Directions for Use

The Reader's Bill of Rights Student Survey is a quick survey of students' perceptions of the rights they have as readers. It consists of 20 items and can be administered to the entire class in approximately 10 minutes.

Administration

Begin by telling the students that you are interested in their views on what they should be allowed to do when reading. Emphasize to the students that this is not a test and that there are no right or wrong answers. Ensure them that their grades will not be affected by their responses. Encourage the students to think carefully about each item and to answer each item as honestly as possible. If a child does not want to complete the survey, please allow him or her to perform another task.

Distribute the forms and ask the students to identify their gender and grade. Work through the example with them. Read the directions aloud for Part I and read the first item aloud as students complete the item. After all students have finished, read the next item aloud as students complete the item. Continue to complete Part I in this manner.

After all students have finished marking item 10 on Part I, instruct the students to look at Part II. Read the directions aloud for Part II and complete it as you did Part I, reading aloud one item at a time and allowing time for students to mark their answer before proceeding to the next item.

Reader's Bill of Rights Student Survey

1. Female_____ Male_____

2. Grade_____

Before we answer questions about reading, let's practice on a question about TV.

Use the following :

A = Strongly Agree

B = Agree

C = Not Sure

D = Disagree

E = Strongly Disagree

Listen as I read the following sentence:

I believe I should be allowed to choose the TV shows that I watch. A B C D E

If you are really sure that you should be allowed to choose the TV shows you watch,
circle A, Strongly Agree.

If you think that most of the time you should be allowed to choose the TV shows you watch,
circle B, Agree.

If you can't make up your mind about if you should be allowed to choose the TV shows you watch,
circle C, Not Sure.

If you think that most of the time you should not be allowed to choose the TV shows you watch,
circle D, Disagree.

If you are really sure that you should not be allowed to choose the TV shows you watch,
circle E, Strongly Disagree.

Part I - Directions:

Sometimes you read during your free time just because you want to read. I will read each statement aloud and give you time to mark your answer before going to the next item. Remember to think about how you feel about reading during your free time.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. When I read during my free time, I should be allowed to choose not to read.	A	B	C	D	E
2. When I read during my free time, I should be allowed to skip pages.	A	B	C	D	E
3. When I read during my free time, I should be allowed not to finish what I read.	A	B	C	D	E
4. When I read during my free time, I should be allowed to reread.	A	B	C	D	E
5. When I read during my free time, I should be allowed to read anything.	A	B	C	D	E
6. When I read during my free time, I should be allowed to escape from the real world.	A	B	C	D	E
7. When I read during my free time, I should be allowed to read anywhere.	A	B	C	D	E
8. When I read during my free time, I should be allowed to glance through what I'm reading.	A	B	C	D	E
9. When I read during my free time, I should be allowed to read out loud.	A	B	C	D	E
10. When I read during my free time, I should be allowed not to explain my choice of reading material.	A	B	C	D	E

Part II - Directions:

Sometimes you read because you have lessons or assignments given to you by a teacher. I will read each statement aloud and give you time to mark your answer before going to the next item. Remember to think about how you feel about reading to complete lessons or assignments.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. When I read for lessons or assignments, I should be allowed to choose not to read.	A	B	C	D	E
2. When I read for lessons or assignments, I should be allowed to skip pages.	A	B	C	D	E
3. When I read for lessons or assignments, I should be allowed not to finish what I read.	A	B	C	D	E
4. When I read for lessons or assignments, I should be allowed to reread.	A	B	C	D	E
5. When I read for lessons or assignments, I should be allowed to read anything.	A	B	C	D	E
6. When I read for lessons or assignments, I should be allowed to escape from the real world.	A	B	C	D	E
7. When I read for lessons or assignments, I should be allowed to read anywhere.	A	B	C	D	E
8. When I read for lessons or assignments, I should be allowed to glance through what I'm reading.	A	B	C	D	E
9. When I read for lessons or assignments, I should be allowed to read out loud.	A	B	C	D	E
10. When I read for lessons or assignments, I should be allowed not to explain my choice of reading material.	A	B	C	D	E

“I Have Another Way to Show It”: Fostering Literacy in a Third Grade Mathematics Classroom

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If, generally speaking, one becomes literate through listening, speaking, reading, and writing, – and, as Soderman, Gregory, and O’Neill (1999) asserted, viewing¹ -- how can elementary school students become “mathematically literate?” Typically when thinking of elementary mathematics classes, one thinks of lecture, rules, and pages of problems to be worked in isolation. Images of discussion, reasoning, and writing do not equate with the mathematics experiences most of us recall.

Reform documents call for changes in the teaching and learning of mathematics (National Council of Teachers of Mathematics [NCTM], 1989, 1991, 2000; National Research Council [NRC], 1989). Written from a constructivist perspective, these documents assert that what students learn and how they learn it is personal and influenced by the learning environment provided by teachers. Different from the traditional view of teaching as telling, these reforms seek to increase student involvement in mathematical activity and discourse.

These documents advocate increased student understandings of mathematics and view discourse -- “ways of representing, thinking, talking, and agreeing and disagreeing” (NCTM, 1991) -- as a powerful process through which to develop and enhance students' mathematical power. Whereas all classrooms have discourse, the discourse described in

¹ Soderman, Gregory, and O’Neill (1999) consider viewing to be a relatively new aspect of literacy. From their perspective, viewing “helps children learn to take in information visually and be able to analyze it, synthesize it with other information, and use it in a meaningful way” (1999, p. 22).

the above reform documents requires different roles and responsibilities of teachers and students. No longer are teachers to tell while students passively receive knowledge.

The purpose of this paper is to use two stories from my third grade teaching to demonstrate that listening and speaking foster students' mathematical literacy. I draw upon these literacy processes within the context of elementary mathematics teaching and learning to argue for an increased use of language to enhance students' mathematics learning.

Consider the following two scenarios, both recent instances from my third grade teaching of mathematics. The first scenario is from my first day with this group; the second scenario took place two months later, early in November. The first scenario, which I will call the " $7 + 2 = 9$ " scenario, reveals one student's inability to connect a number problem to the situation in which it is posed. This inability is evidenced by the way in which Michael builds 9 (which is the answer, and the answer only, to the question) while doing so without framing his response within the context of the problem at hand (How many [tricycle] wheels were there in all?). The second scenario reveals students' ability to connect a number problem to the situation in which it is posed, while also transferring from one situation to another. The purpose of this paper is to draw upon these two stories to demonstrate that experiences with language through listening and speaking foster students' mathematical literacy. With the literacy process – generally referred to here as listening, speaking, reading, and writing – in mind I present my ideas here.

Scenario #1

The setting: It is the third week in September. This is my first teaching day of the school year with this group of third graders. I am sitting at one end of a rectangular table with one-half of the class. I know nothing about them except what I see. This includes boys and girls, 7 children altogether. While teaching composition and decomposition of number, I planned to determine who would speak, who would listen, who had interesting and unique ideas, who might require extra support. I hung chart paper on the wall nearby. On this chart paper, children would record their math ideas while we discussed problems from the children's book, *Each Orange Had 8 Slices* (Giganti, 1992).

To determine students' understanding of number, I began by reading the following problem. The children were to listen while I read, then share their ideas about how they figured out the problem.

On my way to school I saw 3 little kids.

Each kid rode a tricycle.

Each tricycle had 3 wheels.

How many little kids were there?

How many tricycles were there?

How many wheels were there in all? (Giganti, 1992, p. 2-3)

As anticipated, students shared their thinking about the number of kids and the number of tricycles. To respond to the third question, "How many wheels in all?" a few children quickly arrived at the answer of "9" while using anticipated strategies of grouping by threes. When I asked how they figured out that there were 9 wheels in all, one child said,

First child: I counted three plus three plus three.

CC: Why did you count three plus three plus three?

First child: One three for each tricycle.

CC: Did anyone figure it out a different way?

Second child: I counted 3, 6, 9.

CC: Did anyone figure out how many tricycle wheels altogether a *different* way?

Third child: I did 3 times 3.

Subsequently, a student responded to a question in an oddly interesting way, and a way in which he would respond in the weeks to come. The upcoming response highlighted this student's (and others') inability to attend to a contextualized number problem.

CC: Did anyone figure out how many tricycle wheels altogether it still a *different* way?

Michael: I did!

CC: What is your way that you figured it out, Michael?

Michael: $7 + 2$ is nine!

Confused at the difference between the question asked, "How many wheels are there in all," and Michael's " $7 + 2$ is 9," I again asked him how he figured out how many wheels altogether when there are 3 people, 3 tricycles, and each tricycle has 3 wheels. Michael excitedly spoke again.

Michael: I have another way! $5 + 4$ is 9!

Soon one of the girls joined this chorus of ways to make 9, ways unrelated to the question being asked in the tricycle problem. Whereas, in connection with the question posed, I expected the children to talk about adding threes ($3 + 3 + 3$) or skip counting by threes (3, 6, 9), or constructing a multiplication problem (3×3) -- or even adding one to

nine with emphasis on three, six, and nine (which three of these children did) -- I was perplexed by the fixation some had on ways to make 9, ways disconnected from the tricycle problem. In the moment, it seemed as though some of the children did not, or were unable, to “hear” the tricycle wheel question.

Scenario #2

The setting: Whole group discussion early in November.

The children had been working with skip counting (e.g., 3, 6, 9) and finding factors of numbers from 10 to 100. Because I teach this group on Tuesdays and Thursdays, I missed the day the children worked on finding factors of \$1.00. As I often do when I am away from the children for a day or more, I began math time by asking a question where they were “to teach me what they have learned about ____.” Asking this question enhances students’ ability to listen and speak in the following ways: (a) it allows the children to monitor their classmates’ explanations to include all that has transpired, and (b) it allows for the children to articulate the mathematics they focused on in my absence. In other words, the children are listening, speaking, and reasoning. As the children explained, in my absence they worked on finding factors of \$1.00. Almost like I had planted him in the group, Bob connected finding factors of \$1.00 to finding factors of 100 – nicely connecting these two important ideas :

CC: Bob? Thank you for raising your hand.

Bob: Factors of 100 are also factors of a dollar.

CC: Factors of 100 are also factors of a dollar? Could you say a little bit more?

Bob: The factors of a dollar and the factors of 100 would be the same (Transcript, November 6, 2001).

Bob and others used their prior knowledge about 100 and its factors. Several vied for participation in the discussion, raising hands or calling out ideas; sometimes disagreeing. For example, Sean disagreed with Bob that factors of a dollar and factors of 100 are the same:

Sean: I'm not sure I agree.

CC: Sean, you're not really sure you agree? Could you say a little bit more about that?

Sean: There isn't a 4-cent coin.

CC: There isn't a 4-cent coin? Sean is saying it's not quite the same because of coins. We don't have a 4-cent coin, for example (Transcript, November 6, 2001).

Eventually, using a T-table to record numbers, I orchestrated the discussion to where the children were figuring out how many 20s were in 100, 200, 300, and so on to 1,000 – the goal for the day's lesson.

Table 1

Math Lesson T-table

Hundreds	# of 20s
100	
200	
300	

CC: OK. Here is what I would like you to think about now. We have talked about factors of a dollar and factors of 100. I have a question, and you are going to need to think about this, but not very long, I don't think. I doubt if you will have to think very long about this...(I search for my teacher's book.)...OK. Are you ready for the question? I bet you are ready for the answer, too! How many 20s are in 100? (Many students raise their hands) Good job. Who have we not heard from yet today? (Transcript, November 6, 2001).

Building on the way in which the children compared and contrasted factors of \$1.00 and factors of 100, we worked on factors of hundreds. With apparent ease, the children interacted over 20s in 100, up to 1,000. Their subsequent assignment was to choose a number (4, 5, 10, or 25) and then figure out how many were in each of the hundreds, to 1,000 (Russell, S.J.& Rubin, A., 1998).

I co-teach third grade mathematics using an innovative, standards-based series. (I describe this series in more detail below.) The authors of the series intended for children to intellectually wrestle with ideas on their way to constructing mathematical understandings. Discussion and disagreement is common; indeed, it is anticipated.

With the two teaching instances, above, I aim to construct for you an argument for an increased use of language in mathematics classrooms. This argument is derived primarily from two arenas. First, I am an educational psychologist who studies learning in the context of elementary school mathematics. Second, as a third grade teacher of mathematics, I have developed an insiders' perspective of what it means to experience the teaching, and student learning, of mathematics in the spirit of the reforms described above.

Sociocultural Learning Theory

My work is grounded in sociocultural learning theory, particularly the work of Vygotsky (1962, 1978) which emphasizes the importance of language in learning. In my work, children's use of language to negotiate meaning is central. For Vygotsky (1978), language was the most important psychological tool or sign. As a sign, language mediates learning. That is, it is capable of transforming mental functioning. According to this theory, there are three basic themes regarding learning and language (Wertsch, 1985). The first theme is based on the premise that in order to understand development of children researchers must focus on the process of development. That is, "the study of behavior is not an auxiliary aspect of theoretical study, but rather forms its very base" (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 65). In this view, behavior is a process and not a product, and appropriate method takes this into consideration.

The second theme of Vygotsky's learning theory is the premise that learning first occurs in the social domain. In other words, meaning originates between individuals. "Every function in the child's cultural development appears twice: first, on the social level, and later, on the individual level: first *between* people (*interpsychological*), and then *inside* the child (*intrapsychological*)" (1978, p. 57). That is, through speech in the social or external domain, the child transforms and internalizes what is learned. What the child knew previously is internally reconstructed. In Vygotsky's view (1978), internalization is not a unidirectional transfer process. To the contrary, he viewed it as a series of transformations:

- (a) An operation that initially represents an external activity is reconstructed and begins to occur internally.

- (b) An interpersonal process is transformed into an intrapersonal one.
- (c) The transformation of an interpersonal process into an intrapersonal one is the result of a long series of developmental events (p. 56-57).

This series of transformations moves back and forth, from the external to the internal, from the interpersonal to the intrapersonal. Gradually, as transformation continues, internalization is the result.

Inherent in sociocultural learning theory is the premise that individuals use talk and action (i.e., behavior) in focal and dynamic ways. In the case of mathematical discourse, the implication is that discussion contributes to student learning, a notion highlighted in reform documents (National Council of Teachers of Mathematics [NCTM], 1989, 1991; National Research Council [NRC], 1989). The third theme of Vygotsky's learning theory is the claim that to understand thinking ("mental processes"), we must understand the language used to mediate it. In his view, language ("signs") mediates mental processes. In other words, through language use learning takes place.

In addition to the above themes, Vygotsky (1978) claimed that learning was guided by a more knowledgeable other through a zone of proximal (i.e., potential) development. He wrote that the zone of proximal development:

is the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential

development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (p. 86).

In practical terms, the zone of proximal development is the distance between what a child knows about, for example, fractions, and what a child can learn through discourse about fractions. In the instance of whole-group discussion, a teacher creates different

zones of proximal development which lead to mathematical understandings. That is, “learning awakens a variety of internal developmental processes that are able to operate only when the child is interacting with people in his environment and in cooperation with his peers. Once these processes are internalized, they become part of the child’s independent developmental achievement” (p. 90). From this perspective, experiences on the social level activate internal processes.

Together, these Vygotskian themes undergird this study of third-graders’ discussion, because to understand what discussion is and how children are involved warrants close examination of language use. When discussion occurs, the discussion as orchestrated by the teacher creates different zones of proximal development through which children’s learning occurs. In addition, when children disagree, they push the outer limits of these zones, forcing one another to explain and clarify what is said and why.

While “managing the intermental” (O’Connor, 1996), or interpsychological domain of learning, researchers point to areas of focus for teachers who wish to teach in the spirit of reform. For the purposes of this paper, these areas of focus involve literacy development, regardless of subject area.

Curriculum

Teachers who wish to facilitate math literacy with their students and to thus align their practice with current reform need curriculum resources. And, according to recent international studies, quality curriculum resources in the U.S. are rare. One resource for teaching elementary mathematics is the series, *Investigations in Number, Data and Space* (1998). The authors developed this resource with four major goals:

- To offer students meaningful mathematical problems
- To emphasize depth in mathematical thinking rather than superficial exposure to a series of fragmented topics
- To communicate mathematics content and pedagogy to teacher
- To substantially expand the pool of mathematically literate students (p. I-1)

Aligned with the standards documents I referred to earlier, the *Investigations* series has several favorable characteristics. For example, the series promotes mathematical thinking, reasoning, communication, and reflection. In addition, this series is situated in the developmental world of children, “to relate to students’ experiences at home, in school, and in the community” (p. 18). Also, problems are developed so that students build on prior mathematical knowledge. Different from traditional mathematics textbook series where teachers are led to teach “what” and not “why” (Ma, 1999), the *Investigations* series facilitates meaningful, conceptual understandings of number, data, space, and the relationships between.

While experiencing the *Investigations* (1998) series, students frequently interact, either in pairs, small group, or whole group discussion. In order to “discuss,” children must learn how to develop their ideas and communicate them to others. The ability to argue (or, in third graders’ thinking, “because”) is an important skill in mathematics.

Summary and Conclusion

I opened this paper by posing the question, How can elementary school students become “mathematically literate?” As argued here, active experience with the language of mathematics serves to enhance students’ facility with this very language. Active experience with language also serves to enhance the ability of children to hear and situate problems within their posed context (as in the tricycle wheel problem).

I acknowledge that teaching and learning are complex. I also recognize the dynamic nature and potential of language in learning. From the perspective of sociocultural theory of learning we see that situated language use contributes to student learning. It is interesting that we have much theory and research on the importance of language use in learning – from inside and outside of mathematics education. And yet, in many American mathematics classrooms, we continue to silence learners by isolating them from opportunities to engage in language use. And, we isolate them from one another when we maintain a rule-driven instruction where teachers tell while students sit passively listening to someone else's knowledge construction. I believe that if we are to increase students' facility with language – regardless of subject area -- we must provide them with frequent and meaningful opportunities to explore and use the very language and understandings we want them to appropriate.

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Literacy With Not Quite Such An Attitude: A Response to Finn

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Wow! Literacy With An Attitude indeed! This was one provocative book!

Patrick Finn (1999) is not the first to realize, however, that working-class children get the short end of the stick in school, vocation, and in life. There's this theoretical construct of the haves versus the have nots that some of us have encountered in the concrete as opposed to the abstract. How did the gatekeepers, to use Finn's term, fail to keep us have nots inside poverty, and allow us to pursue the powerful literacy that leads to papers such as this one you are now reading? We'll revisit this question in our conclusion.

Reasons for an Attitude

It's easy to argue that early schools (and many schools today) did not permit the generation of ideas. It's also easy to argue that there is little attempt in many schools to relate the curriculum to children's lives. Finn, himself, claims this is not new. "In schooling, blaming the victim is not a new concept" (Finn, p. 31).

Many of us have nots could have surely benefited from Finn's explanation of how the Corresponding Societies of the nineteenth century in England came to the conclusion that being poor and powerless was not the will of God or the natural order of things. This literacy of the Corresponding Societies, groups of people who recognized the potential power of literacy, is the literacy with an attitude that Finn endorses.

Finn, however, didn't need to go back to the middle ages to prove that the gentry feared an unruly working class that was becoming literate in ways that the gentry found dangerous. It's not surprising to me that after the printing press was invented, a law was

passed forbidding everyone under the rank of yeoman from reading the Bible. Neither is it surprising that in England in order to control the flow of information and opinion, laws were passed requiring that papers be licensed. I live in a state (South Carolina) where our senior senator in his younger days wrestled another senator to the senate floor in an opposing physical encounter over a major civil rights bill that would have slapped the hands of the gatekeeper.

In South Carolina, and in other southern states, people throughout history have been beaten, hanged, burned, and repeatedly sprayed with the ubiquitous southern water hose as official Doberman Pinschers tore into peoples' flesh for wanting access to powerful literacy through integration. I am actually puzzled as to why Finn (1999) spoke more about the repercussions felt in Europe when the working class no longer cooperated.

This kind of talk led to charges of high treason - the penalty for which was to be hanged by the neck, cut down while still alive, disemboweled, beheaded and quartered. The gentry was not amused by this kind of talk among 'persons of the lowest order'. (page 132)

One can easily document horrific acts in Mississippi, Alabama, Georgia, South Carolina, and in many other states where people were upset because the working class was not cooperating. Who was going to pick the cotton? What would happen if the peasants gained access to powerful literacy? What if they then showed genuine initiative and assertiveness about owning the cotton fields themselves? Finn must be planning another book on the parallel between the perils of attaining powerful literacy in the southern

United States and early Europe. Otherwise, our senior senator and the deep south would have received more prominent coverage in *Literacy With An Attitude*.

Of course there have been attempts throughout history to keep powerful literacy available only to the aristocracy, such as the taxes in England in 1712 that were imposed to make pamphlets too expensive for the poor. Somebody needed to be available to do the down and dirty work of the privileged classes. This was true in 1712, and was true when the then young senator made such an ass of himself on the senate floor.

Walkers Go Home At Two: No Time For An Attitude

I personally don't believe, however, that public school teachers conspire to preserve the status quo, or to plot secretly to offer domesticating as opposed to liberating education. Public school teachers hunker down and attempt to make it through the day until the walkers go home. Trying to make it through the day has, of necessity, caused many teachers to unwittingly engage in what Finn called domesticating education or soft pedagogy. Finn (1999) cites Anyon (1980) and others (Apple, 1979; Bourdieu & Passeron, 1977; Bowles & Gintis, 1976) in the assertion that

In American schools children of managers and owners are rewarded for initiative and assertiveness while children of the working-class are rewarded for docility and obedience and punished for initiative and assertiveness. (p. 20)

In public schools, there is not a loud rallying cry to change docility and obedience among working class children to assertiveness. That would make it hard to keep order until the walkers went home. This lack of a rallying cry from teachers for assertiveness to replace docility will also make it very difficult to ever have "Teachers serve as models of

activists against injustice" (p. 185). This is analagous to saying that politicians should serve as models of activists against phoniness. Phoniness is a term like injustice that has us all feeling revulsion. However, phoniness is as germane and necessary for a politician as docility and obedience are to most teachers. Teachers as models of activists against the injustice of teaching children to be docile and obedient? I don't think so.

The Value of Finn's Attitude

It would be a major mistake, however, not to seriously consider Finn's book because it is a veritable gold mine of information that is designed to produce activity of thought about the relationship of literacy and power.

I always read such books seriously to see if there are common sense conclusions and recommendations about literacy for the here and now. I think Finn's book does say something and says it well. Let's consider some of his conclusions. Liberating education is represented as the following:

Knowledge is rarely presented as facts isolated from wider bodies of knowledge. Knowledge taught is always related to the lives and experiences of the students. Teachers make a practice of explaining how assignments are related to one anotherStudents are rewarded for initiative and inquisitiveness, not passivity and obedience. Students are frequently given an opportunity to express their own ideas. Teachers focus on expression before correctness. Teachers never make derogatory remarks to or about students. (pp. 198-199)

Who would disagree with this common sense pedagogy? These are basic, democratic, and invitational types of strategies that most literacy educators use to avoid bourbon therapy at the end of long school days.

Border-Crossing With Not Quite An Attitude

Where it hits the fan is when Finn begins to really meddle, and suggests the following as principles of liberating education:

Textbook knowledge is validated or challenged in terms of knowledge gained from experience. Discussion of challenges to the status quo, past and present, frequently occurs. History of labor unions, women's suffrage, and other victories for justice and equity are taught as collective action taken by common people. (p. 198)

These seem to be political statements that have little if anything to do with literacy as we know it. I think these are worthwhile endeavors that might accelerate discontent among the have nots, but are not really necessary for have nots to border-cross into powerful literacy.

When we revisit our early question as to how we have nots border-crossed into powerful literacy, we need to revisit Finn's writings about Shirley Brice Heath's (1983) work in South Carolina.

As Heath worked as a consultant to schools in South Carolina, teachers in grades one through five began to have their students dictate into tape recorders. Teachers typed these stories and made copies for the entire class. Sound familiar? The children became more explicit as these young writers realized that some of the details would be puzzling to other readers. This is classic Language Experience Approach ala (Allen 1976; Cloer, 1990;

Hall, 1977). Finn states "In New Literacy classrooms, as in the Corresponding Societies, the line between oral and written communications is indistinct. Students frequently read what they have written as a form of publication" (p. 141). In fact, let me simply challenge anyone to find one suggestion of a classroom strategy that is aligned with Finn's New Literacy that has not been fully and completely developed and evaluated under the global umbrella of the Language Experience Approach to reading.

I came not to bury Finn in this matter, but to praise him. He asked "What if New Literacy became widespread and expression were put first-before correctness?" (p. 148). Hillerich (1985) had an answer for that: "Comparison of pupils who wrote and received reactions to the ideas instead of corrections of the mechanics consistently demonstrated that they wrote better and had fewer mechanical errors than did those who received corrections on their papers" (p. 8).

Finn could have ended his book after a thorough discussion of New Literacy. His conclusion that these approaches still are found in "only a minority" (p. 148) of American schools is not documented. I also doubt his assertion that they are nearly non-existent in working-class schools. The Language Experience Approach is probably one of the most widely used approaches by reading specialists working with Chapter One students. Finn's real problem with stopping at New Literacy practices is "there is nothing inherent in New Literacy that leads to challenging the status quo" (p. 148).

Conclusion

I believe that we have nots who border-crossed into powerful literacy did so largely because of what Finn describes as New Literacy. We speakers of Appalachian dialect who didn't hear public language or standard English until we went to a middle-

class school for first-grade had wonderful teachers, many of whom taught the way that Finn claimed to result in liberating education. Knowledge was related to our lives and our experiences. Teachers explained how assignments were related to one another. I was rewarded for initiative and inquisitiveness. I could freely express my ideas and did. Teachers said more positive things than degrading things. I wrote and read, and listened to literary classics read aloud.

Finn wants to see radical change. He is a sincere and engaging idealist. He challenges us in new and different ways to be more progressive, more resistant to the status quo. He is, when compared, to other writers, cardinally and constitutionally more extreme. He would love to see a revolution favoring the working class. He believes teachers could cause this. Patrick, my good Irish writer, friend, and colleague, it 'ain't gonna' happen.

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COLLABORATIVE CO-TEACHING AS PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Denise Dallmer and Cynthia Baker

This article is the personal narrative of a university professor and a classroom teacher co-teaching a secondary methods course for pre-service teachers within the context of an urban school/university partnership. In this article we will chronicle the evolution and growth of our co-teaching, describe how we learned to negotiate boundaries, depict problems we encountered and successes we achieved, and we will illustrate how we came to develop our teaching partnership within the context of our respective institutional partnership.

The purpose of this article is not to concentrate on logistical matters of the partnership: the history of the formation of the school/university partnership, the agreements made by each institution, or the future plans of each institution. We do not even detail student evaluations. Instead, the purpose of this article is to share our lived experiences as co-teachers in an urban school partnership. Although other aspects of this partnership are important, our personal narrative within the context of our co-teaching is our focal point.

Our personal narrative was composed using qualitative data sources such as notes from presentations we have made, minutes from meetings, proposals, written correspondence, and response journals (Patton, 1990; Connelly & Clandinin, 1990). We used our journals from this year to document our process of learning to work together, to improve our teaching, and to reflect about school/university partnerships. As Maxine Greene (1988) explains “stories and myths, and diaries, and histories give shape and expression to what would otherwise be untold about our lives” (p. x). This “translates into the view that education is the construction and

reconstruction of personal and social stories: teachers and learners are storytellers and characters in their own and others' stories" (Connelly & Clandinin, 1990, p. 2).

Narrative inquiry as a type of research sanctions us as teachers to deconstruct and analyze their personal life experiences (Connelly & Clandinin, 1990). It allows teachers to tell and re-tell their stories and lived experiences so that they may critically reflect and learn from those relationships. We share our insights in hopes of informing other teachers and professors about ways to work together outside the boundaries of traditional teacher education. We tell our story so that others may "broaden the horizons of <our> normal existential landscape by creating possible worlds" (Van Manen, 1990, p. 101).

Description

The authors (a high school social studies teacher, Cynthia Baker and an education professor, Denise Dallmer) met in a graduate class at the university. We began our co-teaching as a direct result of Denise teaching a course in which Cynthia was a graduate student. Neither the university nor the school district had influence in placing us together to co-teach a course or change the way the course was taught.

In the aforementioned graduate class, Denise explained the growing interest in school/university partnerships. She used her own experience to talk about these emerging partnerships. Denise discussed her current teaching assignment, which included a school university component. She believed that the lack of at least one teacher in a significant role was a weakness of the partnership. By coincidence, one of the teachers in her class, Cynthia taught in the partnership high school. After lengthy discussions in class and out of class, we decided to approach our respective institutions with our idea of co-teaching a methods course. The high school quickly agreed to the proposal but the university was bogged down with red tape and a

slow decision making process. At last, one week before the fall semester began, we were given approval.

All undergraduate students in the secondary education program at the university are required to take a nine-hour “block” of classes usually the semester before student teaching. The “block” is actually taught on site in an urban high school. The methods class, “Fundamentals of Secondary Education”, is taught every other day; part of the morning is spent in the practicum, and the other part of the day the students take the Fundamentals class. On alternate days, they take a special education class along with their practicum field experience. Their days are full and for many undergraduates, this is a stressful semester.

The urban high school has approximately 1,000 students: 22% are minority and 55% of the students are at poverty level. The high school serves three low-income housing projects and there are two alternative schools in this district. Teaching in this high school is a challenging experience for veteran teachers as well as novice teachers.

The College of Education consists of less than a 5% minority population. Thus, many undergraduates have had limited exposure to people and students different from themselves, and so this experience in the urban high school is met with trepidation on the part of university students. Many pre-service students “just get through it” while others find it to be a life-changing experience that causes them to change their future plans as evidenced by those students requesting to student teach in an urban school with the intention to teach full time in an urban setting.

Collaboration and Co-Teaching

Many voices in the teaching profession have called for changing the parameters and working relationships between schools and universities. John Goodlad (1988) and the Holmes group (1986) recommended that both schools and universities transform the way they work together to a more collaborative, shared model. Collaboration can provide “opportunities for reflection about practice, shared critique, and supported change” (Clark, et al., 1996, p. 196). Well-documented case studies and descriptions of school/university partnerships and the significance these partnerships may have to the advancement of schools and teacher education can be found in the teacher education literature (Darling-Hammond, 2000 and 1999; Teitel, 1997; Lieberman, 1990; Johnston, 2000; Goodlad, 1994).

Likewise literature is filled with accounts of problems and failures. For some schools and universities, theorizing about collaborative relationships was easier than actually implementing them. Barriers to making collaborative relationships effective and long-term are well documented (Maloy, 1985; Teitel, 1998; Oakes, Hare, & Sirotnik, 1986; Campbell, 1988; Sarason, 1982). For others, successful partnerships have developed into long lasting and enduring relationships.

For university professors and classroom teachers, one of the ways to work together collaboratively, is to co-teach methods classes. Brody (1994) offers a definition of co-teaching:

“It involves two or more teachers planning, teaching, and assessing the same students in the interest of creating a learning community and maintaining a commitment to collaboration with students and each other “ (p. 32).

Literature on co-teaching details co-teaching among many types of teachers: “master teacher” and pre-service teacher, special educator and classroom teacher, classroom teachers in one school building, and university professors and classroom teachers. Uncertainties and

dilemmas are described as well as advantages and benefits (Clark, et al., 1996; Roth, Masciotra, Boyd, 1999; Brody, 1994; Tobin, Seiler, Smith, 1999; Hohenbrink, Johnston, Westhoven, 1997).

Co-teaching can provide a vehicle for change. But, change represents different things for different participants. As three co-teachers explain: “How we changed is related to the problems and demands of our institutional contexts and our backgrounds and personalities” (Hohenbrink, et al., 1997, p. 297). For some co-teachers, personal change, such as increased confidence about teaching, is a result of simply having someone else understand and appreciate their teaching experiences; for others, change is brought about by planning curriculum together, reflecting on what topics are taught, and the justification for those topics in conversations that never occurred previously. Co-teaching stops the planning and implementation of curriculum in isolation: “developing new ideas or changing old ones depends upon supportive and frequent conversations with respected peers” (Brody, 1994, p. 33). It pushes the participants to engage in conversations through a lens that is multicultural and multi-dimensional, it pulls at the boundaries. Working collaboratively helps create energy for the teachers and that energy provides motivation to keep striving to improve teaching and complete projects (Hord, 1986). Co-teaching can provide support to try new methods/strategies in the co-teachers’ own individual classrooms.

One of the biggest barriers to co-teaching is time. A simple practical problem is the time that it takes to plan, meet, coordinate, and implement new shared curriculum. To expect teachers, in any circumstances, to add another layer of responsibility on top of an already hectic schedule, may be too much to ask. Faculty who have attempted collaborative initiatives write, “. . . there was simply insufficient time and resources to accomplish all that is necessary to maintain a good program and positive relationships - . . .” (Bullough & Birrell, 1999, p. 387). Additionally, it takes an enormous amount of time to develop long lasting relationships built on trust and that time

commitment may not be realistic.

Power struggles when working in collaborative relationships and the challenge of having truthful and candid conversations is an additional problem, which can't be minimized, especially if one partner is perceived to be more powerful than the other. Since collaborative efforts, by nature, are based on equity and parity, collaboration projects will not be sustained with uneven influence. For instance, there can develop equity issues concerning release time for faculty members participating in collaborative projects. "Backing away from conflict" may be an easier thing to do (Teitel, 1997).

Discussion told in two voices

Our discussion is told in both of our voices because "the sources of evidence for understanding knowledge, and the places knowledge may be said to reside exist not only in the mind but in the narratives of personal experience"(Connelly & Clandinin, 1988, p. 269). We write together as well as explain our individual perspectives from our journal entries. The critical questions we raise and subsequent lessons we learned come from our shared discussions and lived experiences in which "our collective story has developed" (Eldredge, et al., 2000, p. 95). We attempt to explain the possibilities of collaboration and the tensions that arise. "A critical voice is concerned not just with representing the voices of oneself and others, but with narrating, considering, and evaluating them" (Britzman, 1991, p. 13).

Introduction

Cynthia knew that she liked what Denise said in the graduate class about teaching at an urban school and about innovative collaborative efforts. Denise knew that she wanted to work with a teacher in the urban school to add credibility to the teacher education program, and she appreciated what Cynthia was doing in her classroom. For both of us, it was a risk and a leap of

faith to commit to a yearlong project because we didn't have the benefit of beginning with in-depth conversations and taking time to get to know one another at a deeper level.

We started our collaborative teaching with high hopes and aspirations of changing the teacher education program at the university. We hoped that we could model co-teaching and that other teachers and professors would attempt it. We each had separate anxieties about our project. Those feelings are reflected in some of our journal entries.

From Cynthia's journal: *Didn't have time to change the syllabus or collaborate for that matter, so boundaries are unsure. I am nervous and timid.* Another entry: *I am very intimidated about team teaching- especially with a professor since I just got my Master's degree.*

From Denise's journal: *I am afraid I will talk too much. Because of time, we are using my syllabus from last year. I don't think that is collaborative, but we will revise it next semester. I know Cynthia is going to be great at this, and I'm so pleased she has agreed to do this.*

We wanted to help the pre-service teachers negotiate learning to teach, and for this semester, how to teach in an urban setting. We knew that an enormous percentage of teachers quit or fail within five years of teaching in an urban school (Haberman, 1995). We also shared the same perspective about curriculum. It "is created within the relational classroom experiences that individuals share with texts and with one another; at the same time, curriculum is also defined and created by the intersecting forces of existing schooling and social structures" (Miller, 1990, p. 2). In respect to our actual daily teaching, we knew that we didn't want to "take turns" teaching, but that we wanted the students to hear both of our voices on all subjects.

We were unsure how the undergraduate pre-service teachers would react to co-teachers and we didn't know the level of support we could expect from our respective institutions. Nevertheless, we were excited about working together in an innovative manner.

Lessons learned

A multitude and a variety of events occurred this past year. We have chosen not to recount them, but to use them as evidence and examples of what we have learned. Our reflections and advice are presented in no particular order. We feel that we were successful at some components of our co-teaching; at others, we feel we failed. Such is the nature of our collaborative effort.

Teachers in the field who want to co-teach or work in an school/university partnership must feel a sense of ownership in the teaching profession. They must see themselves as having something to give back to future teachers or feel invested in the teacher education profession. Traditionally, classroom teachers view the university as having primary responsibility for educating pre-service teachers. This notion has to change in order for collaboration to work.

This new, professional commitment can be seen in the way that teachers and professors work together, have meaningful discussions together, and present their research and experiences together. As a classroom teacher who co-taught a methods course explains: “Co-teaching makes you walk the talk. It makes me think and I have to justify my practice. Co-teaching keeps pushing me to think more deeply” (Eldredge, et al., 2000, p. 104).

However, many times it is difficult for the teacher, in particular, to bridge both worlds as well as have ownership in the teaching profession. What was difficult for Cynthia was that she was working so hard to provide excellent preparation for high school teachers. In the process, she saw the real need to improve the teaching in her own school (Goodlad, 1994). Many of the teachers saw the pre-service students as a burden; and they complained about having them at their schools. In particular, those were the teachers that were least prepared in their classes.

From Cynthia's journal: *I saw my major problem as getting the school people to buy into the partnership; they are cynical and weary.*

Cynthia felt pushed and pulled between the two worlds. Because of this "boundary blurring" (Lampert, 1991, p.672), sometimes she felt aligned with the university and at other times, she felt aligned with her school.

Any well-intentioned teachers cannot sustain such a time consuming and emotionally draining project without institutional support. The principal is a pivotal person in the school and the administration at the university should honor and respect the work of the "field professors". Although there may be the appearance of collaboration, it is an effort that requires sustained and thoughtful support of everyone involved; not just the co-teachers. At times, we felt that our efforts were met with silent resistance from our colleagues and administrators.

As Goodlad (1994) clarifies:

"The greatest danger to solid, lasting collaboration of university and school personnel in partner schools is *imagology* the transformation of both reality and ideology into various images of them. There occurs just enough progress to create the image of close connections when, in actuality, there exists as yet little more than symbols" (p. 100).

Neither one of us was given any kind of reassigned time for planning and collaboration. We collaborated because we felt that it was the most responsible, ethical way of preparing teachers, especially for teachers working in an urban setting. We met weekly to plan for class; we met after school to write tests together; we designed rubrics for grading; we took turns grading papers; and we problem solved with students about their field experiences. We emailed daily, we talked on the phone constantly, and we planned regional and national presentations

about our work together. We took turns going back and forth from the high school and the university to plan our together while we did our other jobs.

All this being difficult enough, for Denise, and other university professors, who attempt collaborative field-based efforts, the fear of not having time to publish and not knowing how valuable their collaborative efforts were seen back at the university was a concern (Goodlad, 1994).

Denise's journal: *I don't know how I am supposed to publish when I am out in the field so much. I wonder what kind of weight this will hold when the RPT committee meets?*

For Cynthia, the layering of more teaching beyond her high school teaching, at times was weighty and exhausting. Both Cynthia and Denise questioned whether the students or administrators appreciated and valued their time and effort.

Cynthia's journal: *This year was extremely difficult. On top of 90 students per semester, I had college students. It was another prep and more grading. Without the support of my school, it is extremely frustrating and overwhelming.*

Denise's response journal: *I don't think Cynthia is getting the best end of this deal. She works so hard in her own classes <her high school classes> and then she teaches with me, too. I feel I am receiving a great deal of assistance, but I'm not doing much for her in a concrete way. It's not an equal partnership.*

The following is an example of the dilemma that we faced and illustrates the problem of change. The semester before our co-teaching began Denise had written a paper for a national conference about the school/university partnership. When she was accepted to present, she knew that in order to make her presentation accurate and to tell the complete story of the partnership, Cynthia needed to be there. Cynthia was excited about going and felt that she had valuable

insight to offer other classroom teachers who were thinking about forming a partnership with a university. When Cynthia asked for the professional days off from teaching to attend the conference, her school was reluctant to give her the time away from her classes. The school needed her to teach her classes; substitute teachers are hard to find. She was only given the professional days off after Denise was at a meeting at the university with an administrator from the school district. Denise consulted with the school administrator who had been talking about collaboration and explained the situation. The next day Cynthia was given the approval to go.

Email from Denise to Cynthia: Cynthia, I saw _____ from the board office at a meeting today. I don't know if you wanted me to do this, but in front of others at the meeting (about collaboration) I explained how you couldn't get the time away from school to present. Why are we talking about a partnership when we can't even get you to go to a national conference? Now, I worry I got you in trouble.

Collaborators must share the same basic philosophy about teacher education, and, for our situation, working in an urban setting. They must have a sound respect and regard for each other. In other words, they need mutuality and connectivity (McGowan & Powell, 1990). Even though they must hold each other in high esteem, this does not necessarily mean that they have to agree about all facets of teaching and learning. Differences of opinion modeled in front of the pre-service teachers show opposing points of view and healthy debate.

After presentation <at a regional conference> from Denise's journal: *We laughed because we were not afraid to talk in the presentation <we thought we would be nervous when we were preparing>. I wonder if the fact that we are opinionated helps our collaboration. I actually used to think that because we have our opinions that it would be the opposite <people had to agree on*

everything in order to collaborate>, maybe our personalities just mesh or we realize that our collective effort is better than any one of our single efforts.

From Denise's field notes: *We talked about classroom management today. Cynthia has such a different take on discipline than I do. We both discussed and argued our point of view in front of the students. It was productive for the students to see us disagree and still respect each other.*

From Cynthia's journal: *I believe what we taught was valuable for the classroom. I feel that most of the students get it and are becoming more aware of their students as well as their own teaching styles.*

As Brosnan (2000) explains: "To build lasting working relationships, it is essential to begin with people of like minds and common philosophies. The fundamental philosophies must be mutual enough so that even if we differ, we can respect each other's work and have faith that our underlying principles will not be compromised" (p. 273).

Both the professor and the teacher must see this endeavor as professional development. The professor must value the expertise and judgment of the classroom teacher. Teachers have knowledge that professors must admire, in particular, the "authenticity of current practice" (Chase and Merryfield, 2000, p. 136). It should be a collaborative effort that is based on mutual respect. As Hohenbrink, Johnston, & Westhoven (1997) explain: "Appreciating another person's knowledge and expertise came to mean seeing a potential for others to contribute to our own thinking and our shared project" (p. 299).

Denise's journal: *Cynthia and I talk a great deal about the lack of understanding our pre-service students have about dealing with adolescents. It's not just me; she thinks there is a lack of understanding on our students' parts. I'm going to propose a curriculum change for our*

secondary education students, based on these observations/conversations that they need another course just on adolescent development/at risk students. I'm glad she sees this, too.

For Cynthia, the collaborative co-teaching provided her with a colleague to discuss not only the college teaching, but also the circumstances of her high school teaching.

Cynthia's journal: *I had someone to share my concerns with about my students <at the high school> and to reassure me about my decisions.* And another entry: *The one thing I feel when I teach with Denise is support; I haven't experienced this in seven years of teaching.*

Conclusions

What we believe to be true after this year of co-teaching is that the benefits of collaborative teaching for teachers and professors are multi-layered. For Denise, co-teaching improved her teaching and grounded her theory to what is happening in today's classrooms. Co-teaching with Cynthia forced her to re-examine why she chose topics and the relevancy they hold for pre-service students. It provided a sense of satisfaction that was not possible when teaching on campus far removed from classroom students and classroom teachers.

For Cynthia, co-teaching a methods course brought her someone from the university to support her teaching efforts at her school. She felt validated and appreciated for all of her labor and the time that she spent in order to provide the best education for her students. She felt that because she was in an urban setting her students needed her to put in more work and care than if she were teaching in a different setting. She did this unfailingly; yet, she felt unrecognized and unappreciated many times. For Cynthia, as an experienced teacher, co-teaching contributed to a sense of renewal professionally. Both Cynthia and Denise were each other's professional sounding boards. Through this experience, we became colleagues and friends.

For the undergraduate pre-service teachers, this co-teaching effort connects theory to practice. No longer can students sit in a methods course and complain that the professors are out of touch with reality of today's classrooms. It provides much needed "linkage conceptually and operationally" (Goodlad, 1994, p. 124). Our students were involved with the life of the school. As professors we made the decision to require them to attend faculty meetings, department meetings, and site-based committee meetings with parents and faculty. The college students worked basketball tournaments, watched football games, chaperoned school dances, observed the Youth Center staff making home visits, and proctored state proficiency tests. Being situated in an urban high school opens the eyes of the pre-service teachers to a wealth of diversity, helps to overcome their fear of teaching students who are different than they are, and strengthens the preparation they receive in the teacher education program.

However, naively we were surprised by the constructional problems of teaching between and within two institutions. Cynthia sometimes faced criticism and jealousy from the other teachers in her school. She received more scrutiny and critique from the pre-service teachers since she wasn't a "real professor". For Denise, there seemed to be a lack of university interest about her work at the high school. Since she was physically teaching somewhere else, meetings that were scheduled back on campus were difficult for her to attend. Those professors who have no interest in teaching on site dismiss her work in the schools.

Even with those obstacles, we both agree that our experience in co-teaching has been professionally rewarding. We learned that collaboration does not mean sameness; in fact, "it is through our differences that we learned more about ourselves and clarified or readjusted our own perspectives as we considered our differences" (Johnston and Kerper, 1996, p.14). As Brody validates: "In co-teaching, stories are the basis for resolving differences and finding similarities

in beliefs and ideas” (Brody, 1994, p. 33). Our experience has taught us that collaboration requires compromise, meaningful dialogue, risk taking, and time. We still believe it is the best way to provide teacher education --the joining of theory and practice. In fact, we co-taught a graduate education course this past summer and co-authored a grant that we were awarded.

Real enduring collaborative relationships seem to withstand the initial defensive posturing about one’s own practice and the ability to see beyond one’s own world of expertise. This being difficult in itself, there must be institutional support and a structure in place to support the work of both teachers and professors. Additionally, we believe that educators as collaborators should share the same basic philosophy of working, teaching, and learning. Only when these conditions are met will collaborative relationships be able to effect change and be sustainable .

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Picturing the Word: A Literacy Odyssey in Paintings of Children, Youth and Families

Sarah Dowhower

Like a kid in a candy shop, I am awed and excited to publish in the new American Reading Forum Online Yearbook. Awed in the sense that just a few years ago, this fantastic electronic medium for scholarship was not available—in fact, digital imagery (critical to my chapter) was in its infancy. Excited in the sense that after two years of having had no vehicle for publishing my ARF sessions (1999 and 2000), I now can share my work—in fact, not just with my colleagues, but the whole world!

Indeed, publishing a hard copy of research on the representation of literacy in great paintings presented impossible hurdles for a small professional organization like the American Reading Forum. Not to mention the painting copyrights, permission requests and the cost involved, the expense of color photos would have been prohibitive. Indeed, black and white reproductions of paintings just do not carry the same visual impact (just compare the difference between Figures 1 and 2 below).

Thanks to the innovative online-format and the Yearbook's enterprising editors, you can savor the magic of magnificent multi-colored masterpieces and the stories they tell about reading and writing through the ages. To learn more about the artist or to view a painting in all its glory, click on the URL below the image. If you really get hooked on literacy paintings, explore my three favorite internet art databases listed after the references. Enjoy!

This is a journey for literacy lovers and art aficionados, an odyssey of reading and writing across centuries and continents as seen through painters' eyes. The paper explores the phenomena of literacy in Western paintings; presenting famous and lesser-known paintings from antiquity to contemporary times whose subjects are children, adolescents and families engaged in reading and writing with various literacy artifacts (e.g. scrolls, books, pens, desks, etc.). By definition, works with these elements are referred to as "Literacy Paintings."

Like other forms of art, paintings tell stories about their time; literacy paintings tell about the advent and perpetuation of literacy over time and give us indications of the value and importance of reading and writing in peoples' lives. Portraits of children and families in particular tell about the young peoples' status within the society as well as narrate the history of literacy theories, diversity of practices and evolution of objects used for reading and writing.

As one delves into the stories and the historical perspective captured in the paintings, it is apparent that being able to read and write symbolized many different things for children, youth and families through the ages. From the tablets and scrolls of the Greeks and Romans, to hand-made books of the medieval monks, to the printing press of

the 1400s, to the computers and letter graphics of the 20-21st centuries, artists have given a plethora of meanings to literacy acts and artifacts. As evident in the following survey of paintings of children and families, just holding a book, scroll or pen in a portrait can symbolize a path to salvation, God's word, wisdom, authorship, wealth and status, melancholy, intellectualism, scholarship, literacy education, increasing mass literacy, leisure or recreation, even parental bonding.

As you view the paintings, be sure to drink in their beauty and artistry.
For this is both a journey and an excursion celebrating literacy and art.
Look long enough and each one will work its magic on you.
(Sister Wendy Beckett, 1999, p. 5)

Portraits of Children and Youth Reading and Writing

The paper is divided into two main sections: (a) individual portraits of children and youth reading and writing; and (b) paintings of family literacy, i.e., parents and grandparents reading with their progeny. The first part chronologically traces literacy paintings of young children and adolescents through four time periods from Classical to the present day.

Greco-Roman Period: Roots of Language and Child Development

The earliest Western paintings of the young engaged in reading and writing are from antiquity. Indeed, both the academic study of language and linguistics as well as childhood development and education find their roots in Greek philosophers like Plato (427-347 BCE) and Aristotle (394-322 BCE). Plato gave us valuable insights into language (e.g., vowels, consonants, word accent) and Aristotle (Plato's student) was often regarded as the founder of classical European grammar (Crane, Yeager, & Whitman, 1981). Both believed in elementary education and that a child's education (basically literacy and math) should start before age 6.

In addition, the Greek Hellenistic period gave us the idea of youth or adolescence as a specific stage of development. Thus, "ephebe" (one who has passed puberty) occupied a recognized place in the social structure, at least of the upper social class of the Greeks (Esman, 1990, p. 5). For young males, military training or involvement in the education at the Academy were options. Plato tells us that youth at the Academy "participated along with adults and perhaps some younger adolescents in the learned discussions" (p. 5). From what is known of Greek history, these discussions must have involved conversational discourse as well as vocalized versions of different texts by readers.

Early evidence of young males' status as "ephebe" and the importance of being able to read and write can be found in scenes painted on vases and cups of that period (Figures 1 and 2).



Figure 1: Boy Reading, related to the school of Douris. C. 470 BCE. Red Figured lekythos, ARV(2) 452. Private Collection of Henri Seyrig, Paris. Image Source: Beazley, J. D. (1948). Hymn to Hermes. *American Journal of Archeology*, 52, 336-343, Plate XXXIV.

On the red-figured lekythos (used for perfumed oil, c. 470 BCE), a seated youth is holding an unfurled roll from which (we suppose) he is reading (Figure 1). A writing case is hanging in the upper right. The actual text written on the open roll is the beginning of a hymn to Hermes (Immerwahr, 1964, in Wiesner, 2002), the Greek name for Mercury (whom by the way, also was often pictured as a youth). The importance of the roll (*rotulus*), the ancient form of the book, cannot be understated. The roll made possible the spread of literacy from its origins in Egypt through the Greco-Roman worlds.

The young man on the vase might actually be reading silently, a rare but documented practice among Greeks about this time. (In fact, some experts like Svenbro (1999) suggest that the Greeks invented silent reading.) On the other hand, the youth may be reading aloud to an audience, by far the most common literary practice throughout the Greco-Roman worlds. Seemingly, the boy is looking ahead at a companion—indicating that this may well be an expressive oral production within a social gathering.

In Figure 2, a young boy, seated on a bench, is using a wax tablet that looks amazingly like a laptop computer!



Figure 2: Boy Writing by Eucharides Painter Orvieto. Etruria. C. 480 BCE. Attic Red Figure Kylix, H. 7.4; L. 27.5; Dia. 21.2 cm. University of Pennsylvania Museum, MS 4842. Photo courtesy Mediterranean Section, University of Pennsylvania Museum. Image Source: http://www.museum.upenn.edu/Greek_World/pottery_big-47.html

That laptop is actually a 5-leaf folding wax tablet, typically used by schoolboys learning to write in that time (University of Pennsylvania Museum, 2003). With a stylus in hand, the youth is intently involved in composing. He probably is murmuring or speaking aloud as he writes, for scholars believe that the purpose of writing in Greek times was “to produce the sound, not to represent it” (Svenbro, 1999, pp. 62-63), so composing was usually oral.

Around the time these youths were depicted, the first methods of Western literacy education were taking shape—some of which are still used today, 2000+ years later. The study of the structure of language and usage of words (contemporary linguistics) began in the 5th -4th centuries BCE in Athens and peaked with the writing of the first systematic and comprehensive grammar in the Western tradition by Dionysius Thrax (c. 100 BCE) in Alexandria (Connell, 1987, p. 201). The text basically gave the theory and precepts for “organizing the expressive qualities of the voice in the act of reading” (Cavallo & Chartier, 1999, p. 12).

This literacy theory of oral production evolving from the Hellenistic age is still very current in the thinking of literacy experts. The expressive qualities of reading aloud (including the inflection, rhythm and gesturing) play a critical role in understanding (for both the reader and the listener); and thus, the acceptable interpretation of the author’s intended meaning.

The Roman Empire inherited many of Greek literacy traditions. As written culture spread, however, a broader “reading public” emerged (Cavallo, 1999, p. 69)—one with public and private libraries and a wider circulation of reading materials in part due to a new form of book invented by the Romans called the codex (2nd to 3rd century CE). Education (predominantly literacy) was extending to lower classes and in particular to women and children. Recreational reading or free reading not related to professional purposes became popular.

Frescos and graffiti in the ruins of Pompeii, Italy, hint at this more complex literate public comprised of an ever-widening population of readers and writers with increasing reasons for engaging in some form of literacy pursuits. Wall paintings, as well as texts, including poems, jokes, and obscenities, were preserved with many others in 79 CE, by a blanket of the volcanic ash from Mount Vesuvius.

*I am amazed, o wall, that you have not collapsed and fallen,
since you must bear the tedious stupidities of so many scrawlers.*
(Pompeii graffiti in Shelton, 1998)

In particular, two Roman Pompeii frescos picture a young boy and adolescent girl engaged in reading and writing, respectively. The first is of a child reading a scroll aloud—a detail of a fresco in the Villa of Mysteries (Figure 3). This portrayal is perhaps the earliest extant depiction of a child reader.



Figure 3: Child reading a scroll (79 CE). A detail from the Villa of Mysteries Paintings, Fresco at Pompeii. Courtesy of Dr. James Jackson. Image Source: <http://jccnet.johnco.cc.ks.us/~jjackson/villa.html>

The extensive villa wall painting is believed to be a story of the secret initiation rites of privileged girls into wifehood. In this detail, the officiating priestess is holding a

scroll in her left hand and stylus in her right, perhaps preparing to add the initiate's name to the list. The bride on the left is possibly listening to the naked boy child read the rules of the rite passage from the roll he holds open with both hands.

The other Pompeii painting (Figure 4) is of a young Roman girl writing—or pensively composing in her head, ready to write on her wax tablet with her stylus. The instrument had a pointed side for writing and a flat side for erasing.



Figure 4: Portrait of a young writer. Detail of a wall painting from Pompeii. C. 79 CE. Diameter 37 cm. Museo Archeologico Nazionale, Naples. Courtesy of Ministero per I Beni e le Attività Culturali, Naples. Image Source: <http://www.cib.na.cnr.it/remuna/mann/primo2.html>

By the age of seven Roman boys attended school; young girls, however, got their instruction at home. Some authorities believe Roman girls were educated to a greater degree than those in Greece; and that the more education Roman girls had, the higher their status at maturity when they were married—usually around 13-14 years of age (Avrin, 1991). The artifacts in the painting lead us to believe that this young lady could both read and write. However, like Roman males, she was probably taught writing (penmanship) separately before she learned to read—a practice quite different from today's approach to literacy education. If training stopped early, the student may have been able to write, but not to read. Also, like writing, reading was learned in a part-to-whole fashion called the Alphabet Method. Learners first recognized and named the letters and then word parts and finally whole words and sentences.

The wax tablet with four wooden panels, held so prominently by the young Roman girl, was the forerunner of the book, as we know it today. The tablet with multiple writing surfaces attached together evolved into the “codex,” i.e. leaves of separate sheets of vellum made from animal skins secured between two boards (Harthan, 1981). The codex slowly began replacing the scroll by the end of the 1st or the beginning of the 2nd century CE, although they were used simultaneously for several centuries.

Early paintings of codices decorated the walls of underground Christian cemeteries, most notably the catacombs of Rome. While these frescos reflected the artistic traditions of the Roman Empire and Greek origins, they also were the true beginnings of Christian art (Katz, 2001). Since the early days of the codex were closely tied with the rise of Christianity and adolescence had been an acknowledged part of the Greco-Roman social structure, it seems no coincidence that in one of the earliest depictions of a book (in the Saints Peter and Marcellinus Catacombs, Figure 5), it is being held by a Roman youth.

Image currently unavailable.

Figure 5: Youth holding a codex. C. 2nd century. Wall painting from the Catacomb of Saints Peter and Marcellinus, Rome. Image Source: Harthan, 1981, p. 11.

Medieval to Early Renaissance: Rare Painting Examples

After the fall of the Roman Empire and onset of the Middle Ages, the concept of adolescence as well as childhood was lost to both the culture and to painting. Prior to and during the Middle Ages young children were seen as “infants” and of little value. Then, as Sebald (1984) maintains, “children passed directly into the adult world between ages 5-7 and teenagers (e.g. Jeanne D’Arc) of the middle ages sometimes made history at the age when modern teens are still going to high school” (in Esman, 1990, p. 9).

Unfortunately, during the early middle ages, literacy passed into the private and exclusive possession of the clergy and scribes working within the domains of both church and government (Venezky, 1991, p. 46). In the late middle ages and early Renaissance, in addition to the clergy, literacy also became the special privilege of the aristocracy and after the 13th century, the upper bourgeoisie (Manguel, 1996, p. 71).

Early Portraits of Children. Together then, children and literacy had little societal value for the lay public after the fall of the Roman Empire and through the Middle Ages. Even though children were virtually non-persons and literacy almost non-existent, it is quite surprising, nevertheless, that there are no extant paintings of children reading or writing for the 1400 years after Pompeii.

Not surprising, however, is that when the first depictions of young children engaged with text did appear in the early Renaissance, the images were religious or revisits of classical themes. Literacy portraits of children were first produced in the 1400s—the earliest subjects were Mary and Christ reading (see Figures 22 and 23), and famous Romans such as the child in Figure 6 below.



Figure 6: Vincenzo Foppa. *Young Cicero Reading*. 1464. Detail of a fresco, 106.6 x 143.7 cm. Wallace Art Museum, London. Courtesy of Wallace Art Museum.
Image Source: http://www.the-wallace-ollection.org.uk/c/w_a/p_w_d/i/p/p538.htm

In 1464, the early Renaissance artist Foppa (1428-1515) painted the Roman's greatest orator and man of letters, Cicero (106-43 BCE) as a schoolboy totally absorbed in the small book he is reading. One hand on his leg, he is catching the light from the window as he tilts his head in almost adult-like concentration. Olmert (1992) suggests that in this painting "young Cicero embodies the essence of the Renaissance love of learning" (p. 20). In the anachronistic rendering, Foppa places Cicero in a contemporary setting, holding a codex (not a roll) and surrounded with precious manuscripts inhabiting both shelves and desk. Typical of an Italian intellectual's study of the mid-1400s were angular and plain reading bench seats and built-in book cupboards with little ornamentation (Riley, 1980 p. 25) much like those in Figure 6.

By the 1500s, the aristocracy were commissioning portraits of their children. One such painting (Figure 7) was the first son of Cosimo I de' Medici and Eleonora di Toledo, Francesco (1541-1587). The boy is approximately 10 years old and holds a letter, probably to symbolize his intelligence, education and ability to read and write. Agnolo Bronzino (1503-1572) was a Florentine mannerist who was appointed court painter to the Medici about the time Francesco was born. Consequently, he executed many portraits of the family and court as well as religious and allegorical subjects.



Figure 7: Agnolo Bronzino. *Portrait of Francesco I de' Medici*. 1551. Tempera on wood, 58.5 x 41.5 cm. Galleria degli Uffizi, Florence. Courtesy of Web Gallery of Art. Image Source: http://gallery.euroweb.hu/html/b/bronzino/portrait/f_medici.html

Sometimes small children were painted as angels or special messengers with scrolls or books. For example, in the early 1500s, Michelangelo (1475-1564) painted little boys, called Putti, on the ceiling of the Sistine Chapel, some with scrolls or books in their hands. Figure 8 shows the Delphic Sibyl consulting her prophetic scroll as a little naked boy behind her holds a tome and another seems to be reading it with his right arm and hand raised to turn the page.



Figure 8: Michelangelo. Putti assisting the Delphic Sibyl. 1512. Sistine Chapel, Rome. Courtesy of Christus Rex, Inc. Image Source: <http://www.christusrex.org/www1/sistine/18-Prophets.html>

Putto (Putti plural) originating in Greek and Roman antiquity were small boys or infants-- sometimes winged-- that were found in the early Roman frescos and in catacombs and then adopted in Renaissance and Baroque art. They signified either heavenly inspirations as in Figure 8 or harbingers of profane love (Hall, 1979) as the naked boy of Pompeii in Figure 3.

Early Paintings of Adolescents. Like those of children, secular portraits of aristocratic and upper class adolescents (mostly male) began appearing in the mid-1400s. However, unlike small children, identifying paintings of adolescents in this time period presents somewhat of a challenge. Since they were pictured as fully-grown, it is often hard to distinguish youths from 21-year-olds adults. By the 16th century, the portrait genre of “young men” (actually teenagers to our eyes) became popular. Painters, such as Bellini and Botticelli, completed many portraits of youths--largely devoid of any literacy reference. A few artists such as Christus, Lotto, and Memling painted occasional portraits of adolescents with books that were typically religious in nature.

In 1475, Hans Memling (1438-1494) painted one of the earliest portraits of an adolescent reading. Memling’s anonymous youth (Figure 9) is depicted in a common pose of meditation and with his hands clasped in prayer over an open book. He is looking up from his devotional text, most likely a Book of Hours which was very popular among European laity by the middle of the 15th century for personal daily religious prayers and contemplation. Memling must have been fond of this type of portrait for he painted a young man in a similar pose in 1487 (i.e., Nieuwenhove diptych).



Figure 9: Hans Memling. *Young Man at Prayer*. C.1475. Oak wood, 38,7 x 25.4 cm. National Gallery, London. Courtesy of Web Gallery of Art. Image Source: <http://gallery.euroweb.hu/html/m/memling/2middle1/07noport.html>

By the mid-16th century portraits of aristocratic and upper class girls with books in their hands came into vogue. Like those of earlier young males, there was a pious aspect to the paintings. As in Figure 10, a prayer book or Bible was included to send the message that reading God's Word would bring salvation--and of course, purity.

Click on the URL below to view painting.

Figure 10: Agnolo Bronzino. *Portrait of a Young Girl with a Prayer Book*. Mid 1500. Galleria Delgli Uffizi, Florence. Image Source: <http://sunsite.dk/cgfa/bronzino/p-bronzino16.htm>

1600 to 1700s: Young Students and Scholars

The 17th to late 18th centuries marked major changes in the upward mobility of the middle class, child and adolescent development theory and literacy expansion. Because of factors such as industrialization and increased educational opportunities, childhood as well as adolescence emerged as unique developmental periods. In increasing numbers, the bourgeoisie including tradesmen, craftsmen and skilled workers joined the literate class. Finally, as Whittman (1999) suggests, a major revolution in reading took place by the late 18th century—one of an expanding written culture and increased access to print. Significantly, there was a movement from the repeated reading of a limited corpus of religious texts (called intensive reading) to the avid devouring of large number and variety of print materials (called extensive reading).

As a result, portraits of children/youth of this period reflected these cultural shifts. Although still rare, the portraits of children and adolescents that did include literacy references, moved from religious to more secular themes—one of the most popular was “the bourgeoisie youth as scholar.”

One famous artist known for painting “the soul of the old” also captured the essence of youth. Rembrandt's (1609-1669) son, Titus van Rijn (1641-1669) sat for no less than seven different portraits as an adolescent--several specifically as a reader/writer. Titus was one of four children born to Rembrandt and his first wife, Saskia. Only Titus reached adulthood. In Figures 11 and 12, Titus is 14 and 15 years of age, respectively.



Figure 11: Rembrandt. *Titus at his Desk*. 1655. Oil on canvas, 77 x 63 cm. Museum Boijmans Van Beuningen, Rotterdam. Courtesy of Web Gallery of Art. Image Source:

<http://gallery.euroweb.hu/html/r/rembran/painting/portrai1/titus1.html>



Figure 12: Rembrandt. *Titus, the Artist's Son, Reading*. 1656-57. Oil on canvas, 70.5 x 64 cm. Kunsthistorisches Museum, Vienna. Courtesy of Kunsthistorisches Museum. Image Source: <http://www.khm.at/system2E.html?/staticE/page254.html>

In both portraits, Titus is shown absorbed in literacy. With pen in his right hand and pencil case hanging from his left over the front of the desk (Figure 11), he stares ahead as if contemplating what to write next. Yet there is a hint of melancholy in his expression. In Figure 12, however, Titus has an air of jaunty confidence as he holds the book boldly out in front of him and reads. Titus would not be the first teenager (or adult) to find reading much easier than writing!

Several years before Rembrandt gave us pictures of his son, two other Dutch artists, Jan Davidsz De Heem (1628) and Pieter Codde (1630) painted several students in

melancholy straits. Not without humor, Codde (1599-1678) depicted a pensive, dejected youth faced with the thought of studying (Figure 13).



Figure 13: Pieter Codde. *A young student at his desk: Melancholy*. C. 1630-1633. Oil on panel, 46 x 34 cm. Musee Des Beaux-Arts, Lille. Courtesy of Web Gallery of Art. Image Source: <http://www.kfki.hu/~arthp/html/c/codde/youngman.html>

In barren surroundings with only a large desk and books, the young scholar (if we want to dignify him with that title) is leaning back in the chair with his head propped up by his hand looking rather glum. His lace collar is loose and jacket unbuttoned. The pipe in his hand and the expression on his face symbolize melancholy which could mean either a gloomy disposition, or perhaps, intellectual musing. Codde's painting is a secularization of paintings of Melancholy, daughter of Saturn, a theme popular in the late medieval and Renaissance periods (i.e. Durer's *Melencolia*, 1514) and later Classicism (i.e., Domenico Feti's *Allegory of Melancholy*, c. 1621). This disposition (one of the Four Temperaments) leads either to depressive inactivity or introspective intellectual accomplishments. Ah, the trials of a young student!

Over 100 years later, Perronneau (1713-1783), a French artist, painted his younger brother as a frail, pale, unsure student with his fingers holding a place in an open book. He has a faraway look as if he is trying to understand or digest some difficult passage.

Click on the URL below to see painting.

Figure 14: Jean-Baptiste Perronneau. *Portrait of a Boy with a Book*. 1745-6. Hermitage, Leningrad. Image Source: <http://www.hermitagemuseum.org/fcgi-bin/db2www/quickSearch.mac/gallery?selLang=English&tmCond=Perronneau+Jean-Baptiste>

As may be expected, the few children/youth portrayed as readers in the 1600-1700s were mostly male; although toward the end of the 18th century, Jean-Honoré Fragonard (1732-1806), known for his beautiful female portraits in Rococo style, painted several haunting pictures of adolescent girls absorbed in books. Figure 15 is one example.



Figure 15: Jean-Honoré Fragonard. *Young Scholar*. 1775-78. Oil on canvas, 45 x 38 cm. Wallace Art Museum, London. Courtesy of Wallace Art Museum. Image Source: http://www.the-wallace-collection.org.uk/c/w_a/p_w_d/f/p/p455.htm

The young scholar is fiercely vulnerable as she looks up from the text she is studying. Her look is one of concentration mixed with awe; as if what she has just read moved her profoundly. Fragonard painted in Rousseau's time. If Rousseau (1712-1778) did not “invent” adolescence, he certainly was the first to identify the stage of development in the West (Esman, 1990, p. 9). Fragonard's portraits may well have reflected the growing acknowledgement of this pre-adulthood period as well as the purity and goodness of young people such as this girl.

1800 to 1900s: Mass Literacy and Leisure Reading

The 19th and 20th centuries brought many changes in the general public's ability to read and write. Lyons (1999) argues that by the end of the 19th century, the “reading public” of the Western world achieved mass literacy; and Venezky (1991), that literacy in the 20th century was “the near-universal tool of the masses, utilizable within every facet of

daily life” (p. 46). As a result of increased education and industrialization in the 1800s-1900s, women, children and the working class joined the “literacy club” (term attributed to Frank Smith, 1988) on a large scale.

Joining the Literacy Club. Although he may not have realized it, one of the greatest figurative artists of all times, French William Bouguereau (1825-1905), captured this very idea in a painting of another young female student (Figure 16), almost a hundred years after Fragonard’s *Young Scholar* (Figure 15).



Figure 16: William Bouguereau. *The Difficult Lesson* (La leçon difficile). 1884. Oil on canvas, 97.8 x 66 cm. Private Collection. Courtesy of Art Renewal Center. Image Source:

http://www.artrenewal.org/images/artists/b/Bouguereau_William/La_lecon_difficile.jpg

Seated on a stark dirty step, this working class child is shown “joining the literacy club”, albeit with some trial. Distinctive are the bare feet, the bare walls, the simple dress and the solemn look. Her finger is poised at a word in the open book as she looks up, as if to say, “This is not easy.”

Bouguereau loved to paint children! In fact, Bouguereau included hundreds of them in his over 800 completed historical, biblical, mythological and contemporary works. Amazingly, many of these images (putti, nymphs, biblical infants and contemporary children) were life-size portraits, as the example above. Ross (2003) believes that the artist “captured the soul of youth,” and deliberately chose lower classes subjects to

underscore the rights of man and the value of all life. Of the almost 200 Bouguereau paintings catalogued in The Art Renewal Center's (2003) noteworthy collection of images, about a third are of contemporary working class children and youth. Indeed, Bouguereau's models were often from families of farmers, fisherman and even his own servants.

Literate Young Girls: Reading for Pleasure. During the 1800s "reading for enjoyment" was an evolving literacy practice, as written materials of all kinds (e.g. magazines, newspapers, and cheap fiction) became increasingly available. Importantly, this period was a hallmark for specific books targeted for young people. The birth of modern children's literature as we know it today took place; books, poems and magazines written specifically for children/youth brought humor, adventure, fantasy and realistic fiction into their lives. Classics still popular today were published, including Moore's *The Night Before Christmas* (1823); Anderson's *Fairy Tales* (translated in 1846); Carroll's *Alice in Wonderland* (1865), considered the first English children's masterpiece; Alcott's *Little Women* (1868); Twain's *Adventures of Tom Sawyer* (1876); Collodi's *Pinocchio* (1891); and Kipling's *The Jungle Books* (1894).

Thus, it seems no coincidence that from the mid-to-late 1800s, artists began painting numerous portraits of young girls reading novels. Unlike the portraits of the 16th to 18th centuries, these paintings suggested not so much religious or scholarly intent, but instead that of reading for enjoyment, particularly fiction and picture storybooks.

Lord Frederick Leighton (1830-1896) was a life-long bachelor and the first academic English painter/sculptor to be made a Lord by the British Crown. Like Fragonard a century before him, Leighton (a neo-classicist) loved to paint beautiful innocent and evocative young females in rich colors and elegant lighting. Two of his paintings (*Maid with the Golden Hair*, 1895, and Figure 17 below) are memorable in that they show adolescents (in lush golden tones) so totally immersed in reading that one can almost feel the intensity of their concentration.



Figure 17: Lord Frederick Leighton. *Study: At a Reading Desk*. 1877. Oil on canvas, 63.2 x 65.1 cm. Sudley House, Mossley Hill, Liverpool, England. Courtesy of Art Renewal Center, Fred Ross, Chairman. Image Source: <http://www.artrenewal.org/asp/database/art.asp?aid=14&page=6>

This eloquently dressed miss is sitting cross-legged on the floor with a bit of bare toe peeking out from under her dress. With arms crossed she is bending over a unique x-shaped portable reading desk. The lighting is such that the right side of the open book is illuminated.

Whereas Leighton painted adolescents reading in boldly rich tones, French impressionist Pierre-Auguste Renoir (1841-1919) painted younger girls. Renoir was obviously intrigued with children reading because he painted at least seven portraits of gloriously coiffured and be-decked little girls leisurely pouring over open books. A superb example is Figure 18 below.

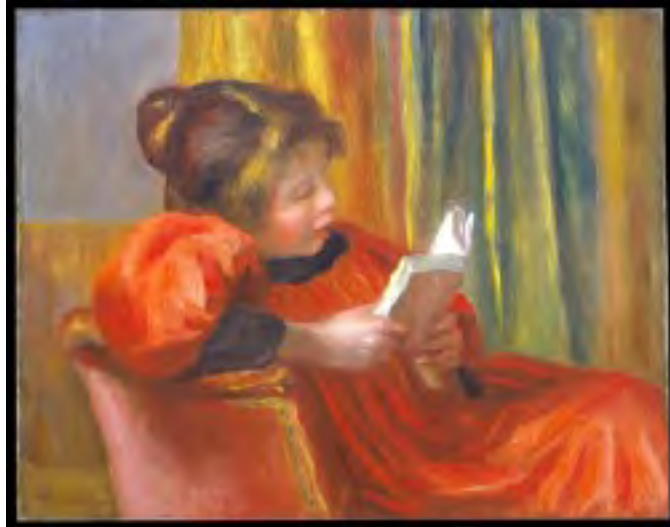


Figure 18: Pierre Auguste Renoir. *A Girl Reading (La Lecture)*. 1890. Museum of Fine Arts, Houston; Gift of Audrey Jones Beck. Courtesy of the Museum of Fine Arts, Houston. Image also available at: http://www.artchive.com/artchive/R/renoir/la_lecture.jpg.html

Completely lost in her book, “the girl in red” has her head slightly tilted and mouth partially open as if she were reading aloud-- or in utter awe. In a blur of vibrant reds and oranges, she is the epitome of what Walther (2000, p. 504) calls Renoir’s desire to paint only the serene, the innocent and the beautiful.

*When I was a ten-year-old
and used to kiss the dust jacket pictures of authors
as if they were icons, it used to amaze me
that these remote people could provoke me to love.
(Erica Jong)*

Multiple Children, Multiple Genres. An emerging motif of the 20th century was the depiction of multiple children engaged in literary pursuits together with different types of genres, including picture books, comics and big books. The three portraits that follow are a sampling of the numerous works along these lines.

Picture books as we know them today originated in England around the turn of the century; and up through the 1920s, most of them were published there (Cullinan & Galda, 1998, p. 28). Figure 19 is a British narrative painting by Victorian artist Charles Haigh-Wood (1874-1904) about one such storybook.



Figure 19: Charles Haigh-Wood. *Peace Offering*. Before 1927. Private Collection. Courtesy of Modernart Editions, copyright 1992.

Image Source:

<http://www.barewalls.com/product/artwork.exe?ItemID=60994&zoom=1&njs=1>

This enchanting picture by the light of a fire tells a story of an interchange between a boy and girl, possibly sister and brother. They appear to have had an argument over and maybe even a tussle as to who would read a children's picture book. The object of concern is lying on the floor with several pages in tatters. The boy is offering the sad-faced girl some coins (or something?) as recompense for this destruction of a much loved book. (As an interesting literary aside, the daughter of Charles Haigh-Wood had an intense and volatile marriage to TS Eliot.)

At 22 years of age, British Pop Artist Peter Blake (1932-) completed a picture of his sister and himself (Figure 20) during his studies at the Royal College of Art.



Figure 20: Peter Blake. *Children Reading Comics*. 1954. Tullie House Museum and Art Gallery, Carlisle, UK. Courtesy of Artist Rights Society. Image Source: Tullie House Museum and Art Gallery, Carlisle, UK

Blake and his sibling (with a patch over her eye) are sitting outside reading comics from a newspaper whose print is almost readable. Reproducing facsimiles of pages was somewhat radical at the time. As a Pop Artist, Blake painted everyday objects and familiar subjects and often his pictures were autobiographical, this one transcribed from an old family photo (Livingston, 1990).

Moving into the late 20th century, Brenda Joysmith (1952-) has painted a uniquely contemporary scene of “Shared Literacy” entitled *Reading from All Sides* (Figure 21).



Figure 21: Brenda Joysmith. *Reading from All Sides*. 1988. Private Collection. Courtesy of Joysmith Gallery and Studio, Memphis. Image Source: <http://www.joysmith.com/rfas.html>

Huddled around the edges of a big book (stories with enlarged text and illustrations), five little girls are enthusiastically reading aloud together. This activity is called a “Shared Book Experience.” It is a strategy based on the theory that learning to read is a social experience and that adults and other children can provide that support in a group setting (Holdaway, 1979). A teacher or parent reads a book aloud numerous times with the children, encouraging them to read along in unison, as they are able. After many repeated readings, the children can read the big book independently.

Brenda Joysmith is a contemporary pastel artist who was trained at the Chicago Institute of Art. Her goal is the positive depiction of everyday black life scenes—“which are as common as sunshine” (Joysmith, 2002). Literacy activities with other children and adults are important themes in many of her paintings, including *Reading and Friendship* (1990), *Bible Study* (1994), *Storyteller* (1990); as well as *Bedtime Story* (1991) and *Ritual of Good Night* (2001) (see Figures 35 & 36) which are wonderful examples of “Family Literacy,” the next major section of this survey.

Family Literacy Paintings

Children are made readers on the laps of their parents.
(Emilie Buchwald, speech, 1994)

“Family Literacy” became a hot topic in the educational world at the beginning of the 1990s and still is an important area of study today. Family literacy involves activities with print involving parents, children and grandchildren both in and outside of the home. When two or more generations are involved, family literacy is often termed “intergenerational” or “multigenerational” literacy.

Experts have long acknowledged that “parents are children’s first teachers;” that “literacy begins at home;” and that as Huey claimed in 1908, “it all begins with parents reading to children” (p. 103). It is doubtful that painters over the centuries knew or understood the significance of what parents did to help their children learn language and literacy; but they certainly portrayed the event as an important cultural phenomenon in numerous paintings for nearly 600 years.

This concluding section is a survey of paintings from the early Renaissance to the 20th century of family literacy in action. Works where parents, grandparents and children are interacting with print cluster around three themes: (a) religious; (b) educational; and (c) multigenerational oral reading.

Christian Portrayals of Family Literacy

Visual arts served many functions within the church, not the least of which was its use in teaching Bible stories to the young and the illiterate. Art also became a means of honoring the saints, and a tool for recalling points in the salvation story during periods of private and collective

prayer.... To these functions—instruction, veneration, and remembrance—we add the role of adornment. What enriched God’s house enhanced his glory, providing an appropriate environment in which to encounter the divine.
(Katz, 2001, pp. 29-30)

Thus in the Christian interpretation, religious art was fertile ground for helping the children and illiterate adults “read” the Word of God, remember the Bible stories, find the road to salvation, inspire devotion and feel close to that which is holy and divine. Madonna art was especially powerful in these respects. What follows are three major Marian art themes where literacy is particularly significant.

Mary and Christ Enthroned. Interestingly, like the early Christian depictions of books (Figure 5), the first portraits showing a Biblical family unit were found in the Roman catacombs –i.e., Mary with infant Jesus in her lap (early 3rd century CE, Catacomb of Priscilla). Given that Christianity is based on God’s Word and His Word appears in the form of a book, it is not surprising that this early image of Christ in Mary’s lap evolved over time into the first occurrence in Western paintings in which a parent is depicted reading with a child: and, indeed, one of the most profound religious images of Christianity.

In Christian devotional paintings, the Madonna is sometimes pictured as the “Queen of Heaven” sitting enthroned and holding both an open book and the baby Jesus. The particular kind of book chosen by the artist was highly symbolic. Manguel (1996, p. 219) suggests several interpretations: (a) Mary’s intellectualism and stance as “Mother of Wisdom” was represented if she was reading the *Books of Wisdom*; (b) literary parallelism, if the book was the Old Testament chapter *Isaiah* which told of Mary conceiving and bearing a son to be called Immanuel; (c) Christ’s intellectual and dominate role in giving the world the word of God, if he held the New Testament Gospels; (d) prayer and inspiration, if both were sharing a Book of Hours; or (e) parental tutoring, if they were studying it. For in addition to devotions, hand-made Books of Hours were used by women in wealthy homes to teach reading from the 13th to 16th centuries.

Once attributed to Van Eyck (Panofsky, 1966) Figure 22 is clearly a “Family Literacy Event” as we would call it today with Mary and Jesus sharing a book together.



Figure 22: Unknown (Follower of Jan Van Eyck). *Madonna and Child*. 1433. Oil on wood panel, 26.3 x 19.4 cm. Felton Bequest, 1922, National Gallery of Victoria, Melbourne. Courtesy of the National Gallery of Victoria. Image Source: <http://www.ngv.vic.gov.au/collection/international/painting/e/ipa00188.html>

Although attributed to a contemporary, the painting is similar to several of Jan Van Eyck's (1390-1441) works, particularly *Suckling Madonna Enthroned* (1436). In both paintings, Mary, in a flare of red robes, is seated with naked infant Christ on her lap under a rich tapestry baldachin (cloth canopy used to isolate and cover important people). Whereas Van Eyck put Mary on an elaborate throne, the artist of Figure 22 sat Mary on a pillow. Instead of a nursing scene, both are holding the open book, pages somewhat fanned with Christ turning them. The illuminated manuscript is either the Gospels or a Book of Hours. It is hard to tell whether Mary is silently or orally reading or if she is teaching Christ to read. Van Eyck may simply have been symbolizing the advent of the New Testament and the telling of a new era.

A variation of this book motif with Mary and Christ was popular during the last half of the 1400s. Instead of reading the book with his mother, Christ is shown wrinkling or tearing the book lying in her lap. This scene has been painted by several artists, including Van der Weyden (1450), Colyn de Coter (1490), Memling (1475) and the Anonymous Brussels Master (late 15th century). Below is Rogier Van der Weyden's (1400-1464) version (Figure 23).



Figure 23: Roger Van der Weyden *Virgin and Child*. C. 1450. Museo del Prado, Madrid. Courtesy of Web Gallery of Art. Image Source: <http://gallery.euroweb.hu/html/w/weyden/rogier/17other/2duran.html>

In the painting, Christ is a little older than in Figure 22 and he is fully clothed. Instead of a baldachin overhead, a sculptural niche surrounds parent and child. There are several different theories as to why artists depicted Jesus aggressively seizing the book. One is that Jesus is grabbing at the pages like any normal infant might. Another is that he is intentionally crumpling and tearing the pages--most likely those of the Old Testament--because the New Testament superseded it. If the latter is indeed the correct interpretation, this defiant act is most symbolic. Manguel (1996) posits still another theory that Christ is showing his intellectual superiority over Mary, supporting St Paul's misogynist dictum and negating the whole idea of Mary as Lady (or Mother) of Wisdom.

The Holy Family. A second popular Marian devotional motif in which the book played a prominent role was the depiction of various gatherings of Christ's family. Under the theme of "Holy Family" or "Holy Kindred" painters grouped together various relatives including (a) the nuclear family of Mary and Jesus with Joseph (e.g., Schongauer, 1475; Berruguete, 1500); and (b) the three generations (grandmother, St Anne; daughter, Mary; and son, Jesus) surrounded by other family members (e.g. Geertgen Sint Jans, 1475; Massys, 1500; Cranach, 1509). Quinten Massys' (1466-1530) earliest dated work, the *St Anne Altarpiece* (Figures 24a and 24b) below is one of the most beautiful examples in

which children (both peers and relatives of Christ) are shown reading with Holy Family adults.



Figure 24a: Quentin Massys. Center Panel of St Anne Altarpiece. 1507-08. Oil on wood, 224.5 x 219 cm. Muses Royaux des Beaux-Arts, Brussels. Courtesy of Web Gallery of Art. Image Source:

<http://www.kfki.hu/~arthp/html/m/massys/quentin/1/index.html>

In this large extended family portrait, the Virgin and Anne are sitting on a bench; Mary is holding Christ, while her mother is offering him grapes (a symbol of communion). Two other women and their families surround them. Beyond the balustrade behind each woman sits her husband-- at least two of the men are holding books. According to late medieval legend, Anne was married three times, each resulting in an offspring named Mary (Hall, 1979). Virgin Mary was the oldest. On the right, Mary Cleophas (or Clopus), the youngest daughter, is shown with her two sons--James the Greater (one of Christ's twelve disciples) and his younger brother, John the Evangelist, with an inkwell (attribute of a writer) around his waist and an open book in his hands. On the left is the middle daughter of Anne, Mary Salome. Her four sons are gathered about her, three of whom are engaged with books (Figure 24b).



Figure 24b: Quentin Massys. Detail of St Anne Altarpiece. 1507-08. Oil on wood, 224.5 x 219 cm. Muses Royaux des Beaux-Arts, Brussels. Courtesy of Web Gallery of Art. Image Source: <http://www.kfki.hu/~arthp/html/m/massys/quentin/1/index.html>

Above, James the Less (who supposedly became the first bishop of Jerusalem) is handing his mother a flower and his two brothers Simon and Thaddeus are sharing an open book together on their mother's lap. The youngest son, Joseph, is holding what looks to be writing in his hands and has an illuminated manuscript, turned the wrong direction, open across his legs. The book has a picture of King David, a reference to Christ's lineage. Most likely, Massys painted the book upside down for the viewer's convenience of "reading" the reference.

The Education of Mary. A second legend involving Mary and her mother tells of another literacy event—Anne tutoring her daughter. Particularly popular in Counter-Reformation art, a flurry of paintings showing the education of Mary were completed in the mid- 1600s to 1800s (e.g. Segher & Erasmus, 1645; La Tour, 1650; Jouvenet, 1700; Tiepolo, 1732; Fragonard, 1773 and Delacroix, 1852). Figure 25 by Georges de La Tour (1704-1788) is one of the most striking.



Figure 25: Georges de La Tour. *The Education of the Virgin*. C. 1650. Oil on canvas, 83.8 x 100.4 cm. The Frick Collection, New York. Copyright The Frick Collection, New York. Image Source: <http://www.frick.org/html/pntg40f.htm>

In La Tour's "night" painting of this motif, St Anne is shown teaching her daughter how to read—most likely using the Old Testament. What is remarkable about this image is that the open book in Anne's hands has center stage, both in position and illumination. The figures are powerful, but no more than the book.

Sister Wendy Beckett (1999) maintains that La Tour was quite artistically enraptured by the effects of candlelight as evidenced in paintings like *Job and his Wife* (1632-35); *The Newborn* (c. 1645); and *The Magdalen of the Candle* (1644). This is certainly true in Figure 25 above. Mary's face is aglow with light from the candle, just as are the pages of the manuscript. Mary's hand is raised partially, as if reading aloud, her fingers translucent before the flame. Anne's face is only partially lit but the cloth and folds of her robe shimmer in red -- the symbol for love. (Interestingly, La Tour used a very similar looking child whose hand is illuminated by a flame just as Mary's in *Young Christ with St Joseph in the Carpenter's Shop*, c. 1642.)

Secular Renderings of Family Literacy

*Few children learn to love books by themselves.
Someone has to lure them into the wonderful world of the written word;
someone has to show them the way.*
(Orville Prescott from *A Father Reads to His Children*, 1965)

One current theory of reading development suggests that optimal literacy learning occurs when children are exposed to print and see it being used in numerous ways by significant others in their daily lives (Cambourne, 1988) and when it is embedded extensively in the social processes of family life (Taylor, 1983).

Parents as Models. Unknowingly, painters began capturing this theory in action in the 15th century. One of the earliest secular examples of a parent reading with a child appeared in the latter 1400s. The painting is a double portrait of a Spanish duke reading with his son (Figure 26) by Spanish artist Pedro Berruguete (1450-1504).



Figure 26: Pedro Berruguete. *Prince Federico da Montefeltro and His Son*. 1480-81. Oil on panel, 138 x 80 cm. Galleria Nazionale delle Marche, Urbino.

Courtesy of Web Gallery of Art. Image Source:

<http://www.kfki.hu/~arthp/html/b/berrugue/pedro/montefel.html>

The image shows father reading with the prince at his knee. Symbols in the picture shows two sides of the Duke, which may well have translated into expectations for his son. “On the one hand, the duke is shown with his insignia of power: armor, ermine cloak and sword. On his knee he wears the Order of the Garter, awarded to him in 1474. On the other hand, he is engrossed in the book he is reading, signifying that he is not only a ruler, but also an educated humanist” (Stukenbrock & Topper, 2000, p. 85).

The size and position of the book, held out pompously by the Duke, makes it the predominate artifact. However, it is difficult to tell if Federico is reading aloud or silently

from the red tome--as his son looks on passively. Whichever, the Duke is modeling the importance of literacy for his son. The expectation and cultural messages are clear in that the boy will become a reader; he will value that skill just as his father does. Indeed, literacy held an important place in the social fabric and processes of this family.

Parents as Teachers. A portrait by the Dutch painter Casper Netscher (1635/6-1684) is notable in that it is one of the earliest pictures of presumably a parent specifically teaching a child how to read (Figure 27).



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Figure 27: Caspar Netscher. *A Lady Teaching a Child to Read and Child Playing with a Dog*. C. 1670. Oil on oak, 45.1 x 37 cm. National Gallery, London. Image Source: <http://www.nationalgallery.org.uk/cgi-bin/WebObjects.dll/CollectionPublisher.woa/wa/work?workNumber=NG844>

This painting has several “moral” literacy messages. One (as seen in later examples) is that it was the duty of mothers to pass the skill of reading along to their children—girls as well as boys. At a desk by the window, a lady is instructing her

daughter while her son has better things to do. Netscher deliberately contrasts the industry of the girl to the idleness of the boy who is playing with a dog on the chair and the game knucklebone (like jacks) on the floor (National Gallery, 2002). The artist put a Ruben painting called “The Brazen Serpent” on the wall. It is a reference to the Old Testament passage from *Numbers 21: 5-9*. In the picture Moses is saving the people who are being attacked by a plague of fiery serpents because of their sinfulness. One obvious moral of the painting is that “if children put their time toward learning to read, instead of frivolous play, they will be saved from a plague of serpents, i.e. their sinfulness.” Like Moses, parents can provide the path to salvation through instruction.

Other than a few religious and upper class portraits like the ones above, children pictured with literacy objects or in literacy interactions with their parents were exceedingly rare from the 1600s to the 1800s. Beginning in the early 1800s, artists began emulating the theme of the 17th century Dutch painters like Netscher, who portrayed the proper duty of parents to nurture and instruct, but without the moralizing messages. The middle and upper-middle classes were increasingly represented in these genre scenes. The next three paintings are some outstanding examples.

Breaking from the more popular convention of “mother as teacher,” Figure 28 is a double portrait of a father instructing his daughter.



Figure 28: Louis-Leopold Boilly. *The Geography Lesson*. 1812. Oil on canvas, 73.6 x 59 cm. Kimbell Art Museum, Fort Worth. Photographer, Michael Bodycomb. Permission courtesy of Kimbell Art Museum. Image Source: <http://www.kimbellart.org/database/index.cfm?detail=yes&ID=AP%201990.01>

Louis-Leopold Boilly (1761-1845) was a gifted French genre artist during the Napoleonic era. Figure 28 depicts Monsieur Gudry, a civil servant giving his daughter lessons in geography, a common discipline taught during this period. This scene was not specifically contrived for the portrait, as Boilly was a close family friend who observed the actual lessons and loving interchanges many times (Kimball Art Museum, 2002).

Figures 29 and 30 send a different message about literacy learning. They portray children who are not all that happy about reading and writing. Paul Delaroche's (1797-1856) image contains a displeased parent, as well. The faces tell the story—mother exasperated, child refusing to read!



Figure 29: Hippolyte (Paul) Delaroche. *A Child Learning to Read, Unhappy Mother*. 1848. Mahogany panel, 20.5 x 14.2 cm. Wallace Collection, London. Courtesy of Wallace Art Museum. Image Source: http://www.the-wallace-collection.org.uk/c/w_a/p_w_d/f/p/p358.htm

English artist Robert Braithwaite Martineau's (1826-1869) painting (Figure 30) is one of the rare examples where children are shown actually writing (Rembrandt's picture of his son writing being one of the earliest, Figure 11). Kit, head resting on his arm and pained expression on his face, does not seem too enthralled with his lesson. His mother (although it could be his sister) is looking over his shoulder, giving some instruction, as she sews.

Click the URL below to see the painting.

Figure 30: Robert Braithwaite Martineau. *Kit's Writing Lesson*. 1852. Oil on canvas, 521 x 705 mm. Tate Gallery, London. Image Source: <http://www.tate.org.uk/servlet/Work?id=9356>

A beautiful early 20th century work by an Australian artist completes this survey of paintings of “parents as teachers.” In one of his later works, the gifted colorist artist, (E)manuel Phillips Fox (1865-1915), true to the maternal theme popular in the Paris Salon at that time, showed a devoted mother teaching her child to read. Known for his hushed quiet atmospheres, soft moods and light effects, Fox gives this literacy act an elegance and dreaminess with a cascade of pastels in a motified Impressionist technique (Figure 31).



Figure 31: E. Phillips Fox. *The Lesson*. 1912. Oil on canvas, 183.6 x 112 cm. Felton Bequest. The National Gallery of Victoria, Melbourne, Australia. Courtesy of National Gallery of Victoria. Image Source: <http://www.ngv.vic.gov.au/collection/australian/painting/f/apa00179.html>

Intergenerational Literacy: Reading Aloud. In today’s terminology, reading aloud to children is often referred to as “family storybook time,” “interactive storybook,” “bedtime story” or “lap” reading.” In fact, evidence suggests that *no one experience* is as critical for learning language and literacy than reading aloud to children (Neuman & Roskos, 1993), for it is the single most important activity in building the knowledge and skills eventually required for reading (Anderson, Hiebert, Scott, & Wilkinson, 1985). The next two paintings are touching examples of grandparents and grandchildren reading aloud to each other, sharing the gift of literacy.

Swiss artist, Albert Anker (1831-1910) was well known for his portraits of everyday life in the mid-late 19th century, particularly rural and farm scenes. Figure 32 is a heart-tugging and rare portrayal of a young boy reading aloud to an ailing grandparent. The sick old man, propped up by pillows and hands folded on his lap blanket, seems content as he listens to his young grandson. The expression on the boy's face is one of earnest and grave devotion to his reading—and according to the title, also to his grandfather.



Figure 32: Albert Anker. *Devotion to the Grandfather*. 1893. Oil on canvas, 63 x 92 cm. Kunstmuseum, Berne. Courtesy of Kunstmuseum, Berne. Image Source: http://translate.google.com/translate?u=http%3A%2F%2Fwww.kunstmuseumbern.ch%2Fcontent.cfm%3Fmenu%3dhig_sam&langpair=de%7Cen&hl=en

Figure 33 is a gentle painting of the reverse—a grandparent reading aloud to a grandchild.



Figure 33: Max Liebermann. *Portrait of Artist's Wife and Granddaughter*. 1926. Oil on canvas, 113 x 99.3 cm. Hebrew Union College, Skirball Museum, Los Angeles. 41.142; Gift of the Jewish Restitution Successor Organization. Courtesy of Hebrew Union College, Skirball Museum. Image Source: Grossman, 1995, p. 285.

Well-known German Jewish painter Max Liebermann (1847-1935) rendered a sensitive portrayal of a literacy moment between his wife and their granddaughter. Perched on the arm of the chair, the young girl's right hand is resting softly on her Grandmother's arm as they both look at the book. Liebermann was a prominent artist in Berlin before WWII and was known for images of the working class. When the Nazis rose to power all his paintings were removed from museums.

*You may have tangible wealth untold:
Caskets of jewels and coffers of gold.
Richer than I you can never be—
I had a Mother who read to me.*
(“The Reading Mother” By Strickland Gillian)

As noted earlier, in the late 19th and the early 20th centuries, the maternal theme was popular in paintings (e.g., Figure 31). “Images idealized the notions of womanhood at a time of social flux and the beginnings of the women’s rights movement” (*American Art Book*, 1999, p. 111). While a number of these works did not involve literacy, many that did bordered on secular versions or counterpoints of the Madonna and Child similar to Figure 22.

For turn-of-the century painters like George de Forest Brush (*Mother and Child*, 1892); Sir James Jebusa Shannon (*Mother and Child*, c. 1900-10); and William Sergeant Kendall their wives and children were favorite subjects. They captured them in intimate literacy interactions with both child and book in mother's lap similar to "Mary and Child Enthroned." Idealizing motherhood, the painters showed their wives lovingly reading bedtime stories to their daughters as in Figure 34.



Figure 34: William Sergeant Kendall. *The End of the Day*. 1900. Oil on canvas, 86.5 x 84 cm. Adelson Galleries. Courtesy of Adelson Galleries. Image Source: <http://www.adelsongalleries.com> (Go to Artists, Kendall)

One time head of the Fine Arts Department at Yale and America's best known painter of children in the early 20th century, William Kendall (1869-1938) places his wife in profile as she tenderly kisses the top of their five-year old daughter's head. Young Beatrice is enjoying a children's storybook read-aloud before being tucked in for the night. This "brief interlude" shows how reading together can build bonds of warmth and love. In fact, Kendall was so inspired by this image he entitled another similar portrait at the Smithsonian by that very name (*An Interlude*, 1907).

Figure 35 is a late 20th century version of this maternal storybook reading motif. This enchanting pastel is by Brenda Joysmith (1952-)--an artist whose engaging work appears earlier (Figure 21).



Figure 35: Brenda Joysmith. *Bedtime Story*. 1991. Courtesy of Joysmith Gallery and Studio, Memphis. Image Source: <http://www.joysmith.com/bedt.html>

Joysmith paints so true to her name—showing the joy of reading. Curled up around their mother on the bed, two children are mesmerized by a bedtime story. It is that special “comforting time” at the end of a day—fingers in mouth, warmth of mother’s body and magical words of a story that will soon take them to never-never land.

A unique painting completed recently by Joysmith for the 25th anniversary of the National Organization of Black Law Enforcement Executives, Washington, DC (2001) completes this survey of literacy paintings of children, youth and families (Figure 36).



Figure 36: Brenda Joysmith. *Ritual of Good Night*. 2001. Courtesy of Joysmith Gallery and Studio, Memphis. Image Source: <http://www.joysmith.com/ritu.html>

In a variation of the bedtime motif, this portrait shows a father reading a bedtime story to his child (and her teddy) right before he goes to work. Mother watches with an adoring thoughtful expression, ready to hand Father his policeman's coat and hat. This "ritual" is one of loving, literacy and loyal night-time responsibilities. Joysmith celebrates the contributions of fatherhood to literacy—a rare occurrence in paintings of today.

Coming Full Circle and Then Some

The 36 literacy paintings of children, adolescents and families included here span almost 2500 years. These paintings hint at how Western literate culture has traveled full circle and then some. With the Greeks and the Romans, literacy began extending outward and downward to workers, women, children and adolescents. Extensive reading and writing for pleasure were common literary practices; oral reading was an everyday event; and a wide literate public was established—much like the Western world today. Indeed, Greek literacy practices from 5th to 4th BCE characterize many of those in the 20th to 21st centuries CE, albeit expanded. After many intervening centuries of mass illiteracy, modern young people and their parents have almost universal access to literacy and enjoy an enormous range of easily accessible reading materials. They read for pleasure as well as other purposes and encounter widespread oral recitation on television and radio and at home, school and religious gatherings. As literacy practices have come full circle, so have many Greco-Roman artifacts and their terms. Today for instance, "scroll" is something one does when reading text on a computer and "tablets" are the electronic devices of the new e-book technology.

Another way to “read” these paintings as a circle is to see them as a visual chronology of children and youth joining the “Literacy Club” from Antiquity to the present day. As Frank Smith (1988) so succinctly put it, “one of the most important communities any individual can join is the literacy club, because membership ensures that individuals learn how to read and write, and because reading is the entrance to many other clubs” (p. vii).

Bringing this odyssey to a close, Austrian author Franz Grillparzer (1838) argued that science and art (including painting, prose and poetry) are different in that the first is like a journey and the other, an excursion. The purpose of the journey is its goal; the purpose of an excursion is the process. Recasting his idea in terms of this paper and the theme of the 2001 American Reading Conference, literacy acquisition (i.e., learning to read and write; and, indeed, joining the literacy club) is the journey; the literacy paintings are the excursion. Yes, the odyssey.

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Favorite Internet Art Sites

<http://www.artcyclopedia.com/>

Artcyclopedia is the best search engine available with biographies, categories, and thousands of links to museums and galleries. (Search by artist, title or museum)

<http://www.artrenewal.org/>

ARC (The Art Renewal Center) provides outstanding art images in high resolution and a scholarly collection of essays, biographies and articles. (The search function is only by artist under *Museum*).

<http://gallery.euroweb.hu/>

Web Gallery of Art is a database with only European Art (1150-1800). The strength of this site is that most of the paintings have detailed information and biographies of the artists. (Search options are extensive--by title, artist, subject, date, etc.)

From Training to Impact: A Master's Student's Application of Methods To Increase Student Learning

Joyce C. Fine, Helen Robbins, Lynn Yribarren and Maria Tsalikis

On February 22, 2002, the deans and reading professors across Florida were summoned to St. Petersburg College for the Secretary's Roundtable on Teacher Preparation in Florida's K-20 Education System by Jim Horne, Secretary of Education. At the luncheon, Governor Jeb Bush spoke.

"Are teachers good? Are teachers good?" Bush rhetorically questioned his audience. Thinking of the many fine teacher candidates the first author has had in her university classes, she automatically responded, "Yes!"

"Not good enough!" he loudly and emphatically retorted. He admitted that he had just been to see several teachers and student teachers in schools that morning whom he thought were good, but he had other worrisome evidence. He gave the grim statistics from the last year's state standardized reading achievement tests: 47% of fourth graders, 57% of eighth graders and 62% of tenth graders were not reading on grade level. The teacher educator kept thinking, "Don't bash all teachers," but her better discretion did not allow her to voice her thought at that moment. Instead, she thought there is a need to give evidence from the real world of teaching.

Governor Bush's statistics show that students have difficulty with literacy on the state tests. It may suggest to him and others that teachers are not good enough. One defensive response might be the question, "Should teachers be held responsible for the decline in reading achievement as students progress through the grades?" There are *many* factors that are possible reasons for students developing identities of nonreaders, having to do with influences from home, in school, and in our culture (Alvermann, 2001), especially as they mature into

adolescents. Given today's societal context, if we are concerned with truly empowering students to be literate participating citizens, we must be reflective and think about the students who could be reading at higher levels, and ask "Are we doing enough?"

Is there room for each of us to be better? How can each teacher improve his or her own teaching? From a critical stance, both teachers and teacher educators need to reflect and take action to explore how to improve reading instruction. Only with evidence can we counter the accusations against the teaching profession and colleges of education, in general. As Darling-Hammond, (1999, 2000) has shown, teacher quality is critical.

In *Meeting the Highly Qualified Teachers Challenge: The Secretary's Annual Report on Teacher Quality* (2002), issued by the U.S. Department of Education, Colleges of Education are accused of perpetuating a "broken system" in which pedagogy is more important than knowledge of subject matter. This report, the official federal policy, claims knowledge of pedagogy for student performance is not important, that colleges of education are interested in making entry into the field difficult so that the professional status of education will be raised. Legislators and policy makers echo this devaluing of professional development across the country.

According to the Educational Testing Service's survey (Hart & Teeter, 2002), when asked, "What makes quality teaching?" the public says that it involves skills to design learning experiences that inspire and interest children. This constitutes the evidence for the base of a rebuttal to federal policy statements (Perkins-Gough, 2002). We need convincing evidence that highly qualified reading specialists are effective in designing such experiences to teach reading to students. Quality reading teacher preparation can empower teachers to create supportive environments in their own classrooms in which students learn to read well. The focus of this paper is on an action research project by a graduate of a Master's in Reading Education

university program as she applied what she had learned, creating learning experiences that inspired, interested and motivated her third graders in real reading.

Through teacher-conducted action research involving “reflection and action through systemic, intentional inquiry about classroom life” (Baumann, Shockley-Bisplinghoff & Allen, 1997, p. 125), teachers study their own personal theories as they converge with theories from within the field, share the outcomes at professional conferences and publish their findings. According to Adelman (1993), the term “action research,” was coined by Kurt Lewin in 1940 and describes the kind of research in which the researcher and the practitioners come together. Corey (1953) conceived of action research as a tool for teachers studying the consequences of their own teaching. By the 1980’s, action research gained popularity and has continued to become a way for the true improvement of teaching. Because it is done by the teacher himself or herself, the lessons learned get to be put into practice immediately instead of the usual delay of as many as twenty years between research and practice (Glanz, 1998).

Baumann and Duffy-Hester (2000) examined the perspectives involved with the methodology in teacher research. From their qualitative evaluation, they devised categories for appreciating the breadth of methodologies teachers use. They categorize action research by four themes: 1) General attributes of teacher research, 2) Process of teacher inquiry, 3) Teacher-research methods, and 4) Writing and reporting about classroom inquiry. In terms of these categories, the general attribute that best describes the teacher-researcher in this study is that it was prompted by the problems she faced with students who were below grade-level and unmotivated readers. The process of teacher inquiry was collaborative for she conducted the research with a coresearcher from her doctoral program as well as with students and their parents. The teacher-researcher’s methods were complementary because she used a mixed

method approach with both qualitative and quantitative procedures (Rocco, Bliss, Gallagher, Perez-Prado, Alacaci, Dwyer, Fine, & Pappamihel, 2003). Her methods of writing and reporting are narrative, illustrative (see technological tour of her classroom) and figurative in her vignettes. The research presented here gives specific evidence to those who question the quality of teachers coming from programs that offer knowledge *for* teaching the process of reading, knowledge *in* the practice of reading and knowledge *of* the practice of quality reading instruction to change students' literate identities (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999).

The basis for creating this literacy rich environment was research-based practices (Almasi & Gambrell, 1996; Jewell & Pratt, 1999). Motivating and engaging students in authentic language experiences is essential (Baker & Wigfield, 1999). The need for these to be culturally grounded (Guthrie, 1996) is also important not only as they begin their engagement with print in the early years, but, also, as they make their way through school at each stage of development. Many researchers have discovered that students' engagement with and motivation to read are crucial factors affecting reading ability (Almasi & Gambrell, 1996; Baker, & Wigfield, 1999; Cambourne, 1995; Guthrie, 1996; & Trelease, 1989). These researchers attribute in-depth, conceptual learning to the extent of student's motivation and engagement. They have found that motivation increases reading time and achievement. By providing students with experiences with excellent children's literature, allowing them book access and providing social interactions that revolve around books, they gain a sense of literacy freedom. Motivated readers engage with text to satisfy curiosity, to build knowledge about subjects and ideas of interest to them, and to obtain different perspectives of the world. Developing these personal, intrinsic motivations for reading encourage lifelong literacy. Students benefit from this approach, taking them from passive to actively engaged readers. In 1995, the report of the National Institute of Education stated, "the

single most important activity for building the knowledge required for eventual success in reading is reading aloud to children” (Anderson, Hiebert, Scott, & Wilkinson, 1985).

In order for children to have “grand conversations,” they must support each other and feel free to take risks. Harste (1990) calls for the creation of “low-risk environments where exploration is accepted and current efforts are socially supported and understood.” The rationale for Literature Circles includes the ideas that they do the following:

- Promote a love for literature and positive attitude toward reading
- Reflect a constructivist, child-centered model of literacy
- Encourage extensive and intensive reading
- Invite natural discussions that lead to student inquiry and critical thinking
- Support diverse response to texts
- Foster interaction and collaboration
- Provide choice and encourage responsibility
- Expose children to literature from multiple perspectives
- Nurture reflection and self-evaluation

The Master’s in Reading Education programs at our institution is performance-based, aimed at impacting students’ reading achievement. The candidates in the program must *demonstrate* with classroom evidence that they can improve students’ achievement. A special collaborative Master’s in Reading program between the Miami-Dade County Public Schools and Florida International University, Project READS, has been developed with an actual guarantee to the district that the candidates in the program will transfer what they are learning to impact their k-12 students’ learning. The teacher-researcher in this study, the second author, is a Project READS graduate teacher, who has since become a doctoral student in Reading Education. She

reflected on her classroom problems and changed her methods of teaching to do an action research project during her master's program. Delighted with the changes she saw as a result of the action research, the teacher-researcher planned to continue the methods the next year. With another doctoral student, a parent of children at the school, the teacher-researcher was able to document the change in the next year's students' achievement over a year.

Changes in Teaching

Because the teacher-researcher had just completed her reading master's degree, she had been asked to teach below-grade-level readers. Based on what she had learned in her Master's program with her action research project the previous school year, she decided to dramatically change her teaching procedures from the start of the year with her new group of third-graders. Similar to the previous year's students, they were also from middle socio-economic backgrounds with about half Hispanic and half Anglo in ethnicity. Many had come from a classroom environment in which isolated skills and strategies were used and low-level task completion was all that was expected. The teacher-researcher wanted to create an environment including the elements necessary for excellent literacy instruction (Ivey & Broaddus (2001). These include allowing the students to be active participants, to have ownership of their reading and writing, to have access to quality children's literature, to enjoy choice of what they read and social interactions around books. With quality literature experiences and a positive environment, she planned to motivate the students to choose to read, and to improve their attitude towards reading. The teacher-researcher posed the following questions:

1. Through reading aloud and discussing a variety of quality, children's literature, will students develop a more positive attitude towards reading?

2. What is the effectiveness of motivational activities on the interest, attitudes, and achievement of third-grade students?

The teacher-researcher started with daily read alouds focusing on one genre at a time. Students were taught about genres, given time to read books of the various genres in class and asked to read aloud to parents at home. She moved from general teacher-led, class discussions using language charts (Roser, Hoffman, Farest & Labbo, 1992) to enabling children to articulate guidelines for discussion. She soon introduced literature circles so students could discuss the books in “grand conversations” (Peterson & Eeds, 1990). These guidelines were collaboratively formulated with the students and teacher, written and posted as process charts for children to follow as they independently applied the guidelines to their own discussions within groups of four.

She began with different versions of “The Little Pigs” and folklore. Groups of four students were formed. The teacher-researcher circulated around the room being a facilitator and participant in each of the discussion groups. At the conclusion of the first day of discussion, students used post-its to make a list of things they wanted to discuss the next morning at their Literature Circle Meeting, a whole group processing time. As a result of her evaluation of what happened the first day and the students’ comments, the teacher used a story map to help the students understand story elements and to gain meaning from their reading. Next, multiple copies of four different folktales were introduced for selections to read the following week. The students conducted a vote using a Literature Circle Ballot to decide which books each group would read the next week. Eventually, students self-selected books from various genre or favorite authors.

Two other written responses were introduced. The first was a Literature Circle Self-Reflection in which the students thought about the way they talked about the books, their engagement with the text (Calkins, Montgomery, & Santman, 1998). Did they focus on the book? Did they retell the story? Were they able to show the parts they discussed in the text? The second was a Literature Circle Self-Evaluation. What went well and how much did they contribute? Was there anything they wanted to say that they didn't? Were there any ways they could add to the discussion? This allowed them to reflect on ways to improve their participation by thinking about what was said and about their own contributions. Through an immersion in books they had chosen, students gained experience in taking meaning from text and responding to that meaning by learning to use strategies independently. This process continued for the rest of the school year.

The other two classes of third graders continued with their usual routines. The regular class read with basal readers, workbooks and skill sheets during whole group instruction. The gifted class read chapter books with the teacher and they also worked with vocabulary workbooks and publisher's spelling skill sheets.

Data Collection

Because the teacher-researcher's class consisted of only sixteen children, ten girls and six boys, she had started the year with interviews and attitude surveys with students and parents. The data from these self-reports show an improvement in student attitude as reported by both students and parents. (The comments from students and parents are captured in the power point accompanying this article.) These reports qualitatively triangulate the positive change in her students. She also collected data from the students' reading logs and their own self-reflections and self-evaluation of their participation in literature circles.

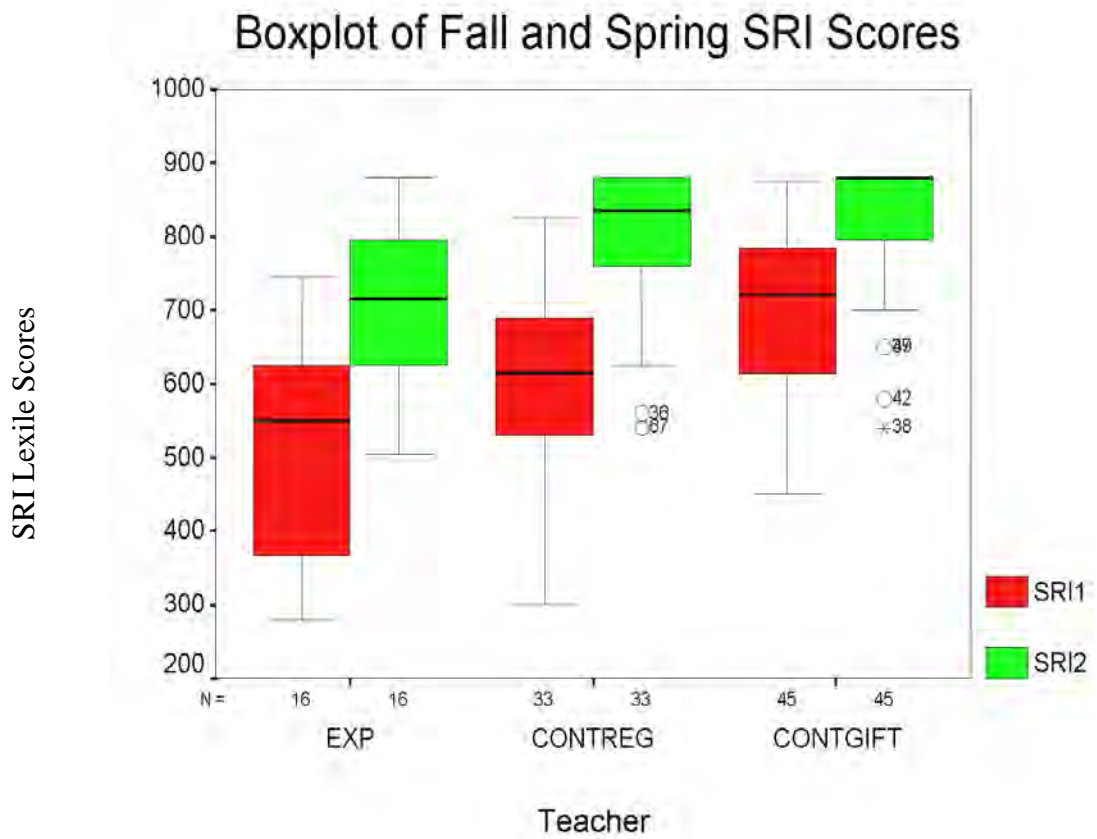
Both the teacher-researcher and her collaborative research partner decided to try to quantify the changes they were observing. They were able to compare all the third grade students' standardized test scores on the Scholastic Reading Inventory Lexile score from the previous year to the current year. Lexiles are the scores on the Scholastic Reading Inventory (SRI). "Lexile Framework" and "Lexile" are not commonly used statistical terms, but trademarks of Metametrics, Inc. They are used to describe a rating system for matching students to books. They identify a grade level estimation of skill level derived from a correlation with an evaluation of approximately 700 titles used in Accelerated Reader, a program from Advantage Learning's reading management software (Miami-Dade County Public Schools, 1998). The score is used as only one of several performance indicators to adjust instruction, to decide if intervention strategies are needed and to match students to books. Someone in third grade, according to the range given by Scholastic, should score between 400 and 600 points on the grade level reading Lexiles. The normal amount of growth on the test is approximately 150 Lexile points in a year. Here the teacher-researcher's students were able to achieve, on average, a gain of 175 points, more than a year's expected growth and these had been struggling readers!

Figure 1 shows the box plots of the students' SRI Lexile scores. The boxplot graph displays the scores from the end of second grade, which were used at the beginning of third and are indicated as Fall (SRI 1 in red), and Spring (SRI 2 in green), the end of the students' third grade year. The Lexile scores are on the vertical axis and the teacher groups are on the horizontal axis. Helen's group (EXP) is indicated by the first set of boxes. The comparison regular class (CONTREG) and the gifted (CONTGIFT) class are the other sets of boxes plotted on the graph, respectively. The numbers below the Spring scores for both comparison groups indicate students who would be considered outliers from the rest of their classmates. These children either made

no progress on the Lexile test or even scored lower than they did in the Fall. The overlap of scores shows that more than one student indicated by their student number, earned the particular score.

The teacher-researcher's students' scores were widely dispersed at the end of second grade. By the end of the third grade, after they had been in the teacher-researcher's classroom, the students' scores were tightly grouped around the median score for all third graders. The scores for the other students at the end of the second grade had been tightly clustered around the median. At the end of the third grade, the other classes' scores were more variable. In addition, some of the higher scoring students in the group at the beginning of the third grade fell below grade level by the end of their third-grade school year.

Figure 1.



Also, individual standardized scores on the norm-referenced SAT-NRT from the end of the second grade were compared to the scores of their end of the third grade. With professors and doctoral students collaboratively discussing the data, several considerations arose. One was that since the “experimental” group, the teacher-researcher’s class, was small, they could only look at the growth the students had made in comparison to the other comparison third grade students. While the students in the teacher-researcher’s class had scored significantly lower than the other students in the same grade at the end of grade two, by the end of their third grade school year, they were no longer significantly lower. (See Table 1.)

Table 1

Difference Between Experimental and Comparison Groups

Time of Test	Difference in Means	
End of Second Grade	$t(85) = -2.407$	$p = .018^*$
End of Third Grade	$t(85) = -1.953$	$p = .054$

* p is significant at $\alpha = .025$

Conclusions and Needed Next Steps

From these indicators, we can say that the teacher-researcher's classroom instruction had a positive effect on her students' learning. Although this data gathering was not an empirical study and is limited by the fact that the students were assigned to the classes based on ability and not randomly, it certainly demonstrates that teachers who change the methods they use in their classrooms using best practice and research-based strategies, can use action research to explore and demonstrate the specific gains of their students. They can reflect and discuss what they observe for the purpose of documenting the kind of growth their students are able to achieve. According to Romeo (2002), this type of evidence from reflective inquiry is just what the national teacher education organizations such as the International Reading Association (IRA) and the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) encourages and supports.

For the next step, both the teacher-researcher and her collaborative research partner are planning to track the students in the fourth grade to see how they fare on the state standardized tests. That will allow them to examine more quantitative data to see if the learning and attitude change was sustained. By conducting action research, they will have data that will give more specific feedback on the effects of using particular classroom routines. This suggests that statistics about reading that get public attention should look at teachers' training and the

instructional environments they create as well as their methods rather than grouping all teachers together and making statistics public that appear to discredit all teachers' efforts.

The lesson here is that the statistics may be disheartening, aggregated as they currently are, but they may lead to educators doing a better job of documenting the impact of quality reading teacher education and the dissemination of literacy models and processes that motivate and support students. This is the direction the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) has taken, the documenting of teacher candidates' students' gains. There is also a need for further refinement of the way standardized tests are analyzed, taking into account the training of the teacher as well as the growth of individual students from year to year, instead of comparing whomever happens to be in a class at a given time. Too many factors are confounded in looking at an already complex process, reading, making it difficult to make meaningful inferences. Questions, such as what knowledge and experiences empower teachers to be able to change the way they teach and what is needed to sustain that growth, all need to be further explored (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1999). Until such time as those questions are addressed, teacher-researchers should continue making progress by examining their practices in their own classrooms.

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Apprenticing in the Disciplines: A Sociocultural Model for Post-secondary Reading Instruction

Maureen Giblin

College students are good readers. They must be; how else could they have gained admission to our institutions of higher learning. Prospective students who cannot read are not able to get into colleges and universities: ACT and SAT requirements in the admissions process screen for reading competency. Additionally, university faculty give reading assignments with the full expectation that their students can pick up textbooks, or journal articles, or readers, and understand what is printed in them. However, those of us who teach composition and college reading courses know that this is not always true. Unfortunately, the materials and methodologies available to help college students understand their readings has altered little since Francis Robinson published his *Diagnostic and Remedial Techniques for Effective Study* in 1941. These materials and methodologies support the prevailing belief that reading is a decontextualized skill, one that students bring to college and that can be used in all activities. This belief is rooted so deeply in the culture of higher education, and reinforced by the reliance on student ACT and SAT scores in college ranking and admission policies, that reading instruction at the college level is still associated with remedial courses and mired in the methodologies of 50 years ago. Fortunately, recent work by scholars in the field of sociocultural literacy, informed by the work of Vygotsky, Heath, Street, Gee, and others, suggests a new direction for helping university students read effectively in the disciplines.

Our campus, as most state schools, serves the sons and daughters of state taxpayers who support the public university system. Our students come from a wide

range of social and economic backgrounds, so some are better prepared for the rigors of college academics than others. In addition to the campus learning center, which houses the writing lab and offers assistance with reading as well as composition, our university also offers, for those who choose to enroll, a course on college success. I taught this course, College Reading and Study Skills (Education 105), for several semesters. As I planned my curriculum for this course, I examined many texts and author-recommended strategies for preparing freshmen for college level reading and found that all the material available offered the same strategy. While methodologies in teaching reading at the pre-school and elementary level are grounded in research and frequently are an outgrowth of political imperatives (National Reading Panel, 1997), and adult literacy instruction focuses on economic or libratory issues (Bowles and Gintis, 1976; Freire, 1985; Apple, 1995), reading instruction at the secondary and post-secondary level has remained, in most cases, skill based and treated as a remedial problem: an outgrowth of poor schooling, or lack of experience and preparation, or insufficient motivation. The courses and materials available, while well intentioned, offer college readers unskilled in the disciplinary specific languages of textbooks a one-size-fits-all approach to understanding what they are reading.

Current Models

The focus of developmental reading materials for college students currently available from major publishers falls into two categories: the skill-building model, and the immersion/metacognition model. The skill-building model is a system that takes the student step by step through a reading process. The immersion/metacognition model is a process that encourages the student to read literature and be meta-aware of what is

happening during the reading process. Neither of these models addresses the specificity of reading tasks required by academic and professional discourses. Both approaches rely on a developmental perspective, one that assumes that these college students operate from a reading deficit – that they cannot read with comprehension – even though the fact of their admission to institutions of higher learning assumes reading competency. A perusal of materials displayed by publishers at national conferences like Conference on College Composition and Communication (CCCC) and National Council Teachers of English (NCTE) results in the following selections for the college study skills/developmental reading instructor: Harcourt Brace's, *Developing Reading Versatility* (1997); *College Decisions: A Practical Guide to Success in College* (1997), and *Handbook for Critical Reading* (1997), Houghton Mifflin's *The Thinker's Guide to College Success* (1999), and the Allyn and Bacon (Simon Schuster) book *Coping with College* (1995). These texts, and all other materials available for introductory reading courses, stress only one method for reading improvement, SQ3R.

SQ3R is a recommended reading strategy that is so ubiquitous that a *Google* web search produces close to 7,000 hits, all listing the buzz words of Survey, Question, Read, Recite and Review. This method grew from pre-WWII work in scientific management (Stahl, 1986) and was published in the works of Francis P. Robinson, whose *Effective Reading* (1962) first thoroughly explained the method. Although years of research and mountains of academic papers since the 1960's have argued that reading must be about something, and isolated skill-building tasks do not make strong readers, the one-size fits all of SQ3R, or a modified approach to this method called SQ10R (Shaughnessy, 1994), or disguised as new by phrases such as "becoming an independent learner" (Hamachek,

1995), “active reading strategies” (Meagher, 1997), or “critical reading” (Chaffee, 1999), is the method most described for improving text-book reading ability. An examination of the skill building and immersion/metacognition models finds SQ3R still the base of their recommended reading strategies.

The immersion/metacognition model is represented by Harcourt Brace’s *An Introduction to Critical Reading*, (1997), Boynton/Cook, Heinemann in *If Not Now: Developmental Readers in the College Classroom* (1995), and Mayfield’s *Stepping Stones: Ways to Better Reading* (1993), all of which recommend immersion in the reading experience using literature, poetry, and essays. Macmillan’s *Powerful Reading, Efficient Learning* (1994) discusses SQ3R in the learning strategies section but emphasizes metacognition in the chapters on developing reading skills. Both the skill based and immersion/metacognition approaches promote the same methods that can be found in Walter Pauk’s *How to Study in College* (1962). The covers are glossier and the style, layout and terminology are more 90’s, but the advice is the same: instructional methodology for college students who have difficulty reading academic material has not changed in 40 years.

Current journal articles on the topic of reading instruction for at-risk college students offer suggestions for reading labs where students are encouraged to become involved with reading self-awareness and self-assessment (Maitland, 2000) or promote a methodology called Communicative Reading Strategies (CRS). These programs continue to operate from the assumption that post-secondary reading can be approached from a skill-building model. Proponents of the CRS approach to assisting “remedial” college readers argue that their program is based upon the work of Lev Vygotsky. Promoters of

this approach recommend that “facilitators” give information to the reader prior to reading the chapter (preparatory set), provide guided assistance during reading, mostly “parsing,” to help the reader understand the material within complex sentences, and then provide feedback (Martino, Norris & Hoffmann, 2001). This approach, a guided SQ3R, offers little different than what is found traditional reading/study skills material, and reflects a misunderstanding of Vygotsky. Throughout his work, Vygotsky (1978, 1986) argues that human thought is dialogic in nature and teaching is a social activity: however, the directive tutorial methods recommended by the proponents of CRS do not create a truly dialogic forum for discussion of the text with which the student is struggling. All of the programs discussed rely mainly upon the student working alone with the text to make meaning.

Mediated Reading

For the past several years, I also have been training peer tutors who assist struggling readers at the college level in our learning center, and the successful tutorials that I have observed seem to be pointing in the direction of a Vygotskian approach to facilitating reading as a mediated social practice, but not in the manner recommended by the proponents of CRS. Successful reading tutorials encourage readers to talk about their reading in a contextualized conversational atmosphere, engaging in the social practice that is deconstructing a topic, or subject, in order to reach a deeper level of understanding, and may have implications for dialogic approaches to classroom discussion.

The work of Lev Vygotsky is referenced in most current writing in the field of literacy studies, so it is not surprising that new reading instruction theory would grow from his work. Vygotsky was a theorist who was also, according to the translator and

editor of *Thought and Language* (1986), a man of practice who came from a behavioral approach to the understanding of learning. But Vygotsky moved away from the behaviorists as his research demonstrated that concept formation is creative, not mechanical and passive, and the presence of a condition favoring a mechanical linking of a word to an object does not produce a concept. This is the point that not only seems absent from recent writings on developmental college reading, but is also contrary to current approaches to post-secondary reading instruction. These current approaches heavily rely on skimming to get an idea of what the reading is about, identifying new vocabulary, and activation of prior knowledge in order to understand new material in academic readings, all SQ3R recommended strategies. As Scribner and Cole, editors of a collection of Vygotsky's writings published in *Mind in Society* (1978) write, Vygotsky presents a sophisticated argument demonstrating that language, the very means by which reflection and elaboration of experience takes place, is a highly personal and at the same time a profoundly social human process. This sociocultural approach is moving research in literacy studies away from the cognitivist models used in the past and argues that not only is literacy tied to and driven by social practice, but literacy practices are also deeply imbedded in culture and community (Scribner and Cole, 1981; Heath, 1983; Street, 1984; Gee 1995, 2000, & 2001).

Vygotsky's theories on language and learning are a common thread running through published works in the field of New Literacy Studies (NLS) (Street, 1984; Gee 1995, 2000, & 2001). Educators, linguists, philosophers and anthropologists who are writing in the area of NLS argue that the acquisition and use of various literacies are grounded in social practice and that the practice frames the event (Scribner and Cole,

1981; Heath, 1983). James Paul Gee (1995, 2000, & 2001) has written extensively on discourse communities, situated meaning and the need to apprentice working class and poor students into academic discourses. My work with peer tutors and learners over the past 15 years, most of whom come from low income and rural backgrounds, has confirmed that successful academic reading is a socially mediated practice in which college reading teachers and peer tutors introduce students to the conventions of academic disciplines. Instructors and peer tutors, using conversation about text and context in tutorial sessions, are successful in helping students develop a contextualized approach to reading in the disciplines.

The Study

There is a long history of successful intervention by peer tutors in writing lab settings as they use pre-writing techniques such as brainstorming, free-writing, clustering, outlining, mapping, before any formal writing begins. This contextualizing time is when students are selecting a topic, narrowing it down, and formulating a preliminary thesis, working within Vygotsky's "zone of proximal development" (1978, 1986). It is generally accepted that students who have little or no experience in writing academic papers need direction in order to recognize the writing conventions of the discipline. The interaction in a writing lab or collaborative writing groups is a successful way in which to apprentice developing academic writers. However, this approach has not been explored as a method of helping students with academic reading. On our campus, because of the combination of two separate support programs, we in the tutoring center have been able to begin research in this area.

Over the past several semesters, as the result of combining two academic support programs on our campus, the content-area tutoring program and the reading/writing center, I have been placing students who are having serious problems with humanities courses with peer tutors. These students struggle, primarily because of the amount and difficulty of the reading required. The peer tutors have been trained in assisting students with academic writing and were getting their degrees in the field where the referred students were failing. As I monitored the program I began to see some successful pairings, ones in which learners raised their quiz and exam grades in psychology, history, and sociology, from failing to A's and B's. As I observed these tutorials it was clear that, even though the tutors had received instruction in the SQ3R method for helping developing college readers, the tutors instead were recruiting pre-writing strategies in their reading tutorials. At the end of a semester during which four students who came in for assistance on faculty recommendation because they were failing the courses completed the classes with A's and B's, I interviewed both tutors and learners. Using the results from interviews with one tutor/learner pair, Jonathan and Greg, I'll offer some examples of these conversational pre and post writing strategies in the reading tutorial interactions.

Both students in the tutorial pair that I will discuss are pre-service teachers. At the time of the interviews, Jonathan had completed his Education courses and was preparing to student teach the following semester. The learner in the pair, Greg, is at the beginning of his training as a future teacher and was recently admitted to the School of Education. Both students knew that I was interviewing them to gather information on what happened in the tutorial sessions: what elements of the tutorials were successful.

When Greg began meeting with Jonathan, he had failed a history class in a two-year college and had failed his first quiz of the semester in American History from the Civil War to the Present. Greg knew coming into the tutorial sessions that he had an extremely difficult time understanding his readings and gleaning material to study for tests. Greg and Jonathan met for one hour twice a week for the 12 weeks remaining in the semester. Greg's final grade was a B+.

When I interviewed Greg, the learner, he repeatedly stressed the conversational nature of the tutorial sessions with Jonathan: "It was conversational ...we would throw ideas back and forth...we strategize" (Personal interview, April 2001). At no time did Greg report that he and Jonathan skimmed the book, nor did he report that Jonathan had him read sections and quiz him on his understanding: the methods recommended in developmental reading texts. It is also interesting to note that Jonathan (the tutor) had not even read some of the course material: "It was hard to talk about the readings because he (tutor) hadn't done them so we connected the books and the reading I had to do with the lecture...we talked about the structure of the book and connected it with other information...[so] I knew what to anticipate." What Greg found most valuable was "the conversations making connections to the book." It is in these comments by Greg, the outsider to the discourse of historians, that we see Vygotsky's (1986) argument that concept formation comes is the result of the use of dialog in the solution of a problem. Additionally, we see a clear example of Gee's (2001) point that outsiders to a discourse must be apprenticed because learning a secondary discourse requires social mediation: language within the discourse of historians have situated meanings that are specific to the

actual context of their use. Within the context of Jonathan's conversations are the conventions of the study of history.

Jonathan, the tutor, who, unlike Greg, was aware of the strategies that he was using in the tutorial sessions, poses a clear analysis of Greg's dilemma: "Greg didn't understand the use of the textbook to guide [his] study" (Personal interview, May 2001). Jonathan goes on to say that, for Greg, the textbook was not a resource, but a mountain of data from which he had to glean facts to memorize. So Jonathan began working on concept formation, critical to understanding what his professor expected students to bring from their reading: "we looked at the chapter name and talked about what it encompasses...[then] I'd have him turn the main statement into a question...[and] we'd look at the headings as part of the answer to the initial question...[and] look through the reading to see what backed it up – finding people whose actions proved the statement." As suggested by Vygotsky's work, Jonathan posed problems for Greg to talk through: "We would talk about the cause and effect relationships in what we were finding." Jonathan was showing Greg how to think like an historian.

Jonathan described his method as talking through the chapter with the process of writing an essay exam answer, a composition process, as his model, and they engaged in this dialog **before** Greg had read the chapter, different from the activation of prior knowledge that SQ3R recommends. Greg would then take time, on his own, to do the readings. After a few sessions, Greg would come to the tutorials with the chapter already problematized and prepared to talk about issues that came from his reading. It is clear from Nathan's comments that he is employing the prewriting activities of brainstorming (what the chapter encompasses), replacing free-writing with discussion (free talking?),

encouraging the learner to develop a thesis, and then using the text as a resource for outlining (pose his question and then looking at what in the headings answer it). Greg, then, was accessing the text and making meaning in the same way that a writer composes text: developing his thesis by selecting data that enforces it, and gathering detail to support his points.

Both Greg and Jonathan report that the discussion methods that were used in the tutorial sessions increased Greg's speed and comprehension when he did actually read the text. Greg's success in this class was, in his words, a miracle. More surprising for me than Greg's success was the outcome of a second student whom Jonathan tutored a semester earlier. Lee is an Asian American non-traditional student who was having tremendous difficulty in her American History up to the Civil War class. Lee had the added problems of English being her second language and, having come to the United States as a young adult, no background in American History. She had withdrawn from this class twice prior to the semester when she met with Jonathan, but this time she had to complete and pass the course in order to apply to the School of Education. Lee met with Jonathan three hours a week all semester, and he used the same methodology with her as he did with Greg with one addition. Lee had to do more memorization of names and dates and facts as she had no background knowledge of colonial America; therefore, Jonathan helped her with time lines to supplement the concepts that she was acquiring. Conversation was critical to both Lee and Greg; however, the type of conversation differed as Lee's sessions also included direct instruction on the study strategy of developing time-lines. Lee, to her amazement, also passed this very difficult class with a

B+. During the interview Lee also stressed the conversational approach to the material, strategizing her reading, and making time lines as she and Jonathan discussed the text.

For both of Jonathan's learners, learning how to think like an historian was the key to understanding the textbook and supplemental readings. In subsequent interviews with tutor/learner pairs for other subjects it quickly became apparent that approaches to readings in sociology and psychology were different from the ones that Jonathan used for history. In psychology, the conversation emphasized examples and practical application of theories presented in the text, a diagnostic approach to concepts, and for sociology, the emphasis was on community and global perspectives. The discipline-specificity of reading strategies clearly showed that reading skills acquired for one subject do not automatically transfer to another, and the acquisition of the concepts that a student must acquire to be a successful reader in each discipline are best developed in a dialogic and problem solving social environment. As Jim Gee (2001) argues, reading instruction "must be rooted in the connections of texts to engagement in and simulations of actions, activities, and interactions – to real and imagined material and social worlds" (p.712).

Conclusion

We are in the early stages of studying peer interactions in a reading tutorial environment and our sampling is small. The results for the students participating in these tutorials lead us to believe that the work of Gee and others in the New Literacy Studies, informed by Vygotsky's theories on language and learning, point us in a new direction when considering what should be done to help students be successful readers at the post-secondary level. For Gee (2001) students must develop a critical literacy. This literacy allows them to understand the social language, situated meaning, and cultural models

operating in the new discourse, as well as identify where the new discourse that they are seeking to acquire is positioned within larger discourses, the language of the discipline as well as that of the greater academic community. In addition to Gee, other researchers in the field of New Literacy Studies posit that academic success is intrinsically bound to understanding the language and ways of thinking within the discipline (Bourdieu, 1991; Street, 1984; Heath, 1984; & Bernstein, 1977). Colin Lankshear (1999) argues that people must be socialized into any practice in order to participate effectively in it, and it is within conversations not only about readings, but also about the larger context of the disciplines, that concept formation occurs. For colleges and universities that serve students who do not come from academically oriented home discourses, the social mediation that grows from conversation is critical to not only reading comprehension, but also to success in college.

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A Comparison of Entry Level Teacher Education and Non-Teacher Education Students' Attitudes Toward Reading

Cindy Hendricks, Angela Nickoli, James E. Hendricks and Nicole Thomas

Educators have long been concerned with the affective factors influencing reading behavior and performance (Alexander & Filler, 1976; Cheek, Flippo & Lindsey, 1989; Farnan, 1996; Russell, 1961; Witty, 1948); however, the vast majority of reading research tends to focus on cognitive factors associated with learning to read while the affective factors are generally overlooked (Cramer & Castle, 1994). Although attitude is acknowledged as playing a significant role in motivation for reading at all levels, Panofsky (2001) reports that:

The marginalization-and perhaps even complete silence-of research and theory on issues of feeling, affect or emotion in literacy reflects a much larger avoidance in the dominant traditions of western science...The consequence of this avoidance is that issues of feeling/emotion/affect can become invisible in both research and, importantly, practice.
(p. 45)

The lack of attention to attitudinal research may, as Panofsky (2001) suggests, lead teachers to downplay the importance of developing positive attitudes toward reading, particularly at the secondary school level. Tchudi and Mitchell (1999) argue that, "Too often the affective domain in secondary classrooms is pooh-poohed and dismissed as nonessential" (p. 199). Smith (1990) states that, "A general decline in positive attitude, continuing throughout the school years, has been found in longitudinal studies" (p. 215). According to Bintz (1993), research "...suggests that most primary students nourish themselves on a regular diet of quality reading experiences, yet by the time they reach high school, they lose much of their appetite for reading, to a point where many appear anorexic" (p. 606).

Not only is it important to explore the attitudes older students have toward reading, it is equally important to explore the attitudes toward reading of our nation's pre-service teachers. Mour (1977) states that the lack of enthusiasm for reading and the lack of involvement in reading by those who teach it and stress its importance is a serious concern. LaBonty (1990) agrees that teachers must be enthusiastic about reading; however, she argues that this is not often the case: "Surveys of pre-service and practicing teachers reveal inadequate and unimpressive figures in personal reading in three areas: recreational reading, professional reading, and an awareness of children's literature" (p. 1).

Cramer and Castle (1994) believe that affective elements related to reading can and should be measured and that more systematic research is needed in the affective areas of reading. Before trying to effect change in attitudes toward reading, there first must be an assessment of the attitudes of those who are leaving our nation's public schools and preparing to become teachers. The purpose of this investigation was to determine the attitudes of college freshmen toward reading and to determine if significant differences existed between the reading attitudes of declared teacher education majors and non-teacher education majors.

Methods

Participants

A total of 201 teacher education majors (enrolled in a freshman introductory education course) and 201 non-teacher education majors (enrolled in a freshman introductory criminal justice course) at two Midwestern universities participated in this investigation. Students at both universities were predominately Caucasian. The survey was administered in the fall; thus, most of the students at both universities were in their first few months of college.

Instrumentation

The *Rhody Secondary Reading Attitude Assessment Survey* (Tullock-Rhody & Alexander, 1980) was used to assess attitudes toward reading (See Appendix A). The test-retest reliability of the scale was determined to be 0.84. Validity was established by including items constructed from comments by secondary students, a t-test score of 4.16 discriminating between students perceived as having a positive attitude and those having a negative attitude; and by acceptable correlations between items retained on the final scale with the total scale (Tullock-Rhody & Alexander, 1980). The survey consisted of 25 statements that allowed students to respond with a five point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree). Scores can range from a low of 25 to a high of 125.

Data Analysis

To obtain an overall attitude, each student's scores on the 25 questions were summed with possible scores ranging from 25-125. As instructed by Tullock-Rhody and Alexander (1980), items 1, 2, 3, 9, 11, 12, 13, 14, 16, 18, 19, and 21 were reversed to ensure that all questions were measured as positive statements. Independent samples t-tests were used comparing the teacher education and non-teacher education majors surveyed. For each of the t-tests, a standard .05 alpha level was used.

In addition to the analysis of the overall attitudes toward reading of education and non-education majors, comparisons of positive and negative attitudes were also analyzed using the upper quartile (25%) and lower quartile (25%) of each group. 54 teacher education majors identified as having a positive attitude toward reading reflected a cut-off score of 97; likewise, a cutoff score of 98 was used to identify the 46 non-teacher education majors' scores considered as having a positive attitude toward reading. A similar procedure was used to identify those teacher

education majors considered to have a negative attitude toward reading, ($n = 51$), and those non-teacher education majors considered to have a negative attitude toward reading ($n = 52$).

The final analysis was an item analysis of each question to determine if significant differences were present between teacher education and non-teacher education majors.

Independent sample t-tests ($p = .05$) were used to analyze each question.

Results

Overall Mean Attitude Score

A total of 402 surveys were coded for analysis. To obtain an overall mean attitude score, each student's scores on the 25 questions were summed with possible scores of 25-125. The actual scores ranged from 29 to 124 with a mean of 79.54 and a standard deviation of 21.64.

Mean Attitude Scores by Major

There was little variation in the range of scores for the teacher education and non-teacher education majors (31-124, 29-124, respectively). The mean attitude score (with standard deviations in parenthesis) for the teacher education majors ($n = 201$) was 80.64 (20.95) and 78.44 (22.30) for the non-teacher education majors ($n = 201$). No significant difference [$t(400) = 1.017, p = .05$] was noted between the overall mean score of teacher education majors' attitudes toward reading and the overall mean score of non-teacher education majors' attitudes toward reading.

Positive Attitude Mean Scores

All students in the upper quartile were identified as having a positive attitude towards reading. Little variation was noted in the range of scores for the teacher education and non-teacher education majors (97-124, 96-120, respectively). The mean score (with standard deviations in parenthesis) for those teacher education majors considered to have a positive

attitude toward reading ($n = 54$) was 106.63 (8.03); for the non-teacher education students with positive attitudes ($n = 46$), their mean score was 105.74 (6.57). No significant difference [$t(98) = .600, p = .05$] was noted between teacher education majors' identified as having positive attitudes toward reading and non-teacher education majors' identified as having positive attitudes toward reading.

Negative Attitude Mean Scores

All students in the lower quartile were identified as having a negative attitude towards reading. Little variation was noted in the range of scores for the teacher education and non-teacher education majors (31-64, 29-63, respectively). The mean score for those teacher education majors considered to have a negative attitude toward reading ($n = 51$) was 54.12 (7.71); for the non-teacher education students with negative attitudes ($n = 52$), their mean score was 50.71 (9.84). No significant difference [$t(101) = 1.952, p = .05$] was noted between the mean scores of teacher education and non-teacher education majors identified as having a negative attitude toward reading.

Teacher Education vs. Non-teacher Education Item Analysis

Responses to items 13 (You think reading is boring), 15 (You like to read to escape from problems), 16 (You make fun of people who read a lot), 20 (You generally check out a book when you go to the library), and 24 (You like to improve your vocabulary so you can use more words) showed significance differences between teacher education and non-teacher education majors at the $p = .05$ level (see Table 1).

Insert Table 1 About Here

Upper Quartile Item Analysis

Significant differences ($p = .05$) were noted in the responses given by both education majors and non-education majors identified as having a positive attitude toward reading on one item. This was item 24: “You like to improve your vocabulary so you can use more words” (see Table 1).

Lower Quartile Item Analysis

The differences in responses by teacher education and non-teacher education majors in the lower quartile reached significance ($p = .05$) on items 14 (You think people are strange when they read a lot), 16 (You make fun of people who read a lot), and 20 (You generally check out a book when you go to the library) (see Table 1).

Cluster Analysis

Tullock-Rhody and Alexander (1980) recommended that items be clustered together for further analysis. These clusters (followed by the item numbers in parenthesis) include: school-related reading (11, 18), library reading (9, 20), reading at home (4, 10), other recreational reading (5, 17, 22, 24, 25), and general reading (1, 2, 3, 6, 7, 8, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 19, 21, 23). Those clusters where significant differences occurred include: general reading (13, 14, 15, 16), library reading (20), and recreational reading (24).

Discussion

Results from the combined mean for both education and non-education majors suggest that students surveyed do not have a very positive attitude toward reading. If a score of 25 is indicative of a negative attitude and a score of 125 is indicative of a positive attitude, then the mean score for all students in this investigation ($M = 79.54$) would suggest that students are somewhat neutral or indifferent in their attitudes toward reading. These results seem to support

Smith's (1990) and Bintz's (1993) research that attitudes toward reading decline as students move from the initial enthusiasm of school entry to elementary school to middle school and then on to high school.

The results also show that there were no significant differences between the overall attitudes toward reading of teacher education majors and non-teacher education majors at the outset of their college careers. Similarly, there were no statistically significant differences in attitudes toward reading between teacher education majors and non-teacher education majors in either the upper quartile (those identified as having positive attitudes toward reading) or the lower quartile (those identified as having a negative attitude toward reading). LaBonty's (1990) notion that teachers are not overly enthusiastic about reading is supported by the results of this investigation.

Significant differences, however, were noted in the item analysis. On the whole teacher education majors responded differently from non-teacher education majors on key items: (13) You think reading is boring, (15) You like to read to escape from problems, (16) You make fun of people who read a lot, (20) You generally check out a book when you go to the library and (24) You like to improve your vocabulary so you can use more words more frequently than teacher education majors. Non-teacher education majors thought reading was boring and tended to respond more positively to making fun of people who read a lot. Teacher education majors responded more favorably to reading to escape problems and to checking out books when they go to the library.

Teacher education majors identified as having a negative attitude toward reading responded differently from their non-teacher education counterparts on the following items: (14) You think people are strange when they read a lot, (16) You make fun of people who read a lot,

and (17) You generally check out a book when you go to the library. Non-teacher education majors identified as having a negative attitude toward reading were more likely to agree that people who read a lot were strange, that they made fun of people who read a lot, and that when they went to the library, they did not check out a book.

The cluster analysis provides additional insight into the results of this investigation. Of the five cluster areas (school-related reading, library reading, reading at home, recreational reading, general reading), those with significant differences between teacher education and non-teacher education as a group as well as by attitude (positive and negative), include library reading, recreational reading, and general reading. No significant differences were noted with any of the items identified as school-related reading or reading at home.

Conclusions

In many ways, the results of this investigation are not surprising. Overall, as a group, attitudes toward reading were found to be neither positive nor negative. The scores tended to fall in the “undecided” range. Interpretations, then, depend on perspective. On the bright side, one might say that the students in this investigation did not have a negative attitude toward reading; however, the reverse is also true. Students in this investigation did not exhibit a positive attitude toward reading.

Some possible explanations for the lack of positive attitude can be found from attitudinal research. First, as suggested by Goodwin (1996), teachers may not be fostering a love of reading:

Early educational experiences do not seem to foster a positive attitude toward reading...The reading methodology employed in these early years seemed to have contributed to negative reading attitudes. The emphasis placed on repetitious skill work and the over-analysis of literary works later in the educational process seem to have

successfully killed any enthusiasm these students might have had for reading. (pp. 11-12)

In a 1987 publication, Cullinan suggests that the development of positive attitudes toward reading in the formative years of schooling will create individuals who are life-long readers. However, Smith (1990) seems to suggest that the development of positive attitudes should not just occur in the formative years. Rather, the development of positive attitudes must be nurtured throughout schooling, “Positive attitudes about reading that are fostered-particularly during the later school years-will remain positive in adulthood” (p. 219).

While some argue that competing interests (athletics, clubs, organizations, television, etc.) may negatively effect the reading attitudes and behaviors of older students, Anderson, Tollefson and Gilbert (1985) speculate that other factors may come into play “...older students also reported less interest in reading...than younger students did. While this may reflect a response to demands for reallocation of time...it should not be assumed that this trend is unrelated to factors associated with educational programming of such students” (p. 189). Curricular issues may, indeed, play a role in reading attitude. Belzer (2002) suggests, “Literacy theorists in the sociocultural tradition suggest that there is often a kind of alienation from reading and writing based on a disconnect between school literacy and learners’ everyday experiences with reading and writing” (p. 104). Belzer adds, “If schools fail to build bridges between various literacy practices inside and outside of school, and if they devalue learners’ cultural and personal experiences, preferences, strengths, and vulnerabilities, they risk creating disengaged readers for life” (p. 105).

Another possible explanation for the lack of positive attitudes may be derived from the work of Worthy, Moorman, and Turner (1999) who suggest that the materials available in schools are not of interest to students. The recent hoopla over the Harry Potter books would

suggest that children and adults are interested in reading. Perhaps the materials that students want to read just are not available to them or are not used as part of the school's curriculum. The ability to select materials to read, rather than forced choice, could also contribute to a decline in attitude for older readers: "Students' intrinsic motivation for literacy learning may diminish as they move from elementary to middle grades. This problem may be linked to fewer opportunities for self-expression in their learning environments" (Oldfather, 1995, p. 420).

Another school-related issue which may effect older readers is simply being given time to read whatever they choose to read. Programs such as Sustained Silent Reading and Drop Everything and Read are prevalent in elementary schools and some middle schools. However, these types of pleasure reading programs rarely exist in high schools. This could be a result of high school teachers not valuing reading or assuming that students will read for pleasure on their own. A study by Saumell, Hughes, and Lopate (1999) supports the notion that reading for pleasure is not common practice among older readers. In their investigation, they asked participants to explain reading. The majority of students indicated that reading was comprehending, learning, or words. Few associated reading with enjoyment.

On the surface one would, however, hope for much more positive attitudes from entering teacher education majors. However, they appear to be much like their non-teacher education counterparts. Teacher education majors' attitudes in this investigation were not unlike those found by Wood (1978), who reported that of the 157 recollections about learning to read made by pre-service teachers, 109 were classified as neutral comments.

The results of this investigation suggest that teacher preparation programs have a great deal of work to do in instilling a love of reading in education majors. The role teachers play in fostering a love of reading in their students is best explained by LaBonty (1990):

Teachers have considerable potential for influencing the attitudes of their students toward reading. The acknowledged power of adults as role models for children is a fact that drives the companies who select athletes and rock singers to sell their products. Teachers serve as role models for the kinds of benefits and rewards that reading promises. Children are certain to be affected by the teacher who shows excitement and enthusiasm toward reading and just as likely to be influenced by the teacher who shows apathy. (pp. 1-2)

In this study: The teacher education and non-teacher education participants did not have a positive attitude toward reading. The general indifference to reading reported here may be a demonstration of what Goodwin (1996, p. 3) refers to as “the invisible epidemic”—aliteracy. To combat this epidemic, it is important to instill a love of reading in all students, and most particularly, in pre-services teachers. These results suggest that some changes may be necessary in teacher education curricula to provide opportunities to develop a love for reading. In fact, it would be useful for future studies to assess pre-service teacher education students' attitudes toward reading at the end of their college careers. Here one would hope to find that their course of study has gone some distance toward instilling more consistently positive views of reading than that displayed by the teacher education students in this study. To improve attitudes toward reading we can look to Ayers (1993) for guidance, “...human development is complex and interactive... it is not useful to separate physical, emotional, social, and intellectual growth” (1993, p. 62). Perhaps it is time to say that emotional growth in reading is AS important as intellectual growth.

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Appendix A:

The Rhody Secondary Reading Attitude Assessment Survey

The Rhody Secondary Reading Attitude Assessment Survey
(Tullock-Rhody & Alexander, 1980)

Directions: This is a test to tell how you feel about reading. The score will not affect your grade in any way. Read the statements and then put an X on the line under the letter or letters that represent how you feel about the statement.

SD - Strongly Disagree
A – Agree

D– Disagree
SA - Strongly Agree

U - Undecided

		SD	D	U	A	SA
1.	You feel you have better things to do than read.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
2.	You seldom buy a book.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
3.	You are willing to tell people that you do not like to read.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
4.	You have a lot of books in your room at home.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
5.	You like to read a book whenever you have free time.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
6.	You get really excited about books you have read.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
7.	You love to read.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
8.	You like to read books by well-known authors.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
9.	You never check out a book from the library.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
10.	You like to stay at home and read.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
11.	You seldom read except when you have to do a book report.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
12.	You think reading is a waste of time.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
13.	You think reading is boring.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

		SD	D	U	A	SA
14.	You think people are strange when they read a lot.	—	—	—	—	—
15.	You like to read to escape from problems.	—	—	—	—	—
16.	You make fun of people who read a lot.	—	—	—	—	—
17.	You like to share books with your friends.	—	—	—	—	—
18.	You would rather someone just tell you information so that you won't have to read to get it.	—	—	—	—	—
19.	You hate reading.	—	—	—	—	—
20.	You generally check out a book when you go to the library.	—	—	—	—	—
21.	It takes you a long time to read a book.	—	—	—	—	—
22.	You like to broaden your interests through reading.	—	—	—	—	—
23.	You read a lot.	—	—	—	—	—
24.	You like to improve your vocabulary so you can use more words.	—	—	—	—	—
25.	You like to get books for gifts.	—	—	—	—	—

Table 1

Items Reaching Significance in Item Analysis

Item	Teacher Ed. vs Non-Teacher Ed	Lower Quartile	Upper Quartile
13. You think reading is boring.	$t(400) = 2.048$ $p = .041$		
14. You think people are strange when they read a lot.		$t(101) = 2.227$ $p = .028$	
15. You like to read to escape from problems	$t(400) = 3.985$ $p = .000$		
16. You make fun of people who read a lot.	$T(400) = 2.226$ $p = .027$	$t(101) = 2.515$ $p = .013$	
20. You generally check out a book when you go to the library.	$t(400) = 4.249$ $p = .000$	$t(101) = 2.166$ $p = .033$	$t(98) = 2.591$ $p = .012$
24. You like to improve your vocabulary so you can use more words.	$t(400) = -2.722$ $p = .007$		

Standards Movement: Universities Meet the Challenge

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A horse and buggy is not at fault for not being able to go 60 miles and hour. Exhorting driver and horse to go faster or blaming them for having insufficiently high expectations is a futile exercise. What is needed is to invent the car. As a society we decided that everyone deserved the best. But once we wanted everyone to have the 'best,' we had in effect told the horse and buggy to do the impossible. (Meier, 1996, p 271).

American public schools designed for the 19th century are incapable of solving the problems that will face us in the 21st [century]. [Some people think] schools can be made to improve if standards are set and incentives are established, but [educators] work within a dysfunctional organizational structure that has made inadequate investments in the knowledge and tools they need to address students' needs. Prevalent in this are many of the pitfalls for integrating content standards into the school curriculum: tracking, teacher shortages, lack of professional development, and time/financial concerns. (Darling-Hammond, 1990, pp 126-7)

New Literacies for a New Reality.

The Secretary of Education's 1983 publication of *A Nation at Risk* (National Commission on Excellence in Education) combined with mounting revelations about the sad state of student achievement typified by Murnane and Levy's (1996) alarming findings that half of high school seniors were unable to read at a level needed to secure and maintain an assembly line job launched the modern standards-based school reform movement in the United States

The consequences of substandard mastery of basic skills in a modern technological world so alarmed state leaders that the 1989 National Governors' Association adopted the National Education Goals which provided support for a national

reform effort which demanded quality curriculum and verified teaching results, founded on the idea that student achievement reflects adult expectations. (Improving Education Through Standards-Based Reform, National Academy of Education, 1995).

The purpose of this article is to explore the unfolding of the standards movement, tracing events in representative states as a way of confirming the extent of the movement, its seriousness of purpose, and explores the tangential impact on higher education. Then we will explore the response some specific teacher preparation programs and conclude with suggestions for more proactive responses.

Funding: Goals 2000.

In March of 1994, the President provided the funding to support the development of standards-based educational reforms happen by signing *Goals 2000: Educate America Act* into law, linking funding to the five fundamental notions associated with effective school change (Title III. Sec. 301. Findings):

- All students can learn.
- Lasting improvement depends on school-based leadership
- Reform must involve reform at all levels, top to bottom
- Strategies must be locally developed, comprehensive, and coordinated
- Whole community must be stakeholders

Funding is predicated on a comprehensive improvement plan with peer-reviewed (26 of the 48 plans) benchmarks and implementation time lines. Goals 2000 is intended to hold

students to high academic standards which necessitate a complex coordination of changes in curriculum, teaching, professional development, assessment, accountability, and leadership. Goals 2000 funding supports initiatives which include the following features:

- High student standards which define the target, i.e., exactly what every student should know and do
- Alignment of Assessment and accountability
- Professional Development
- Broad Community Involvement and coordination

The Goals 2000 funding has been put to use in a variety of ways, based on the level of prior development of school reform, ranging from change incentives for states that were just beginning reform, to support functions for states who were further along the reform path, and enhancement functions for those states well into the movement. Here are some representative examples:

- **Incentive for Change.** The effect of Goals 2000 has been a catalyst for change, as in Georgia. “(F)ederal Goals 2000 school reform money....(provided) the Georgia Department of Education (with) the resources to begin the work.” (Verber, 1998) In Louisiana, Governor Picard has said that Goals 2000 has “establish(ed) a sound context for reform, and has stimulated many improvements at both the state and local levels.” (Picard, C., in Verber, 1998)

- **Support and Sustenance.** For other states, like Texas, involved in reform since 1984, Goals 2000 funds sustained the reform effort and were used to raise standards, develop standards-based curriculum frameworks, develop standards-focused reform training in regional professional development centers, and finally effecting alignment of evaluation and standards. The teacher certification program has been changed, successful schools have been teamed with struggling schools to offer advice and support, and schools are now rated based on student performance.
- **Enhancement and Enrichment.** In states like Oregon which had initiated reform prior to Goals 2000, funding helped extend the reach of reform efforts to include annual report cards, waiver process, school councils, alignment of goals and standards, and began a pairing of economic development within educational reform. One such extension was the CIM (Certificate of Initial Mastery) and CAM (Certificate of Advanced Mastery) which recognize, through performance-based assessment, high student achievement. Oregon was one of the first states to factor in teacher training programs. Oregon used new-teacher testing to bring teacher development programs in alignment with standards. Once in the field, teachers are given direct support for classroom reform initiatives, in which they partner with professors at local higher education institutions to create and implement action research initiatives. Vermont, likewise, used Goals 2000 as reform enhancement, instituting portfolios, Common Core of Learning which

aligned standards and assessment, linking assessment to school accountability in ways that support change.

At a local level, sub-grants have been awarded for sustainable improvement efforts, e.g., professional development, pre-service training, and local educational reform. More than half of the funding was used to improve specific skills or content knowledge of students and teachers, improve instruction and curriculum, enhancing collaborative networks, conducting research, planning and developing reform initiatives. Some of the funding has been dedicated to technology enhancement, others have targeted parents (involvement, skills).

Progressive Plans.

Commitment to Standards. The American Federation of Teachers (1999) attempted to chart the progress of standards reform efforts by looking at the extent and quality of implementation. The AFT report concluded “the standards-based movement is on solid footing and is slowly but surely changing the way we think of teaching and learning in America’s classrooms.” (p. 12) Most states remain committed to reform and the quality of the standards continues to improve. Twenty-two states, twice as many as in 1995, have standards that meet AFT clarity and specificity criteria. Most states have assessment processes in place that are aligned with standards.

Student Performance. Initial evaluations indicate “clear and rigorous standards—supported by assessments, instructional materials, and teacher preparation –

lead to improved performances” (The Progress of Education, 1996, p. 17). Delaware reported a 20 percent shift in student performance in two years. Ninety-five of Kentucky’s schools raised student performance in a two-year span of time. *Education Week* cited seven states (Colorado, Connecticut, Indiana, North Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, and West Virginia) for their fourth graders’ significant improvement over a four-year span of time. (p. 6).

Low-achieving students, who tend to over-represent disadvantaged urban minority populations, are not showing the same level of desired gains as other groups. *Education Week* reported that 60% of the Caucasian students passed all subjects on the Texas state test, while only 40% of the Hispanics and 30% of the African American and economically disadvantaged students could. (Verber, 1998, p. 6).

Intervention. There were threefold increases since 1995 in programs which provide support for struggling students. Forty states require academic intervention programs, but only 29 fund them. These take a variety of forms: after-school tutoring, one-to-one assistance, Saturday school. Maryland recognizes the infrastructure that must be in place for improved student performance can be possible, including mandatory kindergarten, at-risk student initiatives, graduation and promotion based on performance on standards, and assessment aligned with instruction. Three critical issues have emerged which enhance effective intervention: early intervention to preclude student habits of failure, adequate funding, and intervention plans specifically aligned to standards.

Consequences. Goals 2000 demands accountability based on student performance. Since 1995, the number of states have imposed consequences to student test performance have increased fourfold. There is a dichotomy between the types of consequences which evolve from assessments.

- A number of the states have taken relatively **punitive stances**, i.e., 14 states make promotion contingent on a passing score on the assessment, 28 states require passing for graduation. Twenty-nine states impose consequences on failing schools, some of which involve closing schools and specify interventions, citation, audits, student transfers, and public notification. (Verber, 1996, 12).
- Others have developed **incentives**, e.g., some state reward schools whose students show specified increases in performance. Other states reward the students., e.g., 20 states award advanced diplomas for students who exceed minimum performance mandated for graduation and 8 states award college admission/tuition/stipends for high-performance.

Criticisms. The standards movement tends to be a reform movement people love to hate. Marzano and Kendall (1996) identify five specific issues that threaten the effectiveness of the standards movement: **resources** (resources – funding, professional knowledgebase, leadership -- are insufficient for reform needs, diminishes funding that could be better used directly with learners), **educational apartheid** (low performing students/schools tend to be low socio-economic, racial/ethnic minority), **new attempts at previously failed reforms** (past efficiency and behavioral objective movements), content (disagreement on definition of essential content), **volume of material** (too cumbersome

to use). Others criticize the **lack of clarity and uniformity** and the need for **building capacity**, i.e., professional development, parent and community involvement, instructional leadership.

Also, teachers **sacrifice curriculum** devoting large portions of the school day preparing students for the test with non-curriculum-based test preparation materials taking the place of non-tested subjects like social studies and science. Many educators feel that rational **assessment has been compromised** as a one-time assessment has been rendered high stakes, guiding serious decisions such as promotion and school dissolution. Reform needs to be viewed as a system in which assessment informs instruction in ways that allow monitoring, reflection, and evaluation in ways that provide continuous improvement (AFT, 1999).

Next Steps. The AFT study proposes three major areas as “next steps” for continuing reform efforts: improvement of standards to provide a common core across all states, professional development to ensure a common understanding of what student performances constitute standards-compliance and how to enable students to produce it, and equalizing opportunities to learn and achieve. The report cautioned that there is much that needs to be done to have a standards-based system uniformly in place. Of great concern is the overemphasis on high-stakes testing, which is overtaking the thoughtful, rigorous development of clear, specific standards and professional development, which would support educator knowledge and understanding, implementation, and assessment of them.

Teacher Development Programs – Implications

There are a number of clear implications for teacher development programs in the areas of program standards and accountability for both teacher preparation programs and alternative path programs, accountability, shortages (of majors and practicing teachers), and program revision (standards, alignment of learning tasks, and assessment).

The National Commission on Teaching and America's Future found that more than 50,000 teachers are working with children 12% of new teachers have no training at all. An additional 15% have not met state certification standards. Given the strong influence educators have on the learning and performance of their students, this must be rectified.

Accountability. There are strong indications that teacher preparation programs will be held accountable under this current movement. Missouri, for example, requires pre-service candidates pass an entrance examination, maintain a 2.5 grade point average, and show competence on a professional examination to exit the program. The state upgraded certification requirements and revamped approval processes for teacher education programs.

Several years ago, Florida legislated that all teacher preparation programs be fully NCATE approved. More recently, a series of accountability measures have been mandated, including:

- **Performance Objectives.** All graduates must demonstrate all state-mandated Florida Educator Accomplished Practices (FEAP) objectives, both during their program, verified during their first year of teaching
- **Standardized Test Performance.** All graduates must pass a state-developed examination which includes Reading, Mathematics, general education and subject area components
- **Program Guidelines.** Students must have coursework in classroom management, bilingual education, mathematics, writing, and reading, and be supervised by teachers who have specialized training in clinical supervision
- **Rehiring Eligibility.** We must first year competence, i.e. that our graduates are rehired or eligible for rehiring after completing their first year of teaching and that their administrator was satisfied with their performance (which implies competent training)
- **Professional Standards.** All course syllabi must show direct evidence of professional standards (e.g., IRA, INTASC, etc.) and that the students can identify and implement the state standards in their teaching
- **Minority Student Candidates.** All state programs must show evidence of recruitment and retention of minority candidates

There is a strong indication that student scores will be collected on program graduates and that the teacher development program will be held accountable for the success of their graduates' students.

Decline. These stringent program criteria, paired with the punitive stress of the evaluative nature of the state examination have resulted in a dramatic decline in undergraduate education majors. Ironically, non-public education programs and alternative programs (e.g., where prospective educators meet state requirements by taking individual courses or Master in Art of Teaching programs which cater to non-education undergraduates, building into their masters courses required for certification) do not need to adhere to many of these rigorous guidelines and their enrollments are burgeoning.

Teacher Shortage. Fallout of the reform movement has tended to be a critical level of teacher shortage. While part of it is the lowered enrollments due to state requirements, a more worrisome issue is the loss of practicing teachers in the field. As seasoned teachers weigh the relatively poor rate of pay given the enormous pressure and added time, effort, accountability, and professional development burdens that will be required to make student gains a reality, more and more serious educators are leaving the field. These factors are turning many talented and capable people away from the possibility of teaching as a career.

Program Reformation. But there are stark realities. For standards-based reforms to work, teacher preparation programs must hold up their end. Part of the Goals 2000 requires a “process for familiarizing teachers with the State...standards and developing the capability of teachers to provide high quality instruction within the content areas...”(Sec. 306 (c)(1)(D). Change must be instituted at pre- and in-service levels. New standards require new strategies, organization, and attitudes (Massell, et al, 1997).

There is a growing urgency to hold teacher education programs accountable for verifiable transmission of:

- **Content Knowledge.** It is imperative that future educators have depth of subject area knowledge, including the use of technology as a resource.
- **Pedagogy Knowledge.** Darling-Hammond (1994) stresses the need for educators who are comfortable in their mastery of a variety of appropriately applied teaching strategies driven by knowledgeable, on-going evaluation of what their learners know and can do.
- **Knowledge and Application of Standards.** It is imperative that teachers know the standards and can match instructional content and strategies to these goals.

This must be a holistic preparation (Sutton, 1993), paralleling Bybee's (1990) integration of standards into curriculum involving "a complete framework (which) provides information needed to make decisions about the content, the sequences of activities, the selection of instructional strategies and techniques that are likely to be effective, appropriate assessment practices, and other specifics of the curriculum."

It will be imperative, as such program revision is done, that the infusion of standards in teacher preparation be customized, not restrictive (Reigeluth, 1997):

- consistent with teaching and learning research which acknowledges many paths to the same goal. The strategy one professor uses may not match the approach taken by another, yet both could be equally as viable.

- acknowledging the dynamic, ever-changing nature of our knowledge and practice in literacy. Highly specific standardization of practice threatens educational pedagogy in the way it hampers the medical profession: new approaches could not be a part of highly standardized, prescribed student training.
- honoring the unique student populations of various communities. Standardized rubrics and syllabi would not leave room for local considerations, i.e., Limited English Proficient children, special needs learners, rural communities, low socio-economic populations (Shaw, 1997, Talley, 1999)

Curriculum reform projects for Florida's higher education programs proliferate (e.g., Florida's FLARE: Florida's Literacy and Reading Excellence project) and are calling for standardized syllabi for teacher preparation programs, mandating the use of standardized course tasks with highly specific rubrics for each of the Standards from which data must be collected to verify teacher candidate performance profiles and program accountability which are mandated for Florida state program approval. The Florida legislature mandated that all College of Education program must be fully accredited by NCATE (National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education), the agency that accredits colleges, schools, or departments of education in the United States, to maintain state accreditation. This NCATE accreditation requires a favorable review from IRA. The International Reading Association (IRA) has been involved with NCATE since 1986 and remains one of 30 professional educator organizations that make of NCATE's major constituents involved in the process of accreditation, along with the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, National Commission on

Teacher Education and Certification, and the National Education Association, among others. IRA maintains a representative on NCATE's Unit Accreditation Board, which develops standards and oversees on-site visits to institutions and the training of NCATE's Board of Examiners (BOE), the team that visits institutions as part of the unit accreditation process.

As NCATE moves toward performance-based standards, IRA matches step-for-step, currently offering its own national certification for reading programs which requires a course-by-course listing of the inclusion of IRA standards and mandates calibrated data collection rubrics for each of the Standards within each of the courses to validate their successful implementation. The International Reading Association has a handbook companion for the 1998 revised Standards for Reading Professionals, which specifies how an institution of higher education prepares program review folios for program reviews (Berger, 1998) and has launched a preconference institute on "IRA/NCATE: Moving into Performance-Based Accreditation" and two publications (*Standards for Reading Professionals* and *Handbook for Preparing for an International Reading Association National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education Program Review in Reading*).

This micro evaluation threatens to compromise student comfort and exploration. This mandated (rubric) assessment and data collection flies in the face of what we know of brain research which empowers educators to tap the multiple channels to learning and assessment. The current rubric data collection requires every course task connected to a Standard to be rubric-assessed, leaving little room to allow students to inexpertly explore,

for example, a series of instructional experiences to merge into a final, more pedagogically sophisticated end product which reveals the progressive growth of knowledge, skill, and application. Instead, virtually every performance will be rigorously micro-evaluated, compared by rubric to standard, and reported in a candidate profile. I can only imagine how I would have reacted as an insecure budding educator if professors help everything I was risking under the intense focus of a multifaceted, judgmental microscope. I would certainly tend not to risk new application, but would play the game, follow the exacting rules of mediocrity, set aside creativity for surety of evaluation, lest the professor holding the rubric yardstick differ in my interpretation of what might challenge and inspire students not fit that exacting rubric yardstick.

There are so many Standards that they virtually set a standardized professional curriculum for reading educator training. There remains little room for personalizing a reading educator candidate's program to accommodate specialized needs, e.g. special education students, second language or limited English proficient students, because there will be no room for electives when all courses must accommodate the burgeoning number of Standards. Didn't we learn anything when we moved beyond Wisconsin Design in the seventies? This new Standardized certification move leaves little room for incorporating new research, as the generally agreed upon best practice must be present in the program and rubric assessed leaving little room in a course or program so it is virtually impossible to explore new ways of practice or rapidly infuse new knowledge and research findings. For those of us who have evolved beyond rubrics and who are currently exploring ways to enable our students to self evaluate their perceived

competence within an area of study, use Deming's TQM (Total Quality Management) perspective to set their own course goals and develop group-conceived criteria for excellence, or who provide exemplars (Wiggins & McTighe, 1998) by which teacher candidates negotiate their own criteria for task quality, this rubric only, stilted data collection is suffocating.

There is no voice of caution to be heard. Academic freedom may well have met its demise as Standards rapidly transmogrify into "Standardized." It would be criminal if educators, bowed by the threatening cry of accountability, responded in standardized, scripted, prescribed ways that compromise what we know about individual differences and the potential of calcifying teacher preparation and exclusion of new knowledge in the field! I recently had an almost fatal exposure to such standardization. Struck by a rare and deadly cancer, diagnosed with a 95% chance it had metathesized, I was given four months to live. A doctor prescribed a rigorous schedule of highly toxic while at the same time admitting he knew nothing about my type of cancer! I could not persuade my oncologist to use newer, less toxic developments (e.g., Thalidomide) that I had researched because they were not standard practice and would leave him open to a lawsuit. I, the patient, could have died, but my oncologist would have been vindicated because he was adhering to current, standardized, accepted practice.

I think the analogy is apt. Just as the physician, knowing little of what caused my cancer to flare or how to effectively rid my body of it without subjecting me to a barbaric regime of poisons because it is the generally accepted mode of treatment, just so we, as

reading educators, are reducing our field to the same “this is the right way because it is the generally accepted way” that physicians are forced to use to avoid the threat of legal action. We don’t know, for sure, what causes reading to happen or exactly which techniques cause it to bloom for every learner. Much of what we do is an art and a majority of what we do is informed, educated experimentation. To reduce that practice to standardized form threatens to extinguish the creative serendipitous insights that come of inexpert but curious trial and error of new and experienced educators who risk an alternative application, hazard a new approach, unfettered by the fear of judgment because their way was not the generally accepted way. I saw such promise in an unusual application of CD: Concept of Definition that provided a framework for an entire unit of study of Tragedy. According to the proposed rubric evaluation, that student would have failed the correct, rubric-ized application of that technique, when, in fact, her creative insight to how it might provide a lesson overview doubled its usefulness!

Do Standards make our program better? I would have to say, “Yes,” insofar as the task-to-Standard comparison has forced us to double-check to verify that we have included, at a higher level, all the facets of training a reading specialist would need to function maximally. This involved a sorting of Standards across courses, a tightening up of the program (not so many random, choice courses substituted for what were now viewed as core courses), and a tightening up on the requirements (certifications) of faculty and adjuncts that taught those courses (18 hours of reading).

Does provision of these facets guarantee they are, in fact, developed? I would have to say, “No,” especially insofar as we rely on a fairly large number of adjuncts that have not participated in the program reviews and discussions. And just as it’s true that no matter what the printed curriculum demands, when the classroom door is closed, the ethics, knowledge, preparation, dedication, and skill of the teacher are the key factors as to whether the instruction is sufficient. What is said on paper about will be taught may not be what is actually delivered.

Do Standards make me a better teacher? I would have to say, “Yes,” in that I am more focused on key objectives, but “No, in that I am constrained to data verify every Standard.” I am finding myself teaching in ways that would allow me to mentally and actually check off the standard, moving me away from conceptually developing a strand of thinking and professional evolution of my students, which include the Standards as a matter of course. Because now that I am required to provide specific tasks from which verification data must be collected from rubric grading, performance the tasks and Standards tend to drive my instruction.

Many reform initiative investigators agree “the most important factor in successful reform is the presence of a strong professional community in which teachers pursue a clear, shared purpose for student learning; engage in collaborative work; and take collective responsibility for student learning.” (Progress of Educational Reform: 1996) Goals 2000 acknowledges the need for such professional collaboration by dedicating sixty percent of the funding for teacher development. This training has the

potential of significant professional renewal (Killion, 1999), should reflect the change demanded of reform. To date, there have been incidents of surprising creativity: evidence that student performance is driving teacher development, peer mentoring, learning communities (Hord, 1998) which explore current bodies of research searching for answers to persistent questions of effective practice especially for at-risk students (Cotton, 1995; Dunn 1997; Lockwood, 1996; O'Day, et al, 1995; Ogle, 1997; Policy Studies Associates, 1999; Williams, 1995), summer institutes, action research collaborations with universities in ways that are meeting the challenge of low-achieving poverty schools (Barth, et al, 1999). What will come of these constructivist, risk-taking, creative collaborations when they are held to the rubric-driven standardization of current national certifications?

In stark contrast to these authentic, challenging modes of instruction, I find myself spending instructional time tediously explaining the tasks and the intricate rubrics rather than taking the time to do the master-level teaching that had begun to consistently characterize my teaching before Standards/National Certification and was such an effective and pleasurable part of my teaching and professional evolution, such as guiding my students to self-evaluate and generate their own learning goals and experiences, providing experiential learning experiences that guide my students into visceral “Ah has”, challenging my students to draw their own standards of excellence from poor and excellent task exemplars, or facilitating discussions following expert-jigsaw research after which students teach each other, building field experiences via student-embedded demonstration followed by guided applications, and helping students perceive conceptual

connections. I find my instruction driven by verification: “I must be sure my students perform,” rather than “I must be sure they understand this task or process so they can effectively apply and interpret it with learners.”

I find the size of my instructional modules have more than doubled at a time of fiscal austerity in which we are disallowed to duplicate them. My students report that the presence of the pages of Standards and charts of knowledge, skills, and dispositions coded by state and national standards in the instructional module are intimidating and indicated that they do not find it helpful to review them, not do such materials provide the intended research-based grounding and overview. So, no, I don’t find this process has improved either my instruction or my instructional materials.

I mourn what we stand to lose. Contrary to the tenor of this article, I do not resist the idea of Standards, reform, or being held to a high level of accountability. I do champion the concept of academic freedom and honor the scholarship, judgment, and skill of professors, teacher educators and feel strongly that there is no need to require teacher trainers to teach or grade in ways that require specific tasks which verify each of the Standards, that professional judgment should be honored. I mourn the evolution of my own teaching and student assessment, which is drawing me more consistently toward what I now understand about brain-compatible research. I feel I have lost my freedom to explore, experiment, assess in multiple ways, and implement new findings without risk of jeopardizing a calcified, communally accepted standardized curriculum, which was controversial from its inception.

So the questions remain: Are the twin blades of reform, i.e. Professional Standards and National Certification, agents of positive change or standardized mediocrity and data-verification that masks program reality? Is this how we want our teacher development programs to evolve? It would be wise to be vigilant, to pay close attention to consequence. Time will tell.

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Reading Strand: Undergraduate Curricular Planning

Key

Letters = Florida Educator Accomplished Practices (FEAP) Objectives

(**A**- Assessment, **C**- Communication, **CI**- Continuous Improvement,

CT- Critical Thinking, **D**- Diversity, **E**- Ethics, **HD**- Human Development,

KSM- Knowledge of Subject Matter, **LE**- Learning Environment, **P**- Planning,

RT- Role of the Teacher, **T**- Technology)

Lower case letters = p – primary focus, s- secondary focus, i – introduction

Foundational
context

Process/ Develop. Pedagogical-Strategy Soc.-cult. In

<u>RED 3999</u>	<u>RED 4150</u>	<u>RED 4311</u>	<u>RED 4999</u>
CI 5.3/s; 14.2/i; 16.4/s; 16.7/i; 7.6/p; D 1.2/p; HDL 1.3/p; 2.3/p 2.7/p KSM 2.1/p; 2.2/p 2.3/p; 2.4/p 2.6/p; 2.12/s 3.3/i P 7.6/p; 9.3/p	A 2.14/p; 4.1/i;4.1/i; 6.1/i; 14.1/i 16.5/s CT 7.1/i; 7.2/p; 7.3/p D 3.1/p; E 2.13/p HDL 1.4/p; 3.1/p; KSM 1.1/p; 1.5/p; 2.5/p; 2.6/p; 2.11/i; 2.12/s LE 2.9/i; 5.1/s; 5.4/i 5.5/p P 2.13/p; 2.14/p; 5.2/p 6.1/p; 6.2/p; 6.3/p; 6.5/p; 9.1/p; 9.2/p T 5.7/s	A 4.1/p; 4.2/I; 10.1/p; 10.2/p; 13.5/s C 11.2/p CP 16.1/p; 16.8/i; CT 7.1/p; 7.4/p; 7.5/p; D 3.1/p; 3.2/p; HDL 1.7/s; 3.1/p; 2.8/p; 2.10/i; 2.12/s; 3.3/s KSM 4.4/s; LE 4.3/p; 5.6/p; 6.6/p; 7.5/p; 8.1/p; 8.2/p; 8.3/p; 8.4/p; 9.1/p; 9.2/p; 10.2/p; 12.7/p; RT 5.8/i; T 5.7/s; 8.1/i; 12.4/i	A 12.5/s; 4.2/p; 6.1/p 12.5/s C 11.2/p; 11.3/p; 11.4/p; 11.5/s; CI 3.5/s; 12.1/s; 13.1/p; 13.2/i; 13.3/i; 13.4/i; 14.1/i; 14.3/i; 16.2/p; 16.6/s; E 3.4/p; 13.6/p; LE 2.9/p; 4.3/p; 5.4/p; 8.3/p; P 3.4/p; 12.2/p; 12.4/p; 12.6/p; 12.7/p; RT 5.8/p; 11.3/p; 11.5/i; 12.1/i; 12.3/i; 12.5/i; 15.1/p; 15.2/p; 15.3/p; 15.4/p; 16.3/p; T 8.1/p; 12.4/p

Reading Strand: Graduate Curricular Planning

Key

Letters = Florida Educator Accomplished Practices (FEAP) Objectives

(**B**- Assessment, **C**- Communication, **CI**- Continuous Improvement,

CT- Critical Thinking, **D**- Diversity, **E**- Ethics, **HD**- Human Development,

KSM- Knowledge of Subject Matter, **LE**- Learning Environment, **P**- Planning,

RT- Role of the Teacher, **T**- Technology)

Lower case letters = p – primary focus, s- secondary focus, i – introduction

Foundations – K-base

Process of Reading

Pedagogical /Tech.,

Lit. Prof.

<u>LAE 5415</u> HDL 1.3/p;1.4/p K 2.12/p; LE 5.4/p; 5.5/p; P 5.2/p; 5.3/p	<u>RED 6314</u> A 2.14/p; 6.1/p; CI 5.3/p; 16.1/p; 16.4/p; 16.5/p; CT 7.2/p; 7.3/p; D 1.2/p; HDL 1.3/p; 1.6/p; 2.7/p; 3.1/p; KSM 1.1/p; 1.5/p; 2.1/p; 2.2/p; 2.4/p; 2.5/p; 2.7/p; 2.11/p; LE 2.9/p P 2.14/p; 6.2/p;	<u>RED 6932</u> CI 3.5/p; 12.1/p; E 3.4/s; P 8.1/p; 12.4/p;
<u>LAE 6319</u> A 4.1/p; 12.5/p; C 11.4/p; CI 12.1/p; 16.1/p; 16.7/p; CT 7.3/p; 7.6/p; D 3.1/p; E 2.13/p; HDL 1.6/p; 2.3/p; 3.1/p; K 3.3/p; 2.3/p; 2.6/p; LE 5.1/s; 5.4/s; 5.5/p; 8.3/p; P 2.13/p; 5.3/p; 5.6/p; 6.4/p; 6.5/p; 7.6/p; 8.1/p; 9.1/p; 9.2/p; 9.3/p; RT 5.8/p; 12.1/p	<u>RED 6515</u> C 11.1/p; 11.2/p; 11.3/p; CI 14.1/p; 16.2/p; CT 7.1/p; 7.4/p; D 3.2/p; E 3.4/p; HDL 1.7/p; LE 4.3/p; 8.3/p; P 3.4/p; 4.3/p; 6.1/p; 12.2/p; 12.7/p; RT 11.3/p;	<u>RED 6805</u> C 11.4/p; CI 12.1/p; 13.1/p; 13.2/p; 13.3/p; 13.4/p; 13.5/p; 14.1/p; 14.2/p; 14.3/p; 16.2/p; 16.6/p; 16.8/p; E 3.4/p; 13.6/p; P 12.6/p; RT 12.1/p; 12.3/p; 12.5/p; 15.1/p; 15.2/p; 15.3/p; 15.4/p; 16.3/p; 16.4/p; T 12.4/p;
<u>RED 6336</u> A 12.5/p; CI 13.3/p; 13.5/p; CT 7.1/p; 7.5/p; KSM 2.8/p; LE 4.3/p; P 5.6/p; 6.3/p; 6.6/p; 7.5/p; 8.2/p; 8.3/p;	<u>RED 6546</u> A 4.1/p; 4.2/p; 10.1/p; 10.2/p; C 11.2/p; CI 13.3/p; D 1.2/p; 3.1/p; HDL 1.7/p; P 10.2/p	<u>RED 6747</u> C 11.5/p; CT 14.1/s; 14.2/s; 14.3/s; 16.6/p; 16.8/p; E 13.6/p; K SM 4.4/p; 2.10/p;

8.4/p; 8.5/p; RT 16.4/p		RT 11.5/p;
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PUTTING IT TOGETHER: COLLEGE DEVELOPMENTAL READING IN CONTEXT

Missy Laine, Chester Laine and Terry Bullock

There is a clear link between the dramatic increase in the percentage of college-age students entering higher education and the demands on developmental educators. College reading and writing programs have increasingly been asked to accept low income, first generation, and learning disabled students. In Ohio, for example, one third of two-year college students are not ready for first-year reading and writing courses (EECAP, 2002). In 1995, about 27% of these freshmen--over 17,000 students--were enrolled in at least one developmental course.

Because costs are considerable, this has become a very politically charged issue. Some view developmental reading courses as a liability. They argue that developmental course work delays entry into degree programs, often discourages students, and frequently prevents them from attaining a degree (EECAP, 2002). It has been our experience that these courses, if properly structured, are useful, strengthening students' academic preparation, enhancing their feelings of competence and promoting retention. We believe, however that a stand alone, skill building, study strategy course, is not the most effective design for developmental reading instruction.

Over two decades of experiences at one midwestern open-access college convince us that pairing reading courses with courses in other disciplines is a very effective way of strengthening both. In this article, we summarize our experiences with pairing reading courses with writing and other content courses over the past two decades and describe some of their effects.

Pairing Reading With Psychology

In their review of the research on college study, Nist and Simpson (2000) found that research-validated strategy instruction should occur within a specific context. One method that is highlighted in their review is “pairing” reading strategy instruction with a high-risk content course. In a paired course, the teacher attends the high-risk course, reads the assigned material, takes lecture notes, and then provides instruction on how to study, making sure that the strategies pertain to the tasks and texts in the high-risk course.

The pairing of reading courses with courses in other disciplines at this open-access college began nearly 20 years ago when a psychology professor asked his colleagues in reading if they could assist his students in an introductory psychology class. His students were having difficulty with the required psychology text. He wanted to know how to help them better comprehend the text.

The collaboration led to the creation of what became known as paired courses. Students taking the Introduction to Psychology course were encouraged to co-enroll in an Effective Reading course. The reading professor sat in on the psychology classes with the students. In the reading course, he taught reading and study strategies using the psychology textbook and the lecture notes as the initial context.

Changing Effects

In order to assess the effectiveness of their course pairing, the two faculty members gathered data to compare students’ success in the paired arrangement with students in a stand-alone psychology course. First they examined the pre- and post-test scores of the two groups of students on the Degrees of Reading Power (DRP) test. The paired course students’ mean gain was 6.95 points with a pre-test score of 59.15 and a

post-test score of 66.10. The non-paired course students' mean gain was .85 points with a pre-test score of 62.6 and a post-test score of 63.45. Although the paired students had lower pre-test scores than the non-paired students, they overcame this deficit and surpassed their non-paired counterparts by almost 3 score points. A comparison of the gains made by the paired and the non-paired students revealed a statistically significant change at the .01 level.

The two faculty members also administered a survey to the paired and non-paired students at the end of the academic quarter. The survey asked the students to respond to sixteen items that began with the opening stem, "When I read, I know that I am reading well," with any of the following: never/seldom, sometimes, often/very often. For example, the sentence "When I read, I know I am reading well because I score high on the tests in the psychology course," was rated "sometimes" or "often/very often" by 85% of the paired students compared to 60% of the non-paired students. Paired students also perceived their reading skills as better, by 5%, than did the non-paired students. The results revealed that the paired students perceived themselves to be somewhat better readers. Overall more paired students responses (74%) were positive than non-paired students (69%). Retention rates were also somewhat higher (66%) than for the college (59%).

Pairing Reading With Other Content Areas

With this level of success, over the next two decades, faculty in other disciplines (mathematics, criminal justice, sociology, art history) approached the reading faculty about starting paired courses in their academic areas. Over the intervening years a great deal of data were collected on the efficacy of the paired reading program. These data

included reading test scores, retention data and grades in content area courses. Below are some of the highlights:

- Paired reading students in Psychology 2 classes showed a 92.5% success rate for the paired reading and psychology class versus a 70% success rate for the non-paired counterparts.
- Paired reading students taking a preparatory mathematics course had a 78% pass rate in their mathematics class versus a 64% pass rate for their non-paired counterparts.
- A total of 79% of the students in two different criminal justice classes that were paired with reading courses received As or Bs versus 63% of their non-paired counterparts. Only 12% of the paired students received a grade of D or lower, while 27% of their non-paired counterparts fell into this category.

Obviously, this is a brief glance at some of the data collected over the years for different paired reading classes. Does this mean that every paired reading class was an overwhelming success? The simple answer is “no.” However, it should be remembered that students in the paired reading classes entered the open-admission college with lower entrance test scores in reading and writing than their non-paired counterparts. Therefore, even if the paired students did as well as the non-paired students, this represented an accomplishment.

Although not all of the data related to these paired reading classes has been compiled, students who take a paired class versus their non-paired counterparts on the average earn one grade higher in their content class. Content area professors also report that paired students come better prepared for their classes. Paired students are more likely to have

read the assignment. They are more likely to contribute to class discussions and ask insightful questions. The feelings of students are captured in the following evaluation by a first term freshman: “When I can’t figure out the answer to a question in psychology, I ask about it the next day in my reading class. The whole class gets involved. Even if I can’t figure out the answer, we come up with a question that I can ask about the next day in psychology.”

Pairing Reading and Writing Courses

Given the success of pairing reading with content courses, some interest emerged among the reading and composition faculty in pairing reading and writing. This innovation meant that faculty members from two related but very different cultures had to collaborate. Reading faculty had their roots in education and psychology, while composition faculty were trained in literature and rhetoric. They attended different professional conferences and subscribed to different journals. Yet, their underlying belief systems were quite similar. They both knew reading and writing were not fundamentally separate entities, but complimentary aspects of general literacy and the broader communicative process. They believed that “you learn to read by reading as a writer, and to write by writing as a reader” (Barr, 1985, p.110).

The composition and reading faculty also noticed a certain amount of overlap in the existing “stand alone” developmental reading and writing courses. From this common ground, faculty designed, piloted and adopted the Preparatory Reading and Writing course (PRW). The belief within the departments was that students are best served when instruction is received from a reading expert and a writing expert, but that a paired reading and writing course might be more beneficial to students.

PRW is a six-credit hour paired reading and writing course with a syllabus that integrates reading and writing work across the weeks. The reading professor teaches for 75 minutes on Tuesdays and Thursdays; the writing professor teaches for 50 minutes on Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays. In addition, two in-class writing tutors are assigned to the writing classes on Mondays and Fridays.

A collection of texts reflecting many genres but a common theme, are assigned and addressed in both the reading and the writing classes. A recent theme was gender issues. In the reading class, using pre-reading activities, the reading instructor introduces the text. Vocabulary development and comprehension strategies are emphasized. Teachers use techniques, such as read-alouds, structured note-taking, ReQuest, reciprocal teaching, concept mapping, categorizing questions and KWL charts to help less proficient readers develop the strategies of proficient (active and metacognitive) readers. These strategies include activating prior knowledge, determining important ideas, creating visual images, asking questions, drawing inferences, retelling and synthesizing, and using fix-up strategies. However, these strategies are not introduced in isolation; they are addressed as students and teachers enter into conversations about the texts they are reading.

In addition to teaching these study strategies, the reading instructors help students develop skills in such things as test taking, time management, and note taking. Students are shown how reading passages contain the same components that are incorporated into their writing: introductions, main ideas, details of support, and conclusions. In this reading classroom environment, enriched with discussion and small and large group activities, students write ten journal entries based on prompts from the varied texts. The journal entries are open-ended opportunities for students to write whatever they think or

feel in response to the readings and class discussions. They involve a strong component of reflection, of thinking through ideas and emotions, of developing a personal response to the readings.

For the writing faculty, students create three writer-based summaries. These are much more structured and are rooted in the research on text summarization (Nist and Simpson, 2000). They are “external products that students create in order to reduce and organize information for their subsequent study and review” (Nist & Simpson, 2000, p. 655). One of only a few research-validated strategies, the writer-based summary has been shown to improve students’ comprehension and help them monitor their understanding. Students use their own words to form connections across the varied texts and concepts. The instructors have discovered that the writer-based summary strategy is not quickly mastered. Throughout the ten weeks, they must provide explicit instruction of some duration.

They focus on the writing process: prewriting activities, multiple drafts, revisions, and editing. With a two-week cycle on the quarter system, in-class tutors provide individual assistance to the students. On Wednesdays, the writing instructor teaches mini-lessons designed to address writing concerns gleaned from the students’ writings, such as problems with subject/verb agreement, fused sentences, and comma splices. The ultimate goal of both the reading and writing instructors is to help students internalize the reading and writing relationship in a positive, interactive environment.

This integrated approach, reflected in the syllabus, and daily meetings appear to assist students in the learning process. For example, one student from the paired reading and writing course reported, “The syllabus really helped me. It showed what you [the

instructors] expected us to do. I really liked how the readings were done with the papers. I really like how it showed me how the reading and writing all worked together as we discussed the readings and our papers.” From students’ classroom evaluations and their anonymous written comments, we’ve learned the power of the discussions. The discussions allowed them opportunities to refine their thinking, make decisions about the readings, and begin to sort out ideas for their own writing. One student wrote, “We have to think a little more so that we can understand the material better.” Another student felt that PRW “gave me a refresher on how to write.” Stand alone developmental reading courses can help extend student’s basic reading skills and provide them with appropriate strategies for dealing with the complexity of college texts. However, students often view these courses as a separate set of demands. Taught in this isolated fashion, students do not always see the relevance of the course work and may not see how to transfer these newly learned skills to other subject areas.

Conclusions

Despite criticism of college developmental programs, many educators and scholars claim that they are a cost-effective way of educating under-prepared college students (Littleton, 2000). College developmental reading and writing programs not only support the academically under-prepared, but also help retain students. For this reason, some research calls for mandatory assessment and placement in developmental courses. Boylan, Bliss, and Bonham (1997) report “mandatory placement insures that larger numbers of weaker students participate in developmental programs” (p.6). They report that when mandatory placement is part of a college developmental program, there is higher retention at both two-year and four-year institutions. Working with paired courses,

and the collaboration it can engender, may be one way to better support and retain academically under-prepared students. Certainly our experience suggests that this is so.

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Authoring and Publishing Electronic Text

Gary Moorman

We live in times of dramatic change. For literacy educators, the electronic era has changed the very nature of our profession. New information and communications technologies (ICT) have transformed the way literacy is defined, the way it is taught, our theoretical views of the way it is learned, and the ways we must go about researching it (Kamil & Lane, 1998; Leu, 2000a, 2000b; Reinking, 1998). Leu (2000a; 2001; [online document](#)) argues that literacy is “deictic;” that the concept or definition is under continuous change. The fact that the nature of “text” itself has dramatically changed is one of the major (perhaps the major) contributing factors to this constant and unsettling change. It has become obvious that reading and writing internet documents, listserv posts, emails, electronic journals articles and other forms of digital networked text (DNT) is not the same as reading and writing traditional print. One useful perspective on DNT is to view it as the next tool in the cultural evolution of literacy.

Cole (1996) argues that the first premise of Cultural-Historical Psychology is that human psychological processes emerged as humans began to develop tools (or artifacts) which regulated their interactions with each other and the physical world. The ability to develop and use tools is what sets humans apart from other species. Building on the philosophies of Marx and Engles, Vygotsky believed that the use of tools in socially meaningful work plays a crucial role in the development of individual consciousness as well as in the historical development of culture (Cole & Scribner, 1978; John-Steiner, 1978). In Mind and Society (1978), Vygotsky contrasts the learning and development of apes and children. The essential difference can be found in the uniquely human ability to

use tools in conjunction with sign systems, primarily language, that provide symbolic meaning to the tool, to the object that the tool works upon, and to the social context in which the work takes place.

An interesting illustration of the importance of tools in individual and cultural development is in Stanley Kubrick and Arthur Clark's brilliant introduction to "2001: A Space Odyssey." I used a short clip from this film to begin my keynote speech at the 2001 annual conference ([click here](#) to view the clip). I had two objectives. One was to start on a humorous note; facetiously, I introduced the clip as film from the ARF archives. The other objective was to provide a theoretical framework for the emergence of ICT and the rationale for moving the ARF Yearbook to an online format. Allow me to present my own analysis of each of the five sections of this film clip.

In the first segment, titled "NRC the year before the first ARF," the early humans are awakening to a new day; in the original, and substantially longer film, their daily lives have been filled with fear and uncertainty. They have lost their water supply to a more aggressive tribe, they are short of food, and under attack from wild animals. The excitement they show is from the sudden appearance of a "monolith." I believe the monolith represents the gift of abstract thought. In cultural historical psychology, the physical tool or artifact is always wedded with the psychological tool, the abstract meaning necessary to make the tool work. In the second segment ("Thoughts from one of the founders"), an early human is able to make the connection between the physical tool, the heavy bone, and an abstract use, a club. Without the psychological tool, the physical tool remains a useless piece of garbage on the community trash pile.

The next three segments illustrate the cultural implications of the introduction of the tool into the community. The third segment, “First ARF luncheon,” shows how the quality of life improves as a result of the tool. Food is more plentiful, and the community prospers. The fourth segment, “First graduate mentoring session,” shows the tool being passed on to the next generation. In cultural historical psychology, physical and psychological tools are the vehicle for passing cultural knowledge among individuals and from one generation to the next. “First ARF business meeting” is the final segment and contains two important points. First, there are both positive and negative outcomes with any new cultural tool. In addition to providing a more stable food supply, the club becomes a weapon for use against other humans; we see the first war casualty in history. Second, the symbolism of the bone being thrown into the air and transforming into a spacecraft in orbit around the moon signifies the historical link that tools provide for all cultures. The tools that make space travel a reality are descendents of the first tools that humans developed as they began to emerge as a unique species.

I believe that DNT is the next tool in the cultural evolution of literacy. In its infant stages, DNT simply mimicked older technologies. Electronic journals were only different in terms of their availability on the world wide web; their formats were the same and they were designed to be easily printed. However, as with all new technologies, creative and novel applications evolve. Many online journals now take advantage of the multiple possibilities of DNT.

In their wisdom, the ARF membership voted at the 2001 business meeting to move the ARF Yearbook to an online format. As with the bone/club, the new tool presents a great opportunity for growth and development in our community. But first, we

must learn how to write in this new literacy environment. The purpose of this paper is to present some of the opportunities that DNT provides for authors. I will discuss three dimensions of electronic, networked text: It is non-linear, it is multi-dimensional, and it is interactive. I will illustrate how you can integrate these dimensions in your writing by linking to examples from articles in [Reading Online](#), the International Reading Associations online journal. In my opinion, [Reading Online](#) is among the best and most innovative of the online journals. If you are reading this article online, you may find it useful to open a second window and simultaneously review the articles I'm writing about. This can easily be done by clicking on the underlined link.

Non-linear Text

Non-linear text allows the reader to follow alternative paths through the text. I will discuss three aspects of this dimension. First, electronic text is searchable. If you access [Reading Online](#), you will find a Search icon. Clicking on the search icon takes you to a search engine page, where you can search various categories and use either exact phrase, all words, any words or Boolean search options. There is also a comprehensive index; again an icon will take you to an index page. There you have the option of title, subject and author indexes. Finally, you can search for keywords in networked articles by using the "Find on this Page" option in the Edit pull down menu in both the Netscape and Explorer web browsers.

Electronic text also allows authors to provide navigational tools for moving quickly and efficiently within the text. For example, if you access [Learning from Text: A Multidimensional and Developmental Perspective](#) (Jetton & Alexander, 2001; [online document](#)), you can see a number of such tools. For example, if you click on either of the

author's names, you are moved to the bottom of the document where you find a picture and biographical information. You can then click on "Back to the top" to return to the previous location in the text. The same works with all references; click on the citation in text, go directly to the citation in the reference list. By scrolling down the page, you will find an electronic table of contents. From here, you can move directly to any section in the text.

It should be noted that all of these navigational tools are enhanced versions of "do it by hand" technology; there is really nothing new, it's just faster and more efficient. As the technology becomes more common, we can expect creative and novel approaches to text navigation. For example, McEneaney (2000; [online document](#)) organizes his article A Hypertext History in 36 Nodes as a six by six matrix: on the vertical axis are six hypertext themes (people, places, etc) and on the horizontal axis are six eras, dating from the 1940s to the future. The reader can select any point on the matrix (for example people in the future), or read by theme, or by time, or by following the linear sequence or "path." Clearly, this approach to authoring text is not possible in traditional forms of print.

Non-linear text also allows authors to provide extended discussions or elaborated definitions of technical vocabulary. In the Jetton and Alexander (2001; [online document](#)) article cited above, the authors make extensive use of this tool. If you go to the table of contents and click on strategies, you will find a sentence that begins "All learning demands [strategic engagement](#)..." Note that both in this text and the original text "strategic engagement" is hot linked. If you click there, you will find a discussion of this concept. This is useful both for readers without rich background knowledge, and readers with a more intense interest in the concept.

Multi-dimensional Text

The multi-dimensional aspect of text allows the author to invite the reader outside text; equally important, the reader can accept or decline invitation. Currently, authors typically move readers to five alternative texts: websites, other DNT, images, audio and video.

The most common strategy in ICT authoring is to make links to related websites. Many articles now make extensive use of websites as scholarly citations. For example, in Shared reading correlates of early reading skills (Burgess, 2002; [online document](#)), readers are linked to numerous department of education documents rather than to a reference citation. In addition, a new professional genre is emerging as articles with the primary objective of exploring websites become commonplace. In Internet resources for conducting readers theatre, Carrick (2001; [online document](#)) provides numerous online resources for teachers interested in readers theatre. **Reading Online** regularly publishes “web watches” on topics of current interest. For example, Web watch: Assessment resources (Johnson, 2001; [online document](#)) presents numerous links to websites related to assessment issues.

Another common strategy is to link readers to other online documents. Obviously, I’ve been using this strategy throughout the paper. Bean (2001; [online document](#)) refers readers to the [IRA’s online position statement on adolescent literacy](#) (I’ve made the same link here). This strategy will become increasingly popular as more online documents become available.

It also has become commonplace to insert various images within DNT. I think this is an approach with great potential. Muffoletto (2001; [online document](#)) makes extensive

use of photographs in his article on visual literacy. Another excellent example is Dowhower's (2002; [online document](#)) article in this year's ARF Yearbook. She uses 33 digital images of paintings in her discussion of the portrayal of literacy in western art, "Literacy Paintings."

The use of both audio and video clips within electronic text is becoming more widespread. Audio brings a more personal perspective to professional writing. In Making Text Come to Life on the Computer: Toward an Understanding of Hypermedia Literacy, Eagleton (2002; [online document](#)) interviews the seventh grade "E-Zeen" editors in her research studies. In addition to print transcripts, she provides audio clips of the students. It's interesting how the actual voices provide additional depth to the article. Another audio technology that can be used with DNT is text-to-speech software. This software reads aloud the electronic text, and is surprisingly good at capturing a sense of an actual reader. Read-please, a program available in both free and commercial versions (<http://readplease.com/>), offers three different "readers," one of which does a great impersonation of Marilyn Monroe. Many other text-to-speech programs are available on the web.

One of the most interesting and potentially powerful media to implant in electronic text is video. With ongoing improvements in technology, such as streaming video and programs such as i-Movie and other video editing software, we can expect to see more examples of imbedded video in the near future. I used I-movie to edit the video clip from "2001: A Space Odyssey," and it plays as streaming video from a different server than the one that contains this website. Another interesting example of streaming

video inside DNT is in I Read, I Learn, iMovie: Strategies for Developing Literacy in the Context of Inquiry-Based Science Instruction (Yerrick & Ross, 2001; [online document](#)).

The authors have several video clips imbedded throughout the article. All links to the clips are labeled “[a server at the University of San Diego](#)”; if you click on this link you will go to a clip of a science field trip to a pond. Viewing the actual instructional activity adds a special dimension to the authors’ message.

Interactive Text

DNT provides opportunities for interaction among authors and readers in ways undreamed of 25 years ago. Three tools are in common use: email, listservs and bulletin (message) boards.

With permission of the author, **Reading Online** provides email addresses as part of the biographical information included in each article. For example, if you click on Thomas W. Bean in the article An Update on Reading in the Content Areas: Social Constructionist Dimensions (Bean, 2001; [online document](#)) you are sent to the bottom of the page where you will find a picture of Tom as well as a connection to his email address. Most authors appreciate the opportunity to interact with readers of their articles; I know I do, so if you’d like to talk about this article email me at moormangb@appstate.edu.

Listservs are an increasingly popular electronic tools. **Reading Online** maintains a listserv for it’s readers. Information on joining can be found on both the [IRA website](#) and in [Online Communities](#) section of Reading Online. Or, here is a direct [link](#). Although

the purpose of the listserv is to discuss articles related to the journal, conversations tend to focus on practical issues. Most members are classroom teachers, and their views reflect classroom practice and reality. Authors often join in the conversations. I would like to encourage readers to join in conversations about articles in this Yearbook by subscribing and posting to the ARF listserv. For more information on this listserv, [click here](#).

Bulletin boards, sometimes called message boards or threaded discussion boards, offer an interesting alternative to the listserv. They provide an organized conversation; messages can be posted in response to given topics or to previous messages. This organization makes following threads of conversations much easier. The disadvantage (although some would see it as an advantage) is you have to go to the board, rather than having messages come directly to your email. IRA maintains a number of bulletin boards, one exclusively for **Reading Online**. You can visit this bulletin board by clicking [here](#), then clicking on “ROL Bulletin Board” in the upper right corner of the page.

Concluding Remarks

It is clear that digital text connected to the internet is evolving into a unique medium. In this paper I’ve explored a few of the many tools that make DNT different from traditional printed text. For authors, these tools create many avenues for creative expression; readers can be provided with multiple navigational paths within the text, authors can enrich and enhance the text, and opportunities for interaction among authors and readers can be created. Since the ARF Yearbook is now online, the membership has an outlet for their efforts in applying this new technology. The current Yearbook editors

are committed to assisting authors in the creation of innovative DNT. Please feel free to contact them with questions, concerns or suggestions:

[Gary Moorman](#)

[Woody Trathen](#)

[Rich Culatta](#)

[Linda C. Pacifici](#)

[Bob C. Schlagal](#)

[Pamela W. Schram](#)

[Connie J. Ulmer](#)

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University Practitioner: Building Commitment to the Teaching of Reading through Book Conversations

Dan Rothermel

Dear Classmates,

"The entire concept of a book club sounded very intellectual (i.e. boring) as we discussed it in class. As it would turn out, the book I really wanted to read was not the book my group chose for our book club. We read **The Divine Secrets of the Ya Ya Sisterhood** (Wells, 1997). Just take a look at the front cover of the book. It just screamed, "My mother would love this book!" Loosely translated - the book was going to suck!

Well suck or not, it was mine to read. The first few chapters were ok, but by page 100 I was hooked. I put off all other work because I had to read for my book club assignment. Yeah right - I couldn't put the book down. I was dying to know what happened at the end of the book. The author did a fabulous job keeping you reeled in until the last chapter. Although we agreed that we'd only read about 100 pages I couldn't stop there..."

Chelsea

As she playfully described in her Dear Classmates Letter (Rothermel, 2001) (response writing that is published for 5-10 of her classmates four times throughout the semester), Chelsea's skepticism about participating in a book club during her graduate class in the teaching of reading was not unusual. The data for my reflections comes from student writing, teacher reflection, and classroom discussion and observations in the graduate level course, *Process, Development, and Teaching of Reading*, in the Education

Department of Eastern Connecticut State University during the 2000-2001 and 2001-2002 academic years. Under the pressure of raising test scores, some teachers come to my graduate classes in the teaching of reading and writing wanting to know "just the facts" (i.e., what to do to improve test scores in reading, "not wasting our time with this professor who is so out of touch with classroom realities so much that he thinks reading books of our own choosing and discussing them will help us teach reading").

For all teachers participating in these book conversations, my goals are threefold: (1) they will experience the value of using metacognitive strategies to explore their personal connections with the text, not just bringing a literal interpretation to their reading, (2) they will increase their commitment to the use of metacognitive strategies with their students, and (3) they will use teacher modeling to demonstrate that these reading comprehension strategies can add to the students' enjoyment, engagement, and sense-making of the text while they read.

Background

An examination of the value of teachers talking about books is not a new one. Regie Routman (2000) in **Conversations** notes "One of the best ways for teachers to make the transition to student-led conversation groups in the classroom is by participating in adult book groups" (177). In **Literature Circles** (Daniels, 2002) states, "Obviously, when we adults try literature circles for ourselves, we enhance our ability to translate the activity for our students. But we gain much more than pedagogical insight from the experience. Through the magic of talk, in the company of good literature, with the gift of honest sharing, we become better readers, better colleagues, better friends, and better people" (177). Cris Tovani (2000) in **I Read It, But I Don't Get It** explains, (in her

book club) "People argued their points of view passionately and shared places in the text that substantiated their thinking. They read aloud portions and shared connections they had made between their lives and the books. They asked questions and drew inferences...I was beginning to see how real readers made sense of text" (7-8).

Goldberg and Pesko (2000) write, "we recognized that effective professional development in literacy must include a sustained, personal examination of our interaction with reading" (39). Further, in commenting about the results of such literature conversations by teachers and the effect literature conversations had on classroom practice, they conclude, "Teachers abandoned many student activity and comprehension sheets. They gave students more choices. They recognized that there is a rhythm to reading and that keeping a story alive requires a fluid reading pace...They recognized the need to steer away from prescribed questions and answers" (40).

Wondering whether my students would confirm these beliefs about the value of literature conversations by adults and whether they would offer additional insights into the implementation of literature circles in public school classrooms, I wanted to create a Book Club Experience that would positively impact their learning about the teaching of reading, specifically as it relates to literature conversations.

Book Club Experience

In the handout (rothermeld@easternct.edu) I gave students, I began with the purposes of the Book Club Experience, which were to: (1) experience again the joy of reading, (2) learn about reading in a group setting, and (3) learn some of the research-based strategies for reading comprehension from the **Mosaic of Thought**) such as:

"1. Activating relevant, prior knowledge (schema) before, during, and after

reading text... To relate unfamiliar text to their prior world knowledge and/or personal experience - those connections generally take three forms: (a) text-to-self connections, (b) text-to-text connections, and (c) text-to-world connections (55)

2. Determining the most important ideas and themes in a text...
3. Asking questions of themselves, the authors, and the texts they read...
4. Creating visual and other sensory images from text during and after reading...
5. Drawing inferences from text...
6. Retelling or synthesizing what they have read...
7. Utilizing a variety of fix-up strategies to repair comprehension when it breaks down..." (22-23).

To begin to accomplish these purposes, students, in groups of four to five chose a paperback--be it a New York Times bestseller or a classic that they had not read--to read and discuss as a book club. Students brought in two book recommendations for their group to consider. After hearing all the recommendations, they democratically chose one. During the following week in class, books were distributed and, as a group, the students decided how many chapters to read. During the next two weeks in class, each group met for about twenty minutes to discuss their reading, keeping in mind the meta-cognitive strategies for reading comprehension that I had previously modeled in class and about which they had read in the course text (**Mosaic of Thought**, Keene & Zimmerman, 1997). Afterwards, each small group debriefed the experience and made connections to its application in their classrooms. In the large group class discussion, the unique experiences of the members of the group brought out varied interpretations of the text as well as an appreciation of points of view that they hadn't considered. To these

comments, I contributed others based upon my understanding about metacognitive strategies and my experiences working with teachers in schools.

Discussion

Student responses to the Book Club Experience focused on three primary areas: (1) the reminder of the joy of reading, (2) the metacognitive reading comprehension strategies the students found useful, and (3) the personal connections that would enhance implementation of literature conversations in the public school classrooms.

Joy of Reading

With the demands of being students again, teaching full-time, raising families, and valuing marriages with time together, my graduate students noted that they made little time for reading for pleasure. With the structure of college courses and this specific book club assignment, these students were “forced” to think about reading from a personal point of view.

Describing her engagement with the experience, Ann wrote,

"Well I went home and I read this book non-stop, do not pass go, and do not collect \$200. I took the book everywhere. I could not believe that I could not put this book down. When I walked into class the following week, I had read farther than we were going because this book was so good. I saw Lyn (group member) and asked how she was doing and she responded that she had finished the book! I was amazed".

Rachel's experience paralleled that of Ann. She wrote,

"For me, I couldn't wait to find out how it ended. That same night I finished the book before bed. I have never read a book so fast in my life. My eyes couldn't move fast enough so that I could see how it played out. Even though it (**A Walk To Remember**)

was a tearjerker, I think I read so fast that I didn't allow myself to get all mushy. I just held the book at the end and pondered and thought and wished I could talk to someone else who had been there, too".

Getting to the heart of her enjoyment, Brooke wrote,

"How nice it is to read a book simply for the joy of reading it. It was nice to know that there will not be a test on the printed material. There will be no paper, project, or presentation celebrating the text. I was able to read the book without searching for deep meaning to prove that I had found the true essence of the book. I simply read the book and interpreted it my way".

Though most students enjoyed the opportunity to participate in a Book Club, Chris, though passionate, had some misgivings about his experience.

"I liked, and still do, the idea of a book club (his emboldening)...I was in fact looking forward to the experience. Unfortunately, the book that was chosen, **We were the Mulvaney's**, (Oates, 1996) was not what I expected and I was very disappointed in it. I found the book a worthless wallowing of self-pity and self-destruction. I feel that the character development was the best part of the book because it was only pathetic. I was insulted and angered by the trivializing of real life this "book" attempted to perpetrate. I would highly recommend this author get a grip and spend some time in the real world". Wouldn't teachers like to have their students so engaged and who cared as deeply as Chris did? Book clubs brought out such passion in my students.

Useful Metacognitive Reading Comprehension Strategies

The commitment to teaching metacognitive reading comprehension strategies as outlined in the **Mosaic of Thought** (Keene & Zimmerman, 1997), **On Solid Ground:**

Strategies for Teaching Reading K-3 (Taberski, 2000), and **I Read It, But I Don't Get It** (Tovani, 2000) began developing in my students through their participation in the Book Club Experience.

Marie wrote of accessing her prior knowledge when she said,

"When I first read the book at home, I thought reading this book was a waste of time. I could not see how this story (**Who Moved My Cheese?**, Johnson, 1998) related to my life. When the group talked about the book in class, I enjoyed listening to the group's thoughts about the book. Some people in the group talked about their own experiences. This helped me draw from my own experiences. I went home and reread the book. I thought about the cheese and what the cheese meant to me. I related it to my life and the book started to come alive".

The retelling strategy for understanding what is read was noted by May:

"I had questions but without the ability to retell parts of the story that I needed to clarify or disagree with, I almost didn't remember the story very well. I met with the book club and, at first, I didn't know where to start because I couldn't recall much of the story. But after I started talking about it, I could remember the parts of the story that were important to me and also the parts that I didn't like. It also gave me the opportunity to hear other opinions of the book. As I was talking about it, I was placing certain people as one of the characters whom I had thought of before, but suddenly thought it fit perfectly. This only came about because I was able to discuss it with the others and hear their opinions".

When teachers admit that they have questions, they are reminded of the questions students themselves have as they read. Betsy commented, "One really neat thing was that

if one of us had a question, or was confused by something in the book, another group member was there to answer the question. If the group couldn't answer your question, that was reassuring, too. You were assured that you hadn't missed it".

Katarina concluded how the book club experience worked for her. "Without this type of interaction and participation, knowledge is limited to one's own thinking. Just by talking about a book we all have read, stimulates thinking as well as deepens understanding. It is as if you are working and thinking **with six brains instead of one**" (my emboldening).

Personal Connections

Three clusters of individual insights emerged from the data: (1) reading does not need dissection to make it worthwhile, (2) literature conversations digress and teachers are "off-task," and (3) a variety of viewpoints are represented.

Reading does not need dissection to make it worthwhile. Those students who expected a focus of teacher analysis of the text were delighted to discuss their own topics and ask their own questions in a book club setting. Tania noted,

We weren't getting the essence of **The Stranger** (Camus, 1988). Then, a beautiful thing happened: we all said, "Who cares?" We realized we didn't have to "get it." Dan wasn't going to ask us to explain the symbolism or pontificate on the author's frame of mind. A test wasn't awaiting us, demanding that we identify significance. So, each of us simply continued to read and to try and make sense of the book – with no pressure. The result is...we still don't get it. But we're beginning to...

Jordan added what students forever have thought, "It was a great escape to be able to read a book and not be responsible for answering any questions about it or having to

take an exam in class the next day. I found myself being able to relax and try and soak in the story I was reading instead of my reading being dictated by the questions I would have to answer later". Janey begins her letter to classmates with on-target humor, "Reading for fun! What a novel idea! Ha ha! Yes, I think it's time educators emphasized that reading, just plain reading, is...enjoyable...".

Literature conversations digress and teachers are "off-task". Lea related, Through the experience I learned it really was not about the book but rather the whole experience of reading and discussing the same book with adults. Elise's insight piggybacked that one. While in our group someone mentioned at one point we were really not talking "about" the book because we were involved instead with sharing personal life stories. I remember commenting that it was "because" of the book that we felt compelled to share these things and bring them to the surface. The book (**Tuesdays with Morrie**) had affected or provoked us in that way and the book club time had allowed us to share those stories. Jackey articulated it in another way, I remember someone commenting upon how little of our conversation in our book club discussion actually centered around the contents of the book itself, as much as on how the story related and became interpreted through the lens of personal experience and our own emotional centers. Lyn "mea culpa-ed" when she wrote, I found I acted just like my students at times, off task and easily distracted. OOPS.

Variety of viewpoints represented. Other students saw varied interpretations and immediate feedback as plusses of book clubs. Clint wrote, The circles were a great way to say what I wanted about the book and have a response right away. Rather than writing a paper and getting a few comments from the teacher a month later. It also was a good

way to get myself thinking about different issues in the book that I did not see when I read it. Jenna offered, I felt more than welcome to share my viewpoints even if they weren't siding with the majority. It is refreshing to be valued for your individual style rather than criticized for it.

Wendy contributed,

"...I have never participated in a book group as an adult. Our first group meeting was very revealing and enjoyable. I heard our members discuss, reflect, agree, and disagree on our reading assignment, the first half of **Tuesday's with Morrie** by Mitch Albom. We all agreed Morrie voiced numerous views concerning life and death that touched and inspired us. These points made us rethink and examine our personal beliefs and opinions. Two of our MALE members had a somewhat cynical perception of Mr. Albom's purpose for writing this book. They thought Mitch Albom wanted to make a buck!! They reasoned that he was out of work and unemployed when he renewed his friendship with his past professor...These thoughts had not even crossed my mind or the mind of other book club members. As I read this week's assignment I read with their viewpoint in mind. I keep wondering if I had missed something. I did not want to believe that their theory was true. I wanted Mitch to have the character and inner strength Morrie believed he had..."

Kyla added,

"...I also found that each of us brought a different perspective to the discussion. Each of the members of my group were appreciating the book (**A Walk in the Woods** by Bill Bryson) and getting things out of it, but in different ways. One of us was searching for the characters' inner thoughts and feelings, one of us was searching for reason, and

another was looking to the text for inspiration. When we talked about the meaning of the book, I found that what I thought were underlying reasons for the characters' adventures was separate from what my group partners thought. Their insights, ideas, and opinions gave me a new perspective and helped me think more in depth about the characters and plot. It was enlightening to try to see the story through the eyes of my partners..."

As the graduate students made personal meaning, better understood the metacognitive strategies for reading comprehension, and were reminded of the pleasures of reading, implications for the teaching of reading emerged.

Implications for Teachers

With the reintroduction of reading for pleasure into the lives of my graduate students through Book Clubs, they once again experienced the joy and passion that reading can bring. These classroom teachers can, in turn, share their own enthusiasm for reading with their very own students based in their experience in talking about books themselves. Through literature conversations teachers can engage their students in the meaning making process of reading.

The safety of the classroom atmosphere comes up time and again from the graduate students as crucial to the success of their literature conversations. Building community (Rothermel, 2001) through teacher acceptance of multiple responses by students as well as honoring the value of student insights allows students to risk in their learning, to wonder, and to question: indeed, to think. By having my graduate students experience the variety of responses to text they hear in their own Book Clubs, they are made aware of the varied responses to the text that their own students will bring to discussions about the text. By reducing the number of assignments that require literal

recall only, teachers can help students make connections to their own lives so as to find personal meaning in the text.

In addition to understanding of semantic, syntactical, and phonic cuing systems to improve reading comprehension, it is apparent that students need a reason to care about reading to become engaged readers. Without good reason, they may be learning “reading obedience” and test taking strategies, but they are missing the pleasure, satisfaction, and personally useful knowledge that come from reading. Conversations about books release the desire to explore oneself in relation to the stories as well as personal connections with the text. Retelling, asking questions, or accessing prior knowledge gives students of all ages the tools to enjoy and get more out of their reading than just a literal recapitulation of the plot, theme, and characters. Students need repeated modeling of these metacognitive strategies by their teachers to “own” the strategies and to make them work no matter what level of understanding the reading material requires.

My work using the Book Club Experience reinforces the belief: To teach reading well, teachers must be readers themselves.

Note: All student names are pseudonyms.

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Using a Teacher Work Sample as a measure of effectiveness: Is the bar too high for a teacher candidate?

Jane F. Rudden, Donna H. Topping, Sandra J. Hoffman

As we enter the 21st century, the future of teacher education is at best uncertain. The standards movement now dominates discussions about teaching and learning, curriculum, and assessment, as well as all aspects of teacher learning, teacher assessment, and teacher certification (Cochran-Smith, 2000, p. 163).

The American Federation of Teachers (AFT) released a report (2000) calling for more rigorous standards and preparation for new teachers. Among the recommendations made by the AFT, is the institution of a rigorous exit/licensure test that “aim[s] for a level of rigor that is consistent with what entry-level teachers in other high-performing countries are expected to know” (p. 36).

The National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) expects accredited institutions to develop and implement performance-based accountability systems (Wise, 2000). The focus on teacher qualifications and the quality of teacher education programs is reflected in the NCATE Performance-based Standards (2001). In order to be awarded and maintain continuing accreditation by NCATE, institutions will need to show that candidates can connect theory to practice and be effective in a P-12 classroom. This is demonstrated by:

- systems of candidate assessment (initial, formative, summative)
- teacher educators modeling effective teaching

- candidates demonstrating that they can teach students of diverse backgrounds
- candidates demonstrating the effective use technology in teaching
- candidates documenting their work (Teacher Work Samples) that includes connections to state and local standards, modifications to instruction based on pre-assessment data, analysis of post-assessment data, and reflections on teaching and its effect on pupil learning

Historically, teacher candidates were evaluated on what they knew and what they were able to do. With the Teacher Work Sample approach, the impact of candidates' teaching on pupil learning is used as the measure of effectiveness. An evident link needs to be shown between state/local standards and the instructional objectives. Further, teacher candidates are being asked to show the direct cause/effect relationship between their teaching and the pupils' learning. Validation of the Teacher Work Sample as a measure of teacher effectiveness is a matter of debate. McConney, Schalock & Schalock (1998) did conclude that, taken together, the work sample measures "explain between 24.5 per cent (at grades 3 to 5) and 59.5 per cent (grades 6 to 8) of the variance observed in student learning, depending on the group under examination" (p. 357).

The focus on performance-based standards has caught the attention of college and university presidents, including those from member institutions of The Renaissance Group, made up of presidents, provosts, and deans who have collaborated on issues of teacher preparation since 1989. Responding to the call for change, 11 of the more than 15 Renaissance-member institutions are participating in a five-year Title II Teacher Quality Improvement initiative to improve the quality of their graduates and the teachers in their

respective partner schools by focusing attention on P-12 student learning. The Renaissance Teacher Work Sample (R-TWS) was developed to guide this process.

This article reflects the first two years of a five-year timeline to fully implement the Renaissance Teacher Work Sample as one deciding measure of teacher candidate effectiveness. The model we use includes the seven core components of a Teacher Work Sample as described in McConney, Schalock & Schalock (1998). These non-negotiable components are:

1. Contextual Factors
2. Learning Goals
3. Assessment Plan
4. Design for Instruction
5. Instructional Decision-Making
6. Analysis of Student Learning
7. Reflection and Self-Evaluation

Sources that inform our reflections and predictions include the prompt each candidate followed to develop a Teacher Work Sample, scoring rubrics, teacher candidate work samples, NCATE 2000 standards, and anecdotal feedback from teacher candidates in the pilot cohorts.

The concept of demonstrating effectiveness as a teacher is not new. Even so, the application of a rigorous standard of expectation for aspiring teachers has its stumbling blocks. In the discussion of the Practical View, we take a closer look at the realities of holding on to high expectations with limited field experiences; modifying the documentation process without sacrificing the integrity of the work sample; and, the

unexpected revelations teacher candidates shared in their reflections on the teaching process.

The experience of effecting a grand shift in the evaluation of teacher candidates affects all stakeholders: candidates, teacher educators, arts & sciences faculty, and classroom practitioners. The learning curve is steep. In the Skeptical View, we discuss the barricades to success: avoiding a compromise of rigor when modifications are dictated by a large number of teacher candidates; realigning the curriculum to insure all components of the work sample are modeled, practiced, and mastered; dealing with resistance to change among faculty groups.

Performance-based evaluation of teacher candidates is not a wave of the future; it's here and now.

The *Contextual Factors* section of the R-TWS asks these novices to investigate the multiple layers of context that surround their teaching – characteristics of the students in their classroom and of the classroom itself, the school, the district, and the community at large. Recognizing these multiple layers is a challenge, and it has posed difficulties. We noticed early on that work samples from our university and others within the Renaissance partnership were filled with comprehensive “tell-all's” about the context for teaching and learning. Teacher-candidates seemed not to discriminate among contextual factors by choosing only those that might impact instruction. For example, after reading a lengthy description of the town in which one student's school was located, one of our colleagues summed up our feeling when he asked, “Yes there is a river running through the town, *but what does that have to do with the teaching – learning process?*” We have had to work with students on learning to note *relevant* aspects of context.

The Practical View

To date, we have coached twenty-six elementary education teacher candidates through the development of their Renaissance-Teacher Work Samples (R-TWS). Each R-TWS is based upon a fairly traditional teaching unit. Students develop their first, or formative, R-TWS during their professional studies semester and two summative R-TWS's during their student teaching semester. They approach these two semesters with a considerable repertoire of pedagogical knowledge and strategies gleaned from their early field experiences and basic education courses. Still, guiding this effort has been much like renovating a house while living in it, as the R-TWS causes both them - and us - to change focus from *teacher as producer of knowledge* to *students as learners*.

Each cohort of candidates approaches their pre-student teaching semester with questions about what the work sample should look like. Our honest response has been, "*We're not sure. Help us find out.*" We have asked them to step outside of their traditional and comfortable roles as students and to join with us as co-researchers, to help us understand the R-TWS from the inside out. We have extended the invitation to them to help us and the teacher-candidates who will follow them, come to know the potential and the problems of implementing the R-TWS on a large scale in our university. Their feedback on both the process and product of the work sample has informed our knowledge in ways in which we typically would not have access. In the process we have come to know not only the R-TWS through teacher-candidates' eyes, but also the strengths and needs of our elementary education curriculum through their eyes as well. The commentary and the

voices of the work-samplers that follow illuminate the thinking and the pragmatics that the R-TWS cultivates.¹

Contextual Factors

This teaching process calls their attention to the context of a real school, not the mythical problem-free school that they may be imagining. This takes them well beyond the typical survival-level of context that asks *how many students do I have, and how many copies should I make?*

While helping teacher-candidates identify *relevant* aspects of context has been difficult, getting them to *use* that context to plan instruction has been still another hurdle. What follows are excerpts from three work samples of teacher candidates who were placed in the same school district. They illustrate three levels of understanding and addressing context.

Frankie was a member of the original cadre to undertake the R-TWS. In researching the district, Frankie learned that it was considered to be of low socio-economic level, had been identified as low-achieving, and was in danger of being taken over by the state. In response to the threatened take-over, her school had reassessed their purpose and written a mission statement that focused on ensuring that all students learn. Having read this, Frankie offered this interpretation:

This statement shows that regardless of the students' environment and community demographics, the children can succeed and the school will guide them in the right direction.

¹ R-TWS's from the following teacher-candidates are cited with permission: Frances Harmon, Beth Bradnick, Brian Thompson, Missy Olivitt, Lisa Waltz, Lindsey Crowley, Gina Fromant, Dawn Bruno, and Amanda Funk.

Beth took this context a step further by examining what that meant for teachers and students in that district. Her cooperating teacher had asked her to teach a science unit on rocks, and she wrote:

Due to the demand for higher assessment scores on the standardized tests, the teachers are driven to teach to the test. They just tie everything in their classroom to the standards, both state and local, and try to have their students achieve a 3 or 4 (based on the rubric) on any given assessment.... The school curriculum is very strict about what teachers have to teach.... There is no time built in for science or social studies. I taught science lessons—the first my class had science all year.

Brian, however, approached the kind of reflection the R-TWS seeks to develop, when he identified the implications that this might have on his teaching:

My cooperating teacher informed me that the students have had minimal science instruction and are not familiar with what an experiment is. This information is beneficial to my planning because these students will be required to know what an experiment is and the processes of science for a standardized assessment.

Therefore, I am going to provide lessons that are hands-on and inquiry-based.

Linking Learning Goals, Assessment Plan, and Design for Instruction with Standards

Having considered the Contextual Factors surrounding teaching and learning, teacher-candidates next develop Learning Goals, an Assessment Plan, and the Design for Instruction for their unit. On the surface, these elements of the R-TWS do not seem radically different from traditional unit plans. In substance, however, the familiar tasks of writing behavioral objectives, planning for instruction, and identifying a means for

assessing progress are much more in-depth. The R-TWS requires that all three elements be explicitly linked to local, state, and national standards. Rather than teaching what they would like to teach about a topic, or aspects of that topic for which they have interesting activities, teacher-candidates must teach the content specified in the standards. In addition to the strong link to standards, the work sample requires that teacher-candidates stayed focused upon student learning throughout their units. Their Assessment Plans must demonstrate that they have administered a pre-assessment to measure students' initial understandings of each of their standards-based goals, formative assessments that monitor students' understandings during instruction, and a post-assessment that measures growth.

Missy analyzed her pre-assessment data and found direction for how she would teach States of Matter to her first-graders. She wrote:

After analyzing the pre-assessment data, I decided that the best way to format instruction for this class would be to stay very basic. They lacked almost any kind of understanding of the states of matter. Their answers were very random, almost as if they were guessing.... The activities are sequenced to progress from simple to complex ideas and concepts. This seems the best way to sequence this unit because of the minimal knowledge the children had. The solids activity is the most simple because solids are the easiest to show concretely. Also, solids are literally everywhere around us....

At the outset, we saw the potential for the Assessment Plan to encourage mere “number-crunching” of objective pre-test/post-test data, thereby eroding the careful work that we do on authentic assessments. We asked our teacher-candidates to think back upon

their coursework on assessment and work with us to find ways to adapt authentic assessment measures to the requirements of the Assessment Plan. Together we discussed how hands-on activities, K-W-L's, students' writing, and rubrics could be used as pre/post assessments, and how techniques such as "kidwatching", "thumbs up-thumbs down", and periodic review of students' work could be used as formative assessments. Lisa's Assessment Plan for her unit on Solving Word Problems in second grade is an example of this versatility in both choosing formats and adapting the assessments so that they were fair for all children in her diverse class.

R-TWS Assessment Plan

LEARNING GOAL	ASSESSMENT	FORMAT OF ASSESSMENT	ADAPTATIONS
Learning Goals 1 to 3	Pre-assessment	Draw picture with labels and write the process step-by-step	-Read the problem to the entire class -Read and describe the directions to the class -Individual reminders to students having trouble following directions
Learning Goal 1	Formative Assessment	Interviewing	-Solve the problem as a whole class first -Demonstrate step writing
Learning Goal 2	Formative Assessment	Kid-watching	-Demonstrate how to make a chart or draw pictures to solve the problem
Learning Goal 3	Formative Assessment	Rubric	-Students will need to be guided and shown a piece of work rated as a 4, 3, 2, 1
Learning goals 1 to 3	Post-Assessment	Pencil and Paper: including drawing a picture with labels and writing the step-by-step	-Review all the problems covered during the previous lessons -Read the question to students and answer questions on the content of the question

		process used to solve the problem.	
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The R-TWS asks teacher-candidates to bring all of the knowledge they have developed in the first three sections of the work sample to bear on their Design for Instruction. When Lindsey reflected upon the context surrounding her teaching, she realized that some of her own feelings might be part of that context when she wrote:

The students in my classroom all were incredibly diverse. Since my students were so diverse, I personally had to change my mindset. I have never been exposed to such a change of culture as when I met my students. The classroom consisted of 14 girls and 11 boys. Of these 25 students, 11 were Hispanics, 8 were white, 3 were Asians, and 3 were African Americans. At first, learning to relate to these various backgrounds made me feel slightly uncomfortable....

Lindsey found that her students' backgrounds were quite different from her own, and she used this as an opportunity to reflect further. Upon investigation, she learned that most of her students came from homes that lacked many resources and reference aids for reinforcing content being taught in school. To forge home-school connections, she adapted her instructional plan to include a way for students to have at-home support for her unit on Simple Machines:

The activities that the students will do all can be easily recreated at home. The way I will teach the lessons is to have the students perform an activity using other objects that are not the actual machine, then perform the activity again using the

actual machine. This is done so the students can begin to understand that the actual machine can be recreated using any household items....”

Instructional Decision-Making

The R-TWS helps teacher-candidates realize that teaching is a process of continuous observation and adaptation, rather than a set of fixed, foolproof plans. The Instructional Decision-Making section not only permits false starts and corrections, but also validates this inevitable aspect of teaching. Soon after beginning to teach her unit, Gina found that she needed to adapt her plan:

I made several changes to my design for instruction. The first change was to have each of the whole class discussions before having the grouping activities. After observing this class, I knew settling the students down to start instruction was going to be a problem. Rather than have the students get excited about the grouping activity and not be able to concentrate on the group discussion, I decided to do the whole class activity and then have them break up into groups....”

Dawn found that student absences interfere with learning and require that the conscientious teacher help absentees catch up on missed information. In the process of working individually with a student, she discovered still another adaptation that she needed to make:

One of my students was absent that day and, therefore, unavailable for this activity. With this student, I had to work with him individually the next morning on the activity. While experimenting with different objects, I realized this student had no prior knowledge about what most of the objects were. For instance, a paper clip was an object in the discovery kit. He did not know what it was. He

could tell me that he had seen them before but could not put a name with it. In addition to the paper clip, he referred to the piece of cardboard as a box. After viewing this, I realized that this student would most likely not be able to tell me the objects' names during the post assessment. This finding later influenced the post assessment modifications....

Missy learned that “kidwatching” while the unit is in progress can dictate mid-course changes:

The main way that I modified the implementation of instruction was by taking out the fourth lesson, *Classification Matters*. I did not take it out in its entirety; however, we did classification at the end of each activity. I knew that these children would become bored if we were to do classification for one whole lesson. Therefore, at the end of each activity, we did some brief classification activities. This also helped the students succeed because the information was fresh in their minds after each lesson....

Lindsey learned how much planning is required in order to teach for student learning, and how ongoing formative assessment leads to adaptations:

When I taught my first lesson, I was not aware of how complicated the students would think the activity was. Fortunately, it was not the activity that was complicated; it was me that made it complicated. In my lesson planning, I had not written exactly how I wanted the students to be grouped and what the students were going to be doing at each table. In order to correct my mistake, I had to improvise, which I found difficult at first.... Even though I did not put it in my lesson plan to stop and review what the students were doing, I discovered that it

helped. Periodically I would stop the class so students could share with the entire class how they are doing with their experiments. This was also a good time for students to ask any questions they had regarding the activity....

Seasoned veterans take for granted that they will employ instructional decision-making as an expected part of teaching, modifying and changing course as they assess how their students are responding. Novice teachers, however, often feel that lesson plans are contracts that must not be broken, that to change is tantamount to admitting failure as a teacher. The Instructional Decision-Making element of the work sample gives them permission to do what accomplished teachers do: plan to the best of their abilities and then adjust, as their students' needs dictate.

Analysis of Student Learning

Each cadre of teacher-candidates has told us that they felt most unprepared for this element of the R-TWS. While they noted that each of the education professors taught assessment in his/her individual classes, they felt that a separate course that pulled together all of the types of assessments would enhance the elementary education major. Further, they felt totally unprepared for the task of analyzing data. They encountered terms such as “aggregated” and “disaggregated” data, and “analysis” and had no idea what they meant. Their honest feedback has prompted us to examine the elementary education curriculum and develop a course dealing with assessment and data analysis, a subject on the minds of all educators in this standards and assessment-driven era.

With our guidance, our teacher-candidates tackle the ominous task of examining pre-, formative, and post-assessment data for their classes, subgroups within their classes, and individual students. Amanda, having graphed results for her whole class, wrote:

As I compared the pre- and post-assessments, I noticed there was a definite change in the students' knowledge. I am very happy with the results. On the pre-assessment I had only three students at standard. After [the unit] I had all but four students working at the standard or higher. Two of those four under standard dropped to [a score of] one automatically because they did not answer in complete sentences.

Their reasons for choosing subgroups to monitor are different, based upon the composition of their classes. Lindsey, who was interested in gender bias, chose to look at the performance of the girls in her science unit. Gina chose to look at low-performing students, believing that all students can score at standard or above if they are taught according to their strengths and needs. Dawn raised questions about how certain students' comfort with her teaching style might affect their learning, and was pleased to find that these students progressed well. She noted:

Several students either are pulled out or go to a different teacher for the day. Out of the twenty-three students in the room, only fifteen of the students stay in their homeroom the entire day. The other eight go to a second grade teacher or are pulled out for special needs. My concern was that those students whom I did not have all day would have difficulty with the post-assessment. Those eight are not used to my teaching style and methods. It turned out that my teaching style seems not to have played a major role....

The R-TWS further requires that teacher-candidates disaggregate data to analyze one particular student's learning, a student of their choosing. Their reasons for selecting this student have been varied. Dawn focused on an English-as-a-Second-Language

student, while Frankie chose a student who was not labeled for the gifted and talented program, but was high-achieving in the class. Lisa chose an average-achieving child who often exhibited off-task behaviors, while Brian chose a shy child who had made no correct responses on the pre-assessment. Perhaps most revealing about the power of a teacher to make a difference was Amanda's choice:

At first I had a hard time trying to figure out which student I wanted to choose for this part of the assignment. A couple of teachers and I were talking over lunch about one of the students in my class. Repeatedly I was told not to even give him a chance.... I immediately knew this student would be the one for this assignment. When I hear people say that a child is hopeless and won't amount to anything, I make it my main mission to help this child succeed.... At the beginning of my unit...he didn't seem to be motivated or have the least bit of interest in what I was going to teach. His pre-assessment was handed in completely blank. He didn't even number the one side. His post-assessment was drastically different. The front side of the page was filled and he even went onto the back. On his Venn Diagram he had the most written down of anyone in the class.

Reflection and Self-Evaluation

The final element of the R-TWS is Reflection and Evaluation. Because we require much of this type of reflective thinking and writing in the coursework and field experiences that precede the work sample semester, we assumed that this section would pose few problems for the teacher-candidates. We were wrong. Quickly we found that the level of reflection and self-evaluation required of the R-TWS is much higher than that

which we had been cultivating. Our students wrote prolifically and enthusiastically, but seemed only to respond at a surface level, stating that they *found out that they really enjoy teaching*, that the children *really seemed to like the lessons*, that they *would like to teach this unit again*, and so forth. The purpose of the R-TWS is to focus on student learning rather than teacher performance and, repeatedly, the work samples fail to address this fully.

We have also noticed that, when asked to reflect on what did not go well or what they would change, teacher-candidates' responses are somewhat defensive. They point to being given too little time, difficult students, or insufficient materials, rather than looking inward - as teachers must - to see what they could have done with what they had. We suspect that this is not an uncommon response from those who are just entering the overwhelming field of teaching.

The R-TWS asks for two types of reflections that have all but stymied our students: references to extant research on teaching and learning to support their findings, and the identification of a future professional growth plan to support their weaknesses uncovered in the work sample. Having noticed that these reflections were missing from the R-TWS's of the first two cohorts, we directly asked the third cohort why they felt this was so. Their responses were interesting, from a developmental point of view. As novices, they were focused on survival. They acknowledged that all of their professors and texts had anchored practices of teaching in theory; however, what they remembered were the strategies for learning rather than the *who's* and *what's* of the research that had produced them. Difficulties in mapping out a specific professional growth plan also spoke of their survival instinct at this point in their careers. As one student said,

Look, I'm just trying to get through each day at this point. I know that I'm going to need to continue to learn, but I honestly don't know *about what* at this point, much less *where* I could go to learn it. It's just overwhelming right now.

Beth, a teacher-candidate from the third cohort, seemed to approach the type of thinking that this final section requires:

The one thing I wish I had done throughout this experience would have been to keep more anecdotal records. I had my formative assessments, but anecdotal records would have allowed me to recall certain specific examples more easily, and would have given me written documentation of them to include for assessment purposes.... Also, then I would not just have numbers from assessments to share with the reader, but also have stories and personal moments of triumph. I hate to see teaching becoming a numbers competition.... Looking back over the teacher work sample requirements, I found that I did cause learning. The format...caused me to really look at my teaching and my practices. The scores tell me that I was able to improve my students' knowledge of rocks, but they are only scores. There is a whole wealth of information about the students, both whole class and individuals, that cannot be included in this write-up without it turning into a book.... I need to come up with more assessment [strategies] – more varied assessments. When we need a score, or a number, to show improvement and learning, it is hard to come up with creative assessments. This will be my goal and challenge....

The Skeptical View

Implementing the R-TWS has a positive impact on student learning. Previously, teacher candidates measured their own teaching with a quiz or the appearance that the pupils “had fun”. Now their consciousness is raised to think that s/he has not taught until the pupils have learned. With this performance-based evaluation, teacher-candidates become empowered as teachers for the future. However, they spend hours preparing their final copies, generally 20 pages long, in addition to their other student teaching assignments. There are those who question the efficacy of adding more assignments onto an already busy student teaching schedule.

Is the bar too high? While researchers propose the elimination of teacher training programs entirely (Hess, 2001; Imig, 2001), we are requiring even more of our elementary education majors. The Elementary Education Department has been involved in the R-TWS for 2.5 years. We have the hindsight of experience and can look back to see the rough edges in the program and where modifications are needed. The problems we’ve identified over these years focus on the students and the university professors. Regarding the students, three problem areas have surfaced: 1) academic background knowledge and conducting and interpreting assessment data, 2) lack of familiarity with citing research on teaching and learning to support their reflections, and 3) difficulty in projecting how they will pursue their professional development. Regarding the university professors, we continue to struggle with how to evaluate all of the Teacher Work Samples and give feedback within a very short turnaround time in the final days of the semester.

We have begun to try to solve some of these inherent problems. While we couldn’t change our students’ backgrounds of information, we did work closely with our needy

students to improve their own backgrounds. We directed them in practical ways to “fill-in” their personal academic gaps. In order to help the students with assessment, we have proposed a new course for all majors in assessment. This new course should enter in the curriculum in the fall of 2002.

To remedy the pressure of time to evaluate the final Teacher Work Sample from the student teaching semester, we changed the reporting format from written to oral. To effect this remedy, we developed a guideline that closely follows the written R-TWS prompt, and translated it into segments of the R-TWS that would be reported on at specified points along the timeline of the seven-week field placement.

We continue to seek answers to perplexing questions. For example: How can we avoid a compromise of rigor when modifications are dictated by a large number of teacher candidates? One suggestion we have is to start with R-TWS even earlier in the senior year. This needs to be a yearlong project on a par with an honor’s thesis. All of the research for several of the sections could be done in the semester preceding student teaching. Sections could be written and read on an ongoing basis by faculty mentors. Another suggestion is to hire adjunct staff to assist as readers of the R-TWS. While we look to a time when we will have a finalized rubric for students to follow, we do not want the R-TWS to be standardized and carry varying weights. This is especially important during the formative semester (Junior Block) where the R-TWS students need written feedback, not just a rubric.

Partnering with teaching practitioners in the public schools, and collaborating with Arts and Sciences faculty have been vital to the successes we’ve enjoyed thus far. This teamwork has brought us closer to reaching the goal of providing teacher candidates

with an opportunity to practice teaching according to the R-TWS expectations and working with teachers who can model these teaching principles. Classroom teachers work at a frenetic pace to fulfill the requirements of the standards dictated by Departments of Education. We are able to educate them in the expectations of the R-TWS and enlist their support as mentoring teachers by showing them that our goal is not at cross-purposes with theirs. We need to continue this effort and provide further in-service opportunities to assist the teachers in seeing the efficacy of the R-TWS demands.

Closer to home, the thorny issue of resistance to change cannot be ignored. How do we deal with the resistance to change among faculty members? Researchers have sparked conversation on this issue for many years. We know that teachers do change when they become involved in new programs and develop familiarity and ownership of them. Further, we know that teachers are interested in their students' learning. It follows, then, that once skeptical faculty members see the bright side of change: the positive effect upon student learning, the mutual goals of the R-TWS and course objectives, they will work toward change. We anticipate that, over time and with increased opportunities for input, faculty will participate in the process and take ownership.

Summary and Implications

In summary, our experiences implementing R-TWS point to devoted and sometimes frustrated cadres of teacher-candidates, faculty members, student teacher supervisors and cooperating teachers. We faced many stumbling blocks that we tried to work out when they occurred. Each educational environment is different so that there cannot be a program set-in-stone. We make every effort to avoid standardizing the expected outcomes of the R-TWS.

A major step in the direction of successful implementation has been the integration of the R-TWS components across the curriculum of study. As early as freshman year, elementary education majors are working with gathering contextual data. In the first pre-professional field experience, students design instruction that aligns with a school district/state standard, and modify their instruction for individual learner needs. The expectation continually rises as the students move through the program. In the second pre-professional semester, all majors complete selected components of the R-TWS and a small cadre of volunteers writes a complete Work Sample. This equips them for success in the capstone teaching practicum, during which they complete a Work Sample for each of two field placements.

Collaboration among Education faculty, Arts and Sciences faculty, and classroom practitioners, informs our efforts in becoming accountable for the impact of teacher candidates on P-12 pupil learning. This translates to teacher candidate success in their abilities to facilitate the learning of all students. As we continue these collaborations, we learn more about the practicalities of implementing the R-TWS, and its potential. This bar, indeed, is high for teacher-candidates, as we think it should be. With the small numbers of candidates in our pilot program, we have been able to help them clear it. As we expand the R-TWS to all elementary education majors, we will continue to modify and adapt our programs, keeping the high standards of the R-TWS in mind. The answer to the question “Is the bar too high?” will continue to unfold.

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Opening a Conversation About the Use of Miscue Analysis and Student as learner

Steve Trowbridge, Tina Herrington, John Stansell, and Debbie Smith

As reading specialists in teacher education programs from several universities, we have had an ongoing discussion about miscue analysis and the impact it has on pre-service teachers. While searching Ask ERIC on-line for information on the use of miscue analysis in undergraduate teacher education programs, we discovered a sharp decline in the number of articles dealing with this subject. In the decade from 1980-1990, there were 219 citations that had *miscue* as a key word in the title. From 1990-2000, there were only 74 such citations and, of those, only 15 were in journals.

This discovery led us to a discussion on why this might be so. One suggestion was that those who had initially been deeply involved in miscue research had either found what they were looking for or had given up the search. Another thought was that the newness of this avenue of investigation had worn off and researchers had just moved on to new areas of interest. A third suggestion, and this is the one that has moved us to the present conversation, was that those who had been deeply impacted by their encounters with miscue research now believed that it was so entrenched in teacher education courses that there was no need to continue the conversation at the national level.

As professors, in both graduate and undergraduate teacher education programs, we all had epiphanies while working with miscue analysis in our own education programs. We also were not convinced that miscue analysis was being taught in all

undergraduate teacher education programs, or even most. We conducted an unscientific survey of colleagues at other universities and a search of the Internet reading course descriptions, and found that miscue analysis did not seem to be a prominent part of many undergraduate programs. In our own graduate courses we had also encountered teachers returning for master degrees who had never heard of miscue analysis, or if they had it was mentioned as some sort of complicated version of running records.

Spurred on by the dearth of public conversation in journals and the anecdotal data suggesting that miscue analysis has lost prominence in undergraduate programs, we would like to reopen the conversation on using miscue analysis in undergraduate teacher education programs as one way of helping students understand the process of reading.

History

Miscue analysis research begins with the work of Kenneth Goodman in the mid-1960s (Goodman, 1964, 1965). Across almost four decades, studies by Goodman, his colleagues, and others yielded an extensive research base (Allen & Watson, 1976; Brown, Goodman, & Marek, 1994). The use of miscue analysis in teacher education programs also has a lengthy history, dating from the late 1960s as miscue researchers began working to help teachers understand miscue analysis and use the insights it offered. Miscue research had involved use of the Goodman Taxonomy of Reading Miscues (1973, 1976), and the need for a form of miscue analysis that would be more usable by teachers became quickly apparent. Recognition of this need led to the development of the *Reading Miscue Inventory* (RMI)(Goodman & Burke, 1972). The RMI was designed for teachers' use in classroom assessment, and was used extensively for various purposes in undergraduate teacher education classes. As more and more

undergraduate and graduate students were introduced to the RMI, some found that although its use yielded important information and insights, it was also time consuming. Various short forms of the RMI were developed in the following years to provide miscue analysis frameworks that were faster and easier to use (Bean, 1979; Cunningham, 1984; Hood, 1978; Siegel, 1979; Tortelli & 1976). Goodman, Watson, and Burke's *Reading Miscue Inventory: Alternative Procedures* was also published in 1987 to provide three alternative forms of miscue analysis in a single volume that could be chosen depending on the needs and experience of the user. Though miscue analysis has had its critics, who have challenged both its theoretical base (Gough, 1993; Perfetti, 1985; Rieben & Perfetti, 1991; Nicholson, 1991; Stanovich, 1986; Turner & Hoover, 1993) and its psychometric adequacy (Allington, 1984; Leu, 1982)), it became well established as a research instrument and an assessment tool. As the work of miscue researchers began to influence the theoretical understandings of reading professors in the '60s, '70s, and '80s, many of those who taught undergraduates used miscue analysis as a means to introduce their students to reading and reading assessment.

Instructors using miscue analysis in undergraduate reading classes have chosen from the available forms the ones they felt best suited to the knowledge and experience of their students. They have typically required students to tape record the uninterrupted reading and immediate retelling of a complete, authentic selection, and then helped students to learn to use RMI procedures for marking, coding, and analyzing the reader's miscues (substitutions, omissions, insertions, etc). While prerecorded tapes have been used in some cases, the value of students' first hand observation of readers while taping has made this practice less common.

Miscue analysis has been used in a variety of undergraduate reading courses to serve a number of purposes. In reading assessment courses it has been presented as an assessment instrument that offers insights not available from standardized tests or traditional informal reading inventories. In reading methods and language arts courses, students have used the results of miscue analysis to develop strategy lessons (Goodman, Watson, & Burke, 1996) for readers, and to consider curricular and instructional emphases that might best help readers develop effective strategies. In content reading courses, miscue analysis has been used to help students assess the demands of content area textbooks and other instructional materials. But, as indicated by the examples which follow, the primary purpose has been to help students better understand the reading process. Our experiences as instructors who use miscue analysis with our undergraduate students has led us to believe that it continues to serve this purpose very well.

Miscue Analysis at Northeastern Oklahoma University

In the teacher education program at Northeastern Oklahoma University, pre-service teachers are required to take three reading courses: Early Reading, Literacy in the Content Area, and Reading and Writing Assessment. In these courses, students learn how to conduct an RMI as a way to assess readers. All three courses focus on the reading process, yet many students who are in their third reading class, Reading and Writing Assessment, and are still unable to discuss the process.

As a result, students are now asked to go beyond using the RMI as a way to assess students' reading in practicums and internships, but students are administering it to themselves as a way to gain a better understanding of the reading process (Goodman,

Watson, & Burke 1987). During this assignment students write reflections and work in small groups. The group discussions are taped and then transcribed.

As the students worked on their RMI, their knowledge about the reading process began to grow. One area of change is in the terminology they use in discussing the reading process. In the following discussion the students switch from the word “mistake” to “miscue”.

S1: Um, one of the other mistakes that I had made was leaving the word out.

S2: One of mine I noticed that I would just repeat more than anything else.

. . That’s mostly where my mistakes came from, besides pausing a lot.

S1: Why don’t you read us one of your mistakes - not mistakes, one of your miscues?

The word *mistake* has a negative connotation, but miscues are not negative phenomena since they can indicate either strength or weakness on the reader's part. Acknowledging that what readers make are miscues rather than mistakes is an important step toward being able to understand and talk about what readers are doing in relation to the reading process when an error occurs.

One of the biggest shocks that students experience while conducting an RMI on themselves is the fact that they made miscues and that, even with their miscues, they still constructed meaning. The following dialogue is an example of students recognizing that they do make miscues and discovering that meaning can still exist.

S1: But that's what we talked about, you don't realize that you're making miscues when you read.

S4: I didn't really realize how I mess up when I read.

S1: And even though, you make a lot of miscues, did that change what you got from the story? Did you still get the meaning of it?

S4: Yes, I guess that's what was so interesting.

S2: Most of those miscues I never realized I made and I never looked at them.

The same acknowledgment of miscues in students' reading was evident in their final reflections. One student wrote, "When I was reading Maniac McGee, I didn't think I made that many mistakes. But when I listened to my tape I found that I did make miscues and I was surprised." Another student wrote, "After finishing the miscue on myself and working in my group, I realized that nobody reads perfectly. Miscues are what all readers do when they read". In one reflection, a student discovered that she was, in fact, a good reader. "After spending time studying the reading process and conducting a miscue on myself, I have found something that I never really saw before. I am a good reader. By this I don't mean I never made miscues, but that I gain meaning from text in an efficient way." For many students, the discovery that miscues are a natural part of the reading process made it easier for them to see themselves as capable readers.

As students begin to acknowledge that they made miscues, they begin to discuss what they are doing when they read. In the following discussion students continue the conversation about miscues, but this time they learn about the type of miscues and self-corrections they make from their own recorded readings.

S1: But if I read something and then added a word in, it would still made sense, even though it changed a little bit of the meaning of the context. If it still made sense I didn't go back and self-correct or anything on those. But my main ones [miscues] I think were caused because I wanted to get to the end of the story quicker. I want to get to the end and find out what happens. But on the sample and selective reading process that is a little hazy to me, you know what I mean? Um, so I guess I used pragmatic and syntactic cueing systems mostly because it makes sense to me so therefore I leave it and go on.

S3: Well, I made my miscues on substitute words like tone for voice, most of the time they would mean the same thing.

S1: Do you think that's something you just predicted that's what it was going to say, that's what your mind was telling you it was going to say?

In the proceeding discussion the students were no longer concerned about the fact that they had a miscue, but about why they made the miscue. Even though students may be a little "hazy" about the parts of the reading process, it is clear from their discussion that they are gaining an understanding of it.

While discussing their own reading process one group quietly slipped into a discussion about what young readers do when they read.

S3: The main thing a lot of little kids especially use is the shape of words to predict what the word is. You know what I mean? The little girl that I used for my reading miscue inventory said "black" instead of "block." She

said block before, but when she came to it again she said black. But I think it was the shape of it.

S1: I think they [little kids] definitely use cues. I have a boy that I'm tutoring and he'll look at the picture and try to figure out what should go next.

A teacher who can talk about a student's reading process and recognize the strategies the reader may be using, will be able to help her/his students become lifelong readers. Our students are learning to become that teacher in these reflections.

In a final reflection a student wrote, "Doing this (Reading Miscue Inventory) really showed me how I read and how I can begin to understand how others read". Helping students reach this kind of understanding is the goal of this assignment.

Miscue Analysis at the University of Houston - Victoria (UH-V)

First Encounter - Theory and Assessment Course

When students enroll in their first reading course at UH-V, they have not really thought about reading as a process at all. Most of these undergraduates come to their initial reading course believing that reading is a product, not a process.

Their most common definitions are, "Reading is getting meaning from what is on the page." or "Reading is what happens after a series of skills or strategies are employed to 'break the code'". Since students have a narrow definition of reading, the programmatic question is, "How do we help our pre-service teachers come to understand that reading is everything that takes place leading up to, and including, comprehension?" At UH-V, miscue analysis seems to help.

In the Theory and Assessment class, students are required to prepare a case study on one student. This is done with a partner to allow for discussion. The case study involves using the Ekwall/Shanker Reading Inventory (Shanker & Ekwall, 2000) to find approximate reading levels, and a Reading Miscue Inventory, alternative III (Goodman, Watson & Burke, 1987). They must discuss their student's strategies, making specific references to results from both instruments to support their thinking.

This exercise seems to be a significant one for most students. They come away with changed expectations for their students and with an enhanced appreciation for reading as a process. The best way to illustrate this may be talking through one pair's case study.

Brian

Two undergraduates in this course chose a student we will call Brian. The third grader chose this name for himself. Brian was selected for the case study because there seemed to be some confusion about him and his abilities at school. He was in the lowest reading group (1st and 2nd grade materials) based on his performance on an informal reading inventory given by his school for placement. He also poked, pinched, and pulled other children's hair. He was a problem in class.

One of the pair of undergraduate students had been observing in Brian's class for some time, and was often asked to take Brian for one-on-one instruction. She thought that Brian seemed to function at a higher level than was suggested by his behavior in class. For this reason, she selected Brian for the case study.

On the Graded Word List (GWL), Brian missed no words until the eighth word of the fourth grade. After that, he made little in the way of attempts to read any words at all. This placed him at the frustration level of fourth grade on the GWL.

On the reading passages, Brian reached the frustration level on the third grade oral passage read, but did not reach the silent reading frustration level until the fifth grade passage. He reached the frustration level in listening at sixth grade. The pre-service teachers selected a third grade story for Brian to read as part of the Reading Miscue Inventory.

Of the approximately 650 words in the story, Brian had 173 miscues, the majority of which were insertions, substitutions and repetitions. At the sentence level, Brian had story changing miscues (either partially changing the story or significantly changing the story) in 45% of the sentences. His fluency was poor and he had significant pauses in several places. Yet when Brian retold the story he scored 86 out of 100 points on the rubric prepared prior to the assessment. He was able to articulate the plot and theme statements as well as recall most details and characters. Also, when Brian made miscues, they were grapho-phonically similar 94% of the time (76% high similarity; 18% some similarity). 30 of his miscues were self-corrected.

The important part of the RMI, for the students, was their analysis of the findings. Statements such as “His reading was hindered by the overuse of grapho/phonic cues. This strategy is not helping him because he does not appear to confirm his predictions.” shows a firm understanding of reading as a process. Another statement illustrating the pre-service teachers’ deepening understanding is, “Brian gets the ‘big Picture’ even though his oral reproduction does not show evidence of the fact.”

It is these deeper understandings of the reading process that makes miscue analysis so necessary for pre-service teacher programs. The change from “reading is breaking the code” to understandings of the multi-strategic nature of reading, and the realization of a need to look at more than one aspect of a student's reading before making decisions are vital for beginning teachers.

End of Program - Language Arts

Pre-service students enrolled in their final reading course at UH-V find themselves working with students fifty percent of the semester as part of a professional development school. This field-based opportunity allows the pre-service teachers to be actively engaged in a variety of activities. The pre-service students are observed working with individuals, small groups, and whole classes of students. The pre-service teachers are required to use the various modes of language arts instruction to construct two forty five minute lessons that are observed and critiqued by the University supervisor. In addition, students are trained in the administration of the various state mandated reading inventories and are often allowed the opportunity to administer the assessments as part of their experiences in the field.

All school districts in the state of Texas are required to administer an early reading diagnostic instrument for students in grades kindergarten, grade 1 and grade 2 according to Texas Education Code 28.006. The requirement of an early reading assessment is a result of the passage of House Bill 107 by the 75th Texas Legislature in May 1997. The state does not mandate a specific instrument for early reading assessment; however, the Commissioner of Education provides a list of recommended instruments. The results of this assessment do not become a part of the accountability ratings for

individual districts, though the results are reported to the parents, superintendents, school boards and the Commissioner. The Texas Primary Reading Inventory (TPRI) has currently been adopted by over 90% of the school districts in the state. The elementary schools that participate in the UH-V professional development school have all adopted the TPRI and have received intensive training in its administration and interpretation. Therefore, all students who have completed the UH-V program have experienced the RMI, Ekwall/Shanker, TPRI and various other informal assessment devices.

The TPRI measures accuracy and fluency by counting errors on the oral reading of a passage and the number of words read per minute. The total number of errors is equated directly to the students reading level as independent, instructional, or frustrational. Pre-service teachers at UH-V who have been trained in RMI have made many meaningful observations when administering the TPRI about the types of errors made by the student. The following statement taken from a student's journal is reflective of how our pre-service teachers see the TPRI in light of their miscue training.

The TPRI seems to be a fairly fast reading assessment. However, it focuses only on the number of errors that are made. There is no evaluation of what type of errors were made. In miscue analysis each error or miscue is evaluated. Each miscue does not carry the same weight, as it does in the TPRI. I think miscue analysis, while more time consuming, is a better overall assessment tool.

Students who have completed the undergraduate program at the University of Houston - Victoria have experienced both the Reading Miscue Inventory and the Texas Primary Reading Inventory. It is our belief that our graduates will observe children's

reading with a deeper understanding of the reading process and that this understanding will positively impact their daily decisions as classroom teachers.

Conclusion

In our experience, miscue analysis has been a very valuable means of helping students build their understanding of the reading process, of curriculum and instruction that reflects this process, and of themselves as readers. It has also been an important tool for prospective teachers for assessment, and for thinking critically about other assessment instruments and procedures that are available and whether they offer the kind of information that reflects the complexity of the reading process. Since our informal investigation has suggested that it is not as prominent as it may once have been in undergraduate reading courses, we have attempted to reopen the conversation about miscue analysis and its role in literacy teacher education. Now, we invite readers to join us and share their experiences and insights. We believe this renewed conversation will offer much to our profession and to those it serves.

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Creating Games as Reader Response and Comprehension Assessment

Constance Ulmer, Mary Timothy, Lynne Bercaw, Susan Gilbert, Jody Holleman and Mari Hunting

The definitions of “reading” and “reading comprehension” have moved beyond mere explicit recall, word recognition, and mastery of phonemic decoding. The definitions now include—or perhaps are even replaced by—the dynamic, reciprocal interactions among reader, text, and the context of the reader’s prior literacy schema. No longer is the quiet, private, solipsistic model of the reading process adequate; the new model, rather, is that reading is an interactive and complex process. The process through which the dynamic interaction of the reader’s background knowledge, the information inferred by the written language, and the reading situation context (Dutcher, 1990) is constructing meaning. This new, more divergent definition of reading requires that it be accompanied by what has come to be known as *authentic assessment*. Such a new assessment model should be characterized by the following: 1) It should address the reader’s cognitive ability to construct meaning out of what is implied in the text, 2) it should assist in developing reading fluency, skills, and strategies, and 3) it should honor both the reader’s literacy context and ability to make cognitive and affective leaps based on a synthesis of old and new information (Wiggins, 1990).

Authentic assessment may be best defined as the “direct examination of student performance on worthy, intellectual tasks” (Wiggins, 1990). In light of this definition, whose key word is “worthy,” the traditional, empirically-based formal skills-testing used for reading comprehension ceases to be a valid instrument for measuring so complex and

robust a process as is currently recognized to be the case. Further, O'Neal (1991) notes that the traditional, "imperfect" reading comprehension testing instruments are misleading in that they offer little in the way of assessing inferential, critical thinking, or of the reader's affective responses.

Because the reading process cannot be directly observed, Powell (1989) stated, "all scores or data produced by tests of reading are *indirect* measures of the reading process"(p.1). The challenge, then, is to create authentic, holistic reading comprehension assessments, a task which has historically been in the purview of researchers, reading experts, cognitive psychologists, and educators. It is teachers in particular who are taking a more assertive role in creating authentic evaluation methods that, in turn, address the particular needs of their students (Shapiro & Kilbey, 1990; Stern & Shavelson, 1981). Given the greater individual teacher role, students have greater opportunity to demonstrate what they have actually learned (as opposed to their ability to fit imposed descriptors), while teachers can monitor and adjust their instruction accordingly.

A recurring criticism of authentic assessment is aimed at its subjectivity, calling into question its validity and reliability. Wiggins (1990) responds to this criticism this way:

Genuine accountability does not avoid human judgment. Training sessions, model performances used as exemplars, audit and oversight policies, as well as such basic procedures as having disinterested judges review students' work "blind" occur routinely throughout the professional, athletic, and artistic worlds in the judging of performance. (p.4)

Extrapolating such accepted practices to the realm of reading and reading comprehension should require no extraordinary leap of faith, despite the common criticism of “subjectivity.”

Reader Response Theory

Of the enormous collection of alternatives to the assessment of reading comprehension, reader response theory has made a profound impact on the vast corpus of assessment tools in the past three decades. Based on the literary theory of Rosenblatt (1995), reader response theory emphasizes a reciprocal relationship between the reader and the text. The reader brings his or her cultural background and socialization to the text. The meaning, therefore, that the reader creates from the text is synthesized with the text and the life context the reader brings to text (Rosenblatt, 1991). This differs in contrast to the “communication model” where the reader attempts to decipher the message conveyed by the author (Many & Wiseman, 1992).

The reader response theory first emerged with Rosenblatt’s literary theory in *Literature as Exploration*, (first edition 1938). Rosenblatt emphasized not only the transaction theory between reader and text as a way to view the reading process, but how reader response theory influences the teaching of reading and literature (Many & Wiseman, 1992). Rosenblatt describes two *stances* toward reading: efferent and aesthetic (Rosenblatt, 1991). Rosenblatt (1991) found that a reader takes an efferent stance when the goal of reading is to gain information from the text (e.g. textbooks, newspapers, reference materials, etc.). She and others contend that when responding to text, an aesthetic stance is appropriate where the reader participates in the experience created through the personal transaction with the text (Many & Wiseman, 1992; Rosenblatt,

1991). Further, the aesthetic stance results in the personal, experiential aspects of meaning.

Various studies support Rosenblatt's emphasis on the aesthetic response to literature (Cox & Many, 1992; Hickman, 1983; Many, 1990). Many (1990) studied upper elementary grades and middle graders' responses to literature and found that the level of understanding when students' responded aesthetically were significantly higher than when they responded with efferent responses.

Games As a Reader Response

In *The Significance of Rosenblatt on the Field of Teaching Literature*, Church (1997) states "...during any one reading experience readers may shift back and forth along a continuum between efferent and aesthetic modes of the reading processing" (p. 72). It is often during the shifting (transaction) from these two stances that readers began to acquire knowledge. Thus assessment of reading comprehension becomes quite complex and both stances must be inclusive in the assessment process.

Alternative assessment studies such as retellings, have introduced the changes in research to consider both stances (Irwin, & Mitchell, 1983, Feathers, & White, 1985, Ulmer, 1992.). Reader response theories indicate that both a communicative and a personal response approach to reading is the intention of the tasks assigned to learners (Hirvela, 1996), making the learners active participants in the reading process. The interactions that occur during the reading process involve both the efferent and aesthetic modes of learning. Assessing reader responses through activities that help activate learning is imperative if evaluating both modes of reader response theory (efferent and aesthetic), which includes all three parameters of the reading process (textual, affective,

and cognitive).

Creating and playing games (as a form of reader responses activities) has been used to assess comprehension. They have often been used to assess the efferent modes of learning (textual differencing, recall of text, and memory). These studies considered the ‘text’ the focus of learning. (Curtner-Smith, 1996; Pride, Pride, Outman, & Iddings, 1999; Graham, & Williams, 2001). Other studies considered Vygotskian features of development important, relating the social cultural aspects with learning. These studies considered the “reader’ the focus of learning, the aesthetic modes of learning in their research.

Games promote active, student-centered learning, motivation, cooperation and social learning, and reduce risk of failure (Davis & Hollowell, 1977). Early studies using games rarely addressed content, but related games to the social aspects of the interactions occurring between players while playing. Some of the newer studies also follow this trend.

Brisk (1974) offered a seminar course at the University of Mexico where students created games during the entire seminar (various majors). Games were their only motivation and teaching strategy for the course. Students were to create games based on some concept presented in their discipline through lectures or reading. The instructions Brisk gave were “games should be entertaining, based on reality, relevant to a social situation and predictive – i.e., oriented the ‘the near future’” (p. 91). Their colleagues had to be able to play the games during a one to two hour session. Even though Brisk did not evaluate the games thoroughly, he indicated that when students were engaged, they all seemed to be relating on different levels of the reading parameters (affective, cognitive,

and textual) (Feathers, 1981). Brisk (1974) concluded that constructing games were the stimulus students needed to do necessary work demanding their creative scholarship approaching serious deductive reasoning.

Much of the research on games is related to playing games or gaming (not creating games). Gaming is the manipulation of the games. These studies suggest that handling or playing the games enhances problem solving, critical thinking, recall of text, memory, and vocabulary, (Gaudart, 1999; Graham, & Williams, 2001). Fernie, (1988) believes, games such as checkers teach offensive and defensive alternatives that can intellectually motivate children. Most of these behaviors relate to textual and cognitive parameters of learning. Some of the newer studies using games focus on the construction of games by students as a learning tool. These address affective as well as textual and cognitive parameters in the learning process.

Playing games is only part of the learning process and comprehensive assessment is therefore difficult. Creating games allows for higher levels of thinking and more personal responses (affective parameter) to what is being learned. Domke (1991) and Spiegel (1990) found it important to create games for the students, but having students create their own games is equally important if learning is an active process. In creating games, children negotiate the rules in which they wish to play the games (King, 1986). Creating games teaches reasoning strategies and skills. Berrenberg (1991) states:

It is generally assumed that students learn and retain more when they are actively and personally involved with the course material... relatively few examination procedures incorporate this active approach. (p. 168)

Berrenberg says her students enjoyed creating the games and they said they learned more that way.

Research on games and gaming mostly focus on cognitive and textual engagements in the reading process, but there is still a need to further evaluate the affective engagements during the reading process. The aesthetic stance of reading connects the schema of processing (while reading) to the schema of producing (after reading). All aspects of reading (cognitive, affective, and textual) address both stances and; therefore, should be considered during assessment.

Methodology

Qualitative and quantitative research methods were chosen to explore the issues of creating games as an alternative assessment of reading comprehension in reader response. According to Bogden and Biklin (1998), "If you want to understand the way people think about their world and how those definitions are formed you need to get close to them, to hear them talk, and observe them in their day-to-day lives" (p.32). Qualitative allowed the researchers to approach the setting and participants without a predetermined hypothesis. Theory emerged from the data. This research focused on creating games as a reader response to assess reading comprehension.

Triangulation is an important part of qualitative research because it gives credibility to the data. Triangulation of sources is locating similar information from various sources and using similar analysis to confirm findings in the data. This was accomplished by having 5 raters cross-analyzing each of his or her findings.

Patton (1990) places the obligation on the researchers to be methodical in presenting sufficient details of data collection and the process used in analysis so others

can judge the quality of the product: validity is the credibility of the study and the reliability is the dependability of the research.

Prior to examining the games created by the 17 groups of preservice teachers, the 5 raters developed a Likert Scale for evaluating the games looking at textual, cognitive, and affective parameters. The 5 raters individually analyzed and rated each game looking at the three parameters. The raters then met as a group to compare findings. The validity of the study showed all of the games created produced the three parameters. The validity was shown when the individual ratings were compared and the numbers were consistent among the raters.

Participants

Ninety preservice teachers enrolled in their first educational course participated in this study. The preservice teachers represented a variety of majors and grade levels. The books used for the reading responses were children's books.

Procedure

The students (preservice teachers), in a workshop prior to field placement, organized themselves into 17 groups. The workshops presented reading strategies, alternative assessments, and observations, followed by open discussions. The students were asked to divide themselves into groups of 5 or 6 and create a game related to one of the four books book presented in the workshops or one from four alternative books. Students were told to create a game related to the book. The one requirement was that the game had to be functional for children to play; therefore, directions were to be included. No other directions were given. Supplies were available for the students to use to create their games. When the games were completed, they were asked to write a brief reflection

about how they felt creating a game. Students were given one class period (50 minutes) to accomplish the assignment.

Data Analysis

Initial analysis showed in part what we expected: students' textual responses to the literature were represented the most in the games while their cognitive responses were represented the least. The games were first submitted to qualitative content analysis then quantified for each reading parameter to produce tables. Five members of the research team individually examined each game through the lens of textual, affective, and cognitive parameters, using a holistic rubric based on the principles of a Likert scale (0-5 likert scale – 0 not indicated in the game, 5 highly present). For example in B10's game rating, the research team's individual scores in textual were 5,5,5, 5, and 5; affective were 0,5,1,0, and 3; and cognitive were 2, 5, 3, 2, and 4. The researchers rated the game highly textual and little affective. In B7's game, the researchers agreed that the affective parameter was stronger. Those individual scores were: textual 3,3,2,3, and 2; cognitive 4,5,1,3, and 0; affective 3,4,3,4, and 4.

After individual ratings, the research team shared the scores (0-5) for each of the three parameters within each game. When there was a discrepancy between raters (e.g. 0 & 5), there was discussion of the rubric and the criterion upon which scores were based, until agreement was reached. Finally the scores were averaged for an overall for each parameter for each game. For example, Game B-10 received individual scores in the Cognitive Parameter of 2,5,3,2, and 4. These scores were averaged to give a 3.2 overall rating of Cognitive Parameter.

The total scores for each parameter were then analyzed. The Cognitive Parameter

score for each of the 17 games totaled 38.8 out of a total of 85 points (5 points possible for each of 17 games). The total for the Affective Parameter is 43.4, and the total for the Textual Parameter was 55.2.

We also assessed whether the games were predominantly class activities (didactic in nature) or if they were purely games (enjoyment without didactic components). Nine of the games were identified as class activities while 8 of the games were identified as “games”.

Results

The cognitive score for each of the 17 games totaled 38.8 (45%) out of a total of 85 points (5 points possible for each of the 17 games)(See Appendix A). The total for the affective parameter was 43.4 (51%) and the total for textual parameter was 55.2 (65%). Textual information rated the highest while cognitive was close behind affective. The researchers felt that affective rated higher than cognitive because students brought their own voices to the games they created. The games were also assessed to determine whether they were predominantly class activities (didactic in nature) or whether they were truly games (enjoyment without didactic components). Nine of the games were identified as class activities, while eight of the games were identified as games with winners and losers between players. The distinction between class activities and games indicates that preservice teachers did not fully understand the “gaming process.”

Discussion and Conclusion

The importance of these findings relate to what we teach in schools and how we evaluate what students are learning. Traditional assessment of reading comprehension has been empirically based on formal skills-testing, which can be misleading to teachers.

Having students create games as a form of assessment allows teachers to see how students are interacting with written text by what is demonstrated in the game. We have often heard it said that games are for children, but with the increase of computer and technology as “text” in the 21st century, the definition and evaluation of comprehension changes. Reading constantly involves interactions with text. Creating games lets students demonstrate what they learned from written text. By creating games as assessment tools, students (younger and older) are making meaning as they search and create questions and even find destinations to answer questions. This in turn creates new questions to ask.

Creating games goes beyond the who, what, when, and where. Students negotiate, evaluate, critique, plan, act, interpret, and postulate while reading and writing at the same time. Even though nine of the seventeen games were creative activities the other eight were games. In those games, as well as the activities, we did see all three parameters (textual, affective, cognitive) present, even though there were no significant differences, except textual being the highest.

Games were found to be useful as an assessment tool as well as an effective teaching strategy and learning instrument. The games indicated high levels of affective, cognitive, and textual parameters. Games encouraged collaboration, improved retention, promoted student interest, facilitated higher cognitive skills, allowed for effective problem solving, provided direct applications of knowledge, helped students synthesize information, and made students into decision makers.

When looking at cognitive (analyzing and synthesizing), affective (creativity and student voice), and textual (factual information) parameters found in reader responses, preservice teachers included textual information as evidenced in their games; however,

they varied in the cognitive and affective measures. Using games is a more authentic form of assessment of reading comprehension than other traditional forms of assessment. Basal text questions (based on traditional standardized test measures) are restricted in that they only ask certain, explicit information pertaining to the text. The non-traditional, play-based creation of games allows all levels of comprehension to be incorporated thus less restrictive on what is being learned.

From our findings we contend that there is value in creating games as a form of assessment for various levels of comprehension but very few teachers benefit from this knowledge. Why the hesitations to use games in more classrooms? A few conclusions could be drawn: 1. teachers are afraid to deviate from the traditional forms of assessment, 2. teachers' expectations of what is to be learned must adhere to specific textual information, or 3) there is not enough time to have students create and play games and then develop a formula for evaluation. Any or all of the conclusions can be true for various reasons. Using games as evaluations or assessments in the classroom is radical and risky. Brisk (1974), Berrenberg, (1991), and Gaudart (1999) all agree, but they believe it is worth the risk, because the results were surprising and revealing as suggested in this study. Gaudart reacts to the risk of using games as a new technique in his conclusion. According to Gaudart (1999):

It is sad, therefore that techniques that can so effectively motivate learners are introduced into classes with a great deal of fear and trepidation. Simulation and games are techniques that have been sidelined for a very long time, and I have spent 20 years trying to get teachers to use the techniques in their classrooms. (p. 289)

He concludes that teachers teach the way they learned.

The authors in this study conclude that the games created by the preservice teachers indicated their higher level of comprehension through the inclusion of cognitive and affective parameters moving beyond textual information often measured. However, more education is needed to get teachers and preservice teachers to see the value of creating games in the classroom as assessment instruments and possibly teaching strategies.

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Table 1: Content Analysis for Protocols of Games

Games	Cognitive	Affective	Textual	Games	Class Activity
B1	4	3.6	2.4		X
B2	2.2	3	4.8	X	
B3	1.2	.4	5	X	
B4	2.2	2.4	4	X	
B5	1.6	3	.8	X	X
B6	3.8	3.4	4.6		
B7	2.6	3.6	2.6	X	
B8	.6	1.4	2.2	X	
B9	3	2.8	3.2	X	X
B10	3.2	1.8	5	X	X
B11	.8	2.6	1.6		X
B12	1.8	2.8	3		X
B13	3.8	2.8	3.6		X
B14	.8	2	4.4		X
B15	1.6	2	2.6		X
B16	4	3.4	3.4		X
B17	1.6	2.4	2		X
Total	38.8	43.4	55.2	8	9
Average	2.28	2.55	3.24	47%	52%

** Ratings were based on 0-5 points. 5 containing highest indication of parameter.

HIGH TECH - HIGH TOUCH:

Using Technology to Foster Meaningful Intergenerational Literacy Connections

Ray Wolpow, Sue Neff and Greg Neff

In the not too distant past, educators helped their students meet specific curricular objectives by assigning writing tasks with the teacher as the audience. In a landmark large-scale study of writing in the secondary school, Applebee (1981) found that less than 12 % of all student writing was addressed to someone other than the teacher. Even when students are asked by their assignment to “imagine” writing for a particular audience, they still perceive their audience to be their teacher (p.78-82). This reality is problematic because, as Elbow (1981) explains, “Teachers are not the real audience. You don’t write to teachers, you write for them” (p.220).

Subsequent to these findings, the International Reading Association and the National Council of Teachers of English (1996) established and defined standards for “what students should learn in the English language arts-reading, writing, listening, speaking, viewing, and visually presenting” (p.1). These standards suggest students need to “communicate effectively with different audiences and for a variety of purposes,” to “use a variety of technological and informational resources...to gather...synthesize...create and communicate knowledge,” and to “develop an understanding of and respect for diversity in language use, patterns, and dialects across cultures, [and] ethnic groups...”(p.3). Hence, teachers of reading and writing sought diverse and authentic audiences for

their students. An authentic audience is one with a need for the information or insights that the writer possesses as well the potential to provide replies with meaningful responses for that writer (Bateman & Benson, 1999). Limited by the homogenous demographic population in most school buildings, educators turned to correspondence as a means to secure authentic audiences for their students' writing and reading.

Correspondence is a fairly common activity in the school environment. To the chagrin of most teachers, students write, pass and read notes incessantly. On fewer but more highly structured occasions, students write letters of application, complaint, persuasion, thanks and apology. Pre-service teachers will soon be expected to write letters of recommendation, lesson plans and worksheets, report card comments, letters to parents, and the occasional school board presentation. Hence, educators of both pre-service teachers and k-12 students seek opportunities for their students to correspond with others. Some examples of this include, but are not limited to, dialogue journals (Staton, Shuy, Peyton & Reed, 1988), and collaborative responses to literature (Brockington & Burcham, 1998; Laine & Karpanty, 2000; McQuail, 1995; Shimkin, 1993).

The advent of electronic mail enables students and teachers to cross over new regional and intergenerational lines. For example, Pirrone (1998) and McClanahan (2001) had students communicating with distant peers (across and between continents, respectively), giving and receiving information about their lives as well as about what they were reading and writing. Others made the most of opportunities possible through "near-peer" correspondence, a term coined by

Niday and Campbell (2000) who name the commonalities inherent in correspondence between middle school students who were, “in the middle” and pre-service teachers “nearing the end of their student identity but not yet viewing themselves as teachers” (p.55).

From amongst the burgeoning literature of educational e-mail correspondence are studies of bridges built between cultures and generations, many connected for a first time via the Internet (Britsch and Berkson, 1997; Christian, 1997; Schoorman and Camarillo, 2000). This manuscript adds descriptions of two pilot programs, each of which uses e-mail and videoconferencing correspondence to meet literacy standards while fostering meaningful intergenerational literacy connections. In the first pilot, a 6th grade student and her classmates correspond and meet a survivor of the Holocaust via the Internet; in the second, two groups of “near-peers” correspond and meet via the Internet to learn about improving reading and writing in a letter and essay exchange.

Correspondents’ Backgrounds and Settings

Manson Elementary and Manson Secondary School

Manson, a small school district serving 700 students of the rural Manson community of 3, 248 members, is nestled on the shores of Lake Chelan and amongst the Cascade Mountains in North Central Washington. For many years owner-operated apple farms provided the major source of income for this community. Itinerant workers came only for the harvest. In the early 1990’s, large crops and an abundance of work attracted new immigrant families, many of

whom were poor, had little formal education, and spoke little or no English.

Manson soon became one of sixteen minority/majority school districts in Washington State with 56% Hispanic students. 76% of Manson's students qualified for free or reduced lunch.

Acknowledging the consequent need for professional development Manson supports staff attendance at the Centro Bilingue in Cuernavaca, Mexico where they learn Spanish and develop an appreciation for students' culture and background. Recognizing Manson's potentially isolating location and the reality that most of their students' families have never stepped foot on a college campus, the Manson School District secured a Department of Education Federal Innovative Technology Challenge Grant, funding from which has resulted in "state-of-the-art" Internet access including pods of personal computer stations in each classroom and a fully interactive video system between their secondary school, four contiguous districts, and institutions of higher education (<http://www.cc5.org/>). Manson faculty's desire to utilize this network to expand their students' provisional view of community, specifically to include those who live in urban settings, attend college, and are of differing religious upbringings, made Manson an excellent candidate for these pilots.

Woodring College of Education, Western Washington University (WWU)

WWU is one of six state-funded, four-year institutions of higher education in Washington State. Situated in Bellingham, a city of 67,000, WWU is 90 miles

north of Seattle and 55 miles south of Vancouver, B.C.. Fall 2001 enrollment included 12,409 full- and part-time students, 93 percent of whom come from Washington with more than half coming from the urban South Puget Sound area. Despite having students from 46 other states and 40 other nations, Western's 1999 total ethnic-minority population was 1,623 students, only 13.2 percent of the total student body. This number is, however, more than double the number enrolled in the spring of 1991 reflecting the efforts of administration and faculty to attract greater diversity to its campus. The Woodring College of Education is among the oldest and largest established teacher preparation programs in Washington, and like the University as a whole, has goals to incorporate strategies and processes to: (a) integrate diversity throughout the curricula and field experiences of its students; and (b) attract an increasingly diverse faculty, staff and student population; and diversify the knowledge, skills, and attitude bases of individual members of the college. Western's desire to seek diverse learning experiences, its "A+" rating as a "most wired campus," and the resources available through its Northwest Center for Holocaust Education (<http://www.wce.wvu.edu/nwche/>), made it an excellent candidate for these two pilots.

The Holocaust Resource Center of Temple Judea of Manhasset

The Holocaust Resource Center of Temple Judea of Manhasset was established in 1995 with the expressed mission "to educate young and old on the evils of prejudice, to teach the lessons of the Holocaust and to combat ignorance, bigotry, hatred and violence." Located in the town of Manhasset, one of the oldest communities on Long Island, the Holocaust Resource Center is fourteen

miles east of Manhattan, New York City, and enjoys established relationships with numerous Nassau County public schools as well as with the school of education of the C.W. Post campus of Long Island University (<http://eev.liu.edu/EEvillage/HolocaustReCtr/Holopics.htm>). One of the Center's unique educational programs is its "Adopt A Survivor Program," coordinated by Center Director, Irving Roth, who is himself a survivor of the Auschwitz and Buchenwald death camps. This program's expressed aim is to "preserve and perpetuate the soul and spirit of Shoah [Holocaust] survivors" by pairing members of a cadre of survivors with secondary and university students so these young people may "adopt" their survivor. An implicit goal is that the student adopters be able to recount and perpetuate their survivor's memories to their peers, children and grandchildren. The Center wants to have this in place no later than the year 2045, the 100th anniversary of the liberation of the last death camp and a time when survivors of the Holocaust will most likely no longer exist. Creation and archival of correspondence, artwork, poetry and verse for the purpose of future recounting are key components of "getting to know" one's adoptee. Hundreds of students from the New York Metropolitan area have participated in this program since its inception. The desire to have a survivor adopted in a remote area where there were few Jews and no survivors available and the accessibility of Internet and videoconferencing facilities through Long Island University made this pilot program attractive to the Holocaust Resource Center.

The Pilot Projects

Adopting a Survivor

The students in Mr. Neff's self-contained sixth-grade class read from a wide range of grade-appropriate literature each year. Overarching and interwoven themes including the power of hope, the dignity of life, the ways that human character can be manipulated by fear, celebration of diversity, and the need to learn from history in order to make a better future, are addressed each day. Some of these readings attempt to shine light onto the dark times in some of humankind's most tragic stories, such as the suffering of American slaves, the pains imposed upon soldiers in war, the mistreatment of Native Americans, and the atrocious fate of millions of Jews, Gypsies, and others during the Holocaust.

When learning about the Holocaust, Neff's students read Lois Lowery's Number the Stars, Isabella Leitner's The Big Lie, and Claire Huchet Bishop's Twenty and Ten. Neff observed that the majority of his students had trouble imagining what life must have been like in Europe in the 1930's, not to mention the complex and horrific events of the Holocaust itself. To address these concerns, Neff utilized metacognitive scripting (Roehler and Duffy, 1991), facilitated discussions, and guided students through viewings of videos like "Miracle at Midnight." He also encouraged students to focus on the messages of hope and survival imbedded in the biographies they read. (Biography, as a genre of literature, is included in the 6th grade benchmarks of Washington's Essential Academic Learning standards.)

It was at this point, during the winter of 2001 school year, that the opportunity to adopt a survivor was brought to Mr. Neff's class. In preparation

Neff had a guest speaker from Western Washington University's Northwest Center for Holocaust Education come to class to answer questions. For many of Neff's students this was the first time they met someone who was Jewish. Many questions focused upon Jewish religious practice and terminology found in their readings that were foreign to students. One sixth-grader, Kirsten, was selected to be the class ambassador. During the months of February and March, she exchanged nearly a letter each week with Survivor Irving Roth in Manhasset. Her first letter was introductory in nature. Kirsten told Roth about her family and the community in which she lived. She also told him about her interest in the Holocaust, of what she had read, and her feelings about this horrible time in history.

Mr. Roth responded in kind, telling her about himself and his family. His response included information about the death of his brother in Bergen Belzen as well as other related information. Kirsten shared parts of this letter with her classmates. As she read its content they listened with the greatest of absorption and interest. Students soon generated questions they wanted Mr. Roth to answer. As fate would have it, before she could write a response tragedy struck the small town of Manson. The ice cracked from under two boys playing on Roses' Lake. Both drowned. Kirsten shared this information in her next letter, along with three questions generated by her classmates:

1. Do you hate the Nazis for doing that to you?
2. What kept you from losing your mind in the camps?

3. What happened to you after you were freed from
Auschwitz before you got to America?

(e-mail of January 18, 2001)

Mr. Roth responded to the news of Kirsten's loss of two schoolmates with the compassion that only a grandfather who had survived great suffering himself could offer. He then answered her questions.

At Manson Elementary, Mr. Neff's students asked their teacher several times each day to check his computer to determine if a response had yet been received. When it arrived students read and studied each word carefully and were anxious to help Kirsten draft her response to this letter and the others that followed.

Kirsten communicated questions and answers for classmates in each of her letters; however, a great deal of her correspondence with Mr. Roth was also personal. Often she would seek teacher help with editing of conventions. Other times she simply wrote and clicked "send." For example:

I was reading Children of the Holocaust and World War 2:
Their Secret Diaries. I was quite surprised that in spite of
the danger so many children wrote diaries. The last story, if
you want to call it that even though it was not a story, I
found very moving. It was a young boys diary. His little
sister had copied a few of her own entries into. What struck
me the most was the rations of food they had. They only
got 33oz. of bread, and soup witch was three little pieces of
potato and a little flour mixed in with water. It doesn't say

how old the boy was, but I have an older brother and that would not feed him. The little girl was 12, my age, and that would be no where near enough for me. This time was unbelievable. I never would have lived, I would have said something or done something and gotten my self killed. How do you live with the pain of this happening to you and your family?

We've recently learned about Jewish people placing money in Switzerland's bank. This was done, we think, to keep money out of the Nazi's hands and to have money after WW II. Do you know of people who placed large or small sums of money in neutral Swiss banks. I do not think 1.4 billion dollars is enough to repay the years of stress and turmoil.

(e-mail of March 6, 2001)

Later that month, with her teacher, Mr. Neff, at her side, Kirsten was introduced, via video link, to Mr. Roth. In preparation for this occasion Kirsten wrote a poem to share with her adoptee. Although Kirsten and her classmates had prepared numerous questions, Kirsten relied on her teacher to do most of the talking. For these reasons she sent the following message:

Dear Mr. Irving Roth,

It was nice to finally meet you. Both Mr. Neff and I look forward to seeing you again on April 10. We have more

questions for you. Maybe I won't be as shy and actually speak. (I will most likely fail!) I'm very shy, and need to get over it.

We will be in spring break next week so I will not be able to correspond with you.

You asked to have my poem so I'm sending it to you.

Living in an attic,
Peeking out the window,
Watching the birds fly by.
They are free,
I am not.
I wish I was a bird.
I would fly out the window,
And above the Nazis below.
I would laugh at them.
I'd soar above the tree tops.
Then I would be free.
But I am not.
I'm locked in an attic above a barn.
Eating small amounts of food.
Starving.
Nothings clean.
Clothes are dirty and too small.

No bathroom.
Everything is unclean.
Living with mice and bats,
And with the fear of being found.
What I would do to be a bird.
Soaring high above the clouds.
Free...
Free once more!

Sincerely,

Kirsten

(e-mail, March 26, 2001)

In the weeks that followed, Kirsten met several times with her adoptee. During three subsequent sessions in May and June Kirsten introduced her entire class to their adoptee. Each session allowed students to personally ask questions and listen as they watched Mr. Roth recount his memories. Their teacher had each student keep a journal registering their perceptions. These journals contained understandings in the form of art and poetry. Mr. Roth shared Kirsten's poem in several of his subsequent speaking engagements. Student poetry and artwork were published in the area's regional newspaper.

Letter and Essay Exchange Program

The twenty-three students in Mrs. Neff's 7th grade class had skills and backgrounds that varied widely. Spanish was the primary language for nearly as many students as English. Some students had older brothers and sisters attending

major universities; others had never set foot on a college campus. Some students vacationed with family in Mexico; others were deeply rooted in the Manson community. In this same class were students with computers, camcorders and extensive personal libraries at home, as well as students who could not afford a VCR and who lived in homes where books, in English, or Spanish, are a rarity. Therefore, a few corresponded regularly with extended family via the Internet, but the majority rarely corresponded at all. The Washington State learning standards call for students to write in a variety of forms for different audiences and purposes. Corresponding with near-peers from a university 225 miles away, on the other side of the Cascade Mountains, would present the opportunity to read, write, and communicate with a different audience. It would also provide their teacher with much appreciated assistance in editing their formal written work.

The sixteen students enrolled in Dr. Wolpow's Spring section of "Content Reading, Writing and Communication Skills in the Secondary School" were all graduate Masters in Teaching students with various secondary level endorsement areas, including art, social studies, math, science, and English. These students were nearing the end of their formal training before commencing student teaching. The ethnic background of the students closely resembled that of the College of Education; less than ten percent were people of color.

Wolpow's students were introduced to the Letter and Essay Exchange Program (LEEP) during the first class session while reviewing task requirements from their syllabus. They were told that the LEEP task would provide opportunities to correspond with a middle school student from a different region

of their state as well as the chance to demonstrate their abilities to provide constructive feedback, electronically, to a seventh grade student on her or his writing. Students learned that this feedback would give them the opportunity to analyze student writing using the Six Trait Writing Assessment Rubric (Spandel, 1996).

Western students were told that many of the students with whom they would correspond spoke Spanish as their primary language. Those corresponding with these students would have the occasion to explore their abilities to meet a Washington State certification requirement demonstrating knowledge of approaches for creating “instructional opportunities adapted to learners from diverse cultural or linguistic backgrounds.” Wolpow’s students were also informed that since all communication during the first eight weeks would be in the form of written text, they would have ample opportunities to focus on their “word choice” in correspondence without the normal benefits of body language or vocal intonation. Put another way, they were told that they were to use their own writing to help their key-pals improve theirs. Finally, they were also reminded that since they had been trained in how to assess the “readability” of text, that they were expected to write no higher than the grade level of their key-pal.

Neff and Wolpow met several times before the ten-week quarter to map out the number of exchanges and the nature of each exchange. Since there were more Manson students than Western students, some Western students would correspond with two Manson students. Neff and Wolpow decided to provide their students

with questions as prompts to initiate conversations. They also decided that the Manson students would send, as attachments, copies of essays they were authoring for Neff's class. They planned logistical strategies for dealing with technical problems and for students whose organization might hamper the timeliness of their exchanges. Table 1 is the calendar presented to the Western students.

Table 1

Week	Manson Students	Western Students
April 2-6	On break	Write and send letters of Intro
April 9-13	Respond to letter, Forward Essay First Draft	Respond to letter, provide 6 trait feedback on essays
April 16-20	Catch-up	Catch-up
April 23-27	2 nd letter exchange - Essay revision #1	2 nd letter exchange -Essay revision #1
Apr 30 -May 4	3 rd letter exchange-	3 rd letter exchange-
May 7- 11	4 th letter exchange –Essay revision #2	4 th letter exchange –Essay revision #2
May 14-18	5 th letter exchange-	5 th letter exchange-
May 21-25	Video Conference	Video Conference,
May 29-31		Visit with Mrs. Neff Checklist and packet due

Western students initiated the correspondence with an e-mail in which they described themselves and talked about life on the Western campus. Manson students responded by discussing life in their small rural town. Many Manson students attached digital photos of themselves as well as the first draft of their essays. These essays were the first research paper they were writing as seventh

graders. They had started these several weeks before leaving for their Spring break.

Upon receiving these essays Western students completed a worksheet on which they identified and documented one strong and one weak writing trait (of the Six Traits) from the key-pal's writing. They brought this worksheet to class for discussion and at the end of the quarter submitted it as part of a packet to be graded. On this same worksheet, Western students described ways in which they planned to use their own words to help affirm and improve their student's writing. With each e-mail exchange considerable university classroom time was needed to brainstorm solutions to perceived problems. For example, one Western student noted that the quality of his key-pal's writing was so dramatically different from the personal correspondence to the research paper that the Western student was certain that the Manson student had simply plagiarized the letter. In another case, a Western student recognized that the major weakness of his key-pal's paper was a scarcity of ideas and content. However, the Western student also noted that all of the web-site suggestions he found and wished to send to his key-pal for further reading and writing were well above the reading capabilities of his seventh grade student.

One of the challenging tasks for the administrators of the project was ensuring that correspondence occurred regularly. Neff and Wolpow were in daily e-mail contact about any students who indicated a need for technical attention. Neff kept a chart in her room for students to keep track of their e-mail exchanges. Exchanges proceeded successfully and by the eighth week a videoconference date

and format were set. Students were divided into four smaller groups to allow for small group interaction. Neff and Wolpow provided their students with activities and each student was able to meet and share their reaction to the project with their key-pal. This was a positive culminating event that both classes enjoyed.

During the final week of university classes Neff traversed the mountains and joined the Western students for a class session. This was an opportunity for the Western students to ask questions that had arisen out of their correspondence with their key-pals. Many Western students were surprised by the differences they noted between the written language (e-mail) and oral language (videoconference discussions) of their key-pals. Others had questions about Neff's utilization of technology to enhance her instruction. Still others spoke of the disparity of writing performance among students in Neff's class and asked for specifics in how she addressed these differences.

Although all but one student (a Manson student who had a family crisis) completed the project, inconsistency of contents of the Western student's packets made scientific analysis nearly impossible. For example, the e-mail exchanges between key-pals varied from five to twenty-five. Whereas one Manson student did not forward an essay until week nine of the project, others had as many as six meaningful discussions about the two drafts exchanged. Those Western students who received essays in a timely manner were able to identify writing strengths and weaknesses using the Six Trait Assessment Rubric. Western students also demonstrated their abilities to find effective words to describe their writing

improvement suggestions to their key-pals. However, to the regret of the Western students, their suggestions were not always followed.

At the end of their packets, Western students were provided opportunities to comment on the LEEP project. Here are but a several samples that illustrate the range of their rejoinders:

Working individually with a middle school student,
[helped] clarify for me what constructive criticism
is....The greatest benefit for me was practice in giving
specific and meaningful feedback. Before this exchange, I
was more likely to say things like “well written” or “very
interesting” and not give specific examples. I was far
more conscious of my word choices, and I learned to use
concrete examples....

I think real learning takes place when that learning is
interesting and meaningful to the student...[and]...I think
it was important for my key-pal to connect with a college
student mentor. I wish I had had someone to talk to about
college and help me understand more about what it is like
to go to college when I was in middle school.... I also
imagine it must have been nice for the teacher to have
someone else preaching the same sermon [about writing
traits].

The only negative aspect of the LEEP assignment was not having enough time to interact. At first, it seemed so anonymous....It would have been unnerving for me, as a seventh grader, to write an essay for a college student I didn't know.

The biggest negative was not knowing what daily obstacles my key-pal might have been struggling with [in between revisions].

[My key-pal] ...made fewer grammatical errors in her correspondence [than in her essay.] Perhaps this is because she knows that this was the only way we could communicate. She had a desire to not appear foolish in her correspondence...[but apparently] did not perceive of the same possibilities in her essay.

Embarrassingly enough, one of the professional benefits that I gained from this experience was learning how to open an attachment....I also learned to use my scanner. (It sounds trite, but I'm so technologically backward that my VCR has been blinking 12:00 since 1992).

I feel really lucky to have had Victor as a key-pal because he was responsive, energetic and truly inspired

me...even though it may be difficult at times [for him]
with English as his second language.

Conclusions

1. In both pilot programs the Manson students addressed IRA/NCTE and Washington State learning standards for communicating effectively with different audiences for a variety of purposes. They also effectively used technological sources to gather, synthesize, create and communicate knowledge. Woven throughout their written, spoken and artistic communications are multiple examples of their learned understanding of, and respect for, diversity in language, as well as patterns and dialects across cultures and ethnic groups.
2. Those Western students who received essays in a timely manner were able to identify writing strengths and weaknesses using the Six Trait Assessment Rubric. Western students also demonstrated their abilities to find effective words to describe writing improvement suggestions for their key-pals. Many Western students learned the value of establishing and maintaining the technological skills required for certification.
3. Despite the asynchronic nature of e-mail correspondence and the opportunities for all participants to seek input before sending their messages, technology was not the “magic bullet” that led to error-free writing. Many participants did seek additional help to make sure they didn’t appear “silly.” However, this was not always the case. In many instances, comfort with one’s audience appears to have led to lesser attention to conventions.

4. In both pilots correspondents were communicating with distant key-pals, during which time they gave and received information that was both requested and needed. Thus, not only was an authentic audience present, but the purpose for the writing itself had opportunities to become authentic. If the term “authentic assignment” is as Terry Bullock suggests, oxymoronic (personal communication, December, 2000), all participants had times when their communication was authentic, not an assignment.
5. As a follow-up to the previous conclusion, the most powerful part of each project proved to be the relationship engendered by the exchange. Sixth and seventh graders, university students and Mr. Roth all placed high value on getting to know each other. When Western LEEP participants did not receive replies to their letters they grew concerned that perhaps they had written something inappropriate to their key pal. When one correspondent affirmed the other’s viewpoints or challenged them to think differently, both responded as if the other personally cared. This reinforced each correspondent’s belief that they had something to contribute.
6. In both pilots, e-mail correspondence was augmented with interactive videoconferences. In both cases, participants felt awkward without the opportunity to personally “meet” their correspondent. In the case of the LEEP, the authors believe that the videoconference alone was not sufficient, and an “in-person” meeting should have been arranged. However, in the case of the Adopt a Survivor Project, such a meeting was not possible.

In both the Adopt a Survivor Project and the Letter and Essay Exchange Project, technology fostered intergenerational literacy connections that helped participants meet literacy and certification standards. However, technology was not a “magic bullet.” These pilot programs were successful because they combined elements of “high tech” and “high touch.” Modern technology enabled asynchronous and “real time” correspondence between correspondents previously unavailable to each other. However, the most productive learning occurred when participants allowed themselves to be “touched” by the genuine aspects of the human beings on the other side of the Internet.

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Endnote

Five Trends in Literacy and Technology from Submissions from *Reading Online*

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As we write this, our term as journal editors of the International Reading Association's professional electronic journal, *Reading Online*, is coming to an end. June 2003 will see the final issue of the journal under our editorship, and we approach the end of our work with mixed feelings. On one hand, editing the journal has been a labor of love. We have had the privilege of working with our amazing department editors ([click to view slide](#)) and with authors who have brought us intellectual excitement and professional growth. We have worked closely with the outstanding professionals at IRA headquarters who assist with so many aspects of the journal. And we have come to be close colleagues and personal friends with each other over the almost four years of our association. On the other hand, as we disclose our final responsibilities, we do so with sadness, knowing that the journal we edited is changing in ways that we cannot yet envision. IRA's new plans for electronic services will see the establishment of a new portal called Reading Online, and the peer-reviewed content will remain. The rest of the journal will evolve as IRA places most of its electronic services onto the portal. We are privileged to be a part of the Electronic Services Committee charged with transforming the site. At this time, however, Reading Online as we know it, will cease to exist.

The electronic journal is the only one of the publications of IRA that has no paper existence. Its establishment in 1997 was the culmination of an extraordinary vision and the combined efforts of an incredibly visionary and talented team. For the first three years, ROL existed primarily as a publication website, under the editorship of Martha Dillner and her team. As we took on the editorship in June 2000, our charge was to expand on the very promising start made by the Dillner editorial team and cultivate the journal by increasing submissions, increasing the readership, adhering to a regular production schedule, and building the reputation of *Reading Online*. In collaboration with our editorial team, we were able to accomplish these goals. Of course, there are areas where we would have liked to realize greater progress, such as publishing more examples of innovative hypermedia composition. We are optimistic that will take place in future online publications.

Reading Online has a mission statement that has formed the foundation of our editorship:

Reading Online is a journal of classroom practice and research for K-12 educators. It is intended to help readers become more attuned to using technology effectively for classroom instruction, and to understanding new literacies and the

impact of these on teaching practice and student learning. The journal is designed to foster the exchange of ideas and the development of networks among readers and authors through discussion in the electronic environment. Peer-reviewed articles published in *Reading Online* will focus on a broad range of topics in literacy education, but should have practical applications and demonstrate sound pedagogical principles.

As of October 2002, we reported that

- 16% of all article-length content published since May 1997 is peer reviewed
- Under the current editors, 17% of content has been peer reviewed (10% in 2000-01, and 23% in 2001-02)
- 66% of all content published since May 1997 and 70% of peer-reviewed articles focus on K-12 instruction; the remaining content focuses outside the journal's mission on teacher education (with little or highly limited relevance to K-12 educators) or preschool
- 63% of content and 56% of peer-reviewed articles focus on technology and new literacies
- Under the current editors, 71% of all content and 62% of peer-reviewed articles focus on K-12 instruction
- Under the current editors, 65% of all content and 54% of peer-reviewed articles focus on technology and new literacies

With regard to an increase in readership, this has been one of the highlights of our editorship. Site traffic is strong and has increased significantly during the current editorial term. The large majority of site visitors come from the United States. Readership has increased dramatically. The most popular sections of the site in its current configuration are (in this order) Articles, Electronic Classroom, New Literacies, International Perspectives and From the Editors, From Years Past (archival material including discontinued Research, Critical Issues, and Reviews sections from the Dillner editorship), and Online Communities.

Because all content published on the Reading Online site remains available to the reader in archives (and is always free of charge), many past publications remain popular. However, each month, the most popular individual articles or features are consistently those from the current issue. These appear on the contents listing of the home page, as well on the individual listings of each section. As we track the readership we see page views that increase. For example, it is not uncommon for articles to have thousands of page views. See the following table (October 2002) for a breakdown of articles and features that have been viewed more than 1500 times in any single month.

Figure 1

**Articles and Features Viewed More Than 1500 Times in Any Single Month,
February 2001 to May 2002**

1. Coles, G., "Literacy, Emotions, and the Brain" (posted in 1999 under the Dillner editorship in the now-discontinued Critical Issues section) (5820 views)
2. Wilkinson, L., & Silliman, E., "Classroom Language and Literacy Learning" (invited article in the series of chapter summaries from the *Handbook of Reading Research*) (3392)
3. Ash, G.E., "Teaching Readers Who Struggle: A Pragmatic Middle School Framework" (peer-reviewed article) (2897)
4. Gambrell, L.B., Morrow, L.M., & Pennington, C., "Early Childhood and Elementary Literature-Based Instruction" (invited article in the *Handbook* series) (2880 views)
5. Cammack, D., "Two Sites for Struggling or Reluctant Readers" (Electronic Classroom, invited Web Watch) (2698)
6. Burgess, S., "Shared Reading Correlates of Early Reading Skills" (peer-reviewed article) (2535)
7. Pressley, M., "Comprehension Instruction" (invited article in the *Handbook* series) (2516)
8. Guthrie, J., "Contexts for Engagement and Motivation in Reading" (invited article in the *Handbook* series) (2475)
9. Curtis, M., & Longo, A.M., "Teaching Vocabulary to Adolescents to Improve Comprehension" (invited article for themed issue on struggling readers) (2091)
10. Johnson, D., "Internet Resources to Assist Teachers Working with Struggling Readers" (Electronic Classroom, invited Web Watch) (2064 views)
11. Dalton, B., & Grisham, D.L., "Introduction to a Themed Issue on Struggling Readers" (From the Editors feature) (2031)
12. Dalton, B., "Twenty Online Resources on Reading with Comprehension and Engagement" (From the Editors feature) (1940 views)
13. Balajthy, E., Reuber, K., & Robinson, C., "Teachers' Use of Technology in a Reading Clinic" (peer-reviewed article) (1939)
14. Witherell, N., "Book Review: *What Really Matters for Struggling Readers*" (invited review of Allington book posted in Articles section) (1865)
15. Turbill, J., "The Language Used to Teach Literacy: An Activity for Teachers" (International Perspectives department feature) (1670)
16. Casey, J., "Technology Empowers Reading and Writing of Young Children" (invited short feature, Electronic Classroom) (1665)
17. Galda, L., Ash, G.E., & Cullinan, B.E., "Research on Children's Literature" (invited article in the *Handbook* series) (1658)
18. Commeyras, M., "The Improvisational in Teaching Reading" (peer-reviewed article) (1650 views)
19. Tancock, Susan M., "Reading, Writing, and Technology: A Healthy Mix in the Social Studies Curriculum" (peer-reviewed article) (1584 views)
20. Johnson, D., "Picture Book Read-Alouds" (Electronic Classroom web watch) (1558)

21. Pisha, B., & Coyne, P., "Jumping off the Page: Content Area Curriculum for the Internet Age" (peer-reviewed article for themed issue on struggling readers) (1502)
-

In other words, the sheer volume of readership of the journal tends to assure the author that his or her work *will* be read by many people and that we, as editors, can provide specific figures. This is important since often RTP depends upon the impact of one's publications. Our records reflect that in June 2000, when our first issue went "live" ROL had 134,868 page views, with 36,999 sessions at 6.27 minutes each. By May 2002, that had increased to 278,236 page views, with 51,431 sessions at 7.12 minutes each. In a recent issue we topped 400,000 page views and the sessions and session times continue to increase. "Views" represents the number of pages accessed, including any graphics, etc., that might appear on those pages. "Sessions" refers to the number of distinct visits to the site.

Trends We Have Seen

As we began to look back over our time as editors we noted several trends in the submissions to the journal that we note below. These encouraging trends reassure us that what we are doing is important work and we offer these to you as evidence that the outlet for work embracing the intersection of literacy and technology is necessary and that the need should continue to increase over the next few years. As technology evolves, we see the role of a journal such as Reading Online increasing in value, both for contributors and for readers.

Increasing Sophistication in Submissions for Peer Review

In looking over the journal content for the past two and a half years, the first trend we have noted is an increasing sophistication in the submissions for peer-review. First, the form of the content has evolved technologically. Since July 2002, only three articles have been published that could have been published in print form only without the need for technology available in Reading Online. Two aspects distinguish the articles we have published

Technology in service of traditional literacies. Articles that make the point that technology can be used to teach traditional literacies include those where the author substitutes software for reading, writing, or presentation task. Some important examples include:

Denise Johnson's webwatches that provide online sources for teachers (poetry, struggling readers, literature, etc.) A particularly interesting excerpt is on poetry ([Johnson, 2002, Online Document](#)).

Martha Dillner's peer-reviewed article on using technology flexibly in composing ([Dillner, 2001](#), [Online Document](#)).

Karen Bromley's "Vocabulary Learning Online" ([Bromley, 2002](#), [Online Document](#)).

Another good example is Susan Tancock's article on using technology in the social studies ([Tancock, 2002](#), [Online Document](#)).

Technology in service of new literacies. Articles in this category use technology in ways that extend the definitions of literacy. An example of this is Susan Deysher's webwatches in the new 21st Century Literacies ([Deysher, 2003](#), [Webpage](#)), and the publication of many articles in the new literacies department. For example, we like Maya Eagleton's roadmap of electronic literacy ([Eagleton, 2002](#), [Online Document](#)).

Also check out Kevin Leander and Lois Duncan's piece on "Girls Just Wanna Have Fun: Literacy, Consumerism, and Paradoxes of Position on gURL.com" ([Duncan & Leander, 2000](#), [Online Document](#)).

Expanding Definitions of Literacy

Expanding definitions of literacy are apparent throughout the journal, but especially in our New Literacy department. Examples include John McEaneaney's hypertext article "Ink to Link: A Hypertext History in 36 Nodes" ([McEaneaney, 2000](#), [Online Document](#)). In this piece, you will learn the difference between hypertext and linear composition and reading! We also refer you Choi and Ho's, "Exploring New Literacies in Online Peer-Learning Environments" ([Choi & Ho, 2002](#), [Online Document](#)). Ann Watts Paillotet's many contributions cannot be overstated on this topic ([Hammer & Kellner, 2001](#), [Online Document](#)). Editor Dana Grisham's editorial on the need for teachers' increased attention to media literacy is also pertinent ([Grisham, 2001](#), [Online Document](#)) as is Kahryn Au's "Culturally Responsive Instruction as a Dimension of New Literacies" ([Au, 2001](#), [Online Document](#)). We also refer you to Jamie Myers and Rick Beach's piece on critical literacy ([Myers & Beach, 2001](#), [Online Document](#)).

Teachers' Increasing Interest and Competence in Technology

Readership statistics bear out classroom teachers' increasing interest and competence in technology. What is going on in teachers' classrooms is far more sophisticated as evidenced by our Teachers' Voices feature in the articles section. Here is a short list of the wonderful diversity of topics covered in this section:

- Literacy, the American Revolution, and the Three R's of Our Fight for Freedom: An Interview with Judy McAllister and Erica Lussos
- An Interview with Roxie Ahlbrecht About Writing, Technology, and the "Apple Bytes" Project

- Collaborative Internet Projects: An Interview with Susan Silverman About Her Passion and Hobby
- An Interview with Mark Ahlness and Jean Carmody About the Earth Day Groceries Project
- An Interview with Cathy Fowler About Sharing a Love of Reading Through Book Raps
- Harriet Tubman and the Underground Railroad: Bringing a Second-Grade Social Studies Curriculum Online
- Using Technology to Help Adolescents Excel
- Education With Heart: An Interview With Teacher Carol Wilson

Technology as a Vehicle for Teacher Education

Technology as a vehicle for teacher education has appeared over and over again in the journal. Teacher educators are doing more with online resources. We suggest that if you have second language learners you might refer to Jill Kerper Mora's website ([Mora, 2000](#), [Online Document](#)).

However, most of the articles on teacher education concern two strands:

Technology that connect preservice teachers with kids/teachers. Jerry Maring's three articles use technology for communications and learning between preservice teachers and students in K-12 schools. Check out his second article for cybermentoring techniques ([Maring, Levy, & Schmid, 2002](#), [Online Document](#)). Some of the Teacher's Voices series are of great assistance to other teachers and teacher educators in providing exemplars of what teachers, acting for the most part on their own initiative can do to connect literacy and technology in their classrooms. We particularly like Harriet Tubman and the Underground Railroad: Bringing Social Studies to Life ([Strangman, 2002](#), [Online Document](#)).

Simulated problem-solving experiences. A good example of this is Michael Kibby's work on the reading clinic with simulations for teachers who wish to become reading specialists ([Kibby & Scott, 2002](#), [Online Document](#)). Several authors also explore the utility of online courses. Kara Tabor and Jane Slater Meyers, provide a new look at web-driven coursework in "RISE: The Online Professional Development Choice for Secondary Teachers" ([Tabor & Meyers, 2002](#), [Online Document](#)).

A Continuing Interest in Struggling Readers

As editors, we surveyed our readers about their interests. The widespread interest and frustration with teaching struggling readers topped the list for the survey and led to a themed issue on the topic. In addition to the themed issue, we have published a number of articles and webwatches on this topic, including Editor Bridget Dalton's extremely popular "20 Websites for Struggling Readers" ([Dalton, 2001](#), [Online Document](#)).

An Interest in Intermediate and Middle Level Education

Our readers are interested in intermediate and middle level education, especially functional/content area instruction, and we have published substantial content in this area. Maya Eagleton's work on e'zeens ([Eagleton, 2002](#), [Online Document](#)), Spires and Cuper's " Literacy Junction: Cultivating Adolescents' Engagement in Literature Through Web Options," ([Spires & Cuper, 2002](#), [Online Document](#)) and Gwynne Ellen Ashe's "Teaching Readers Who Struggle: A Pragmatic Middle School Framework," ([Ashe, 2002](#), [Online Document](#)) are just a few of the selections. More recently, David O'Brien's work with adolescent learners highlights that young adolescents who may be disengaged from regular texts may remain engaged in digital and multimedia texts and makes an argument for using the new literacies ([O'Brien, 2003](#), [Online Document](#)).

New Players!

Technology is bringing new players to the game, and they are making contributions that we can only begin to appreciate at the moment. Many important innovations are happening outside of the traditional literacy community of teachers and researchers. For three important examples, see "Multimedia Pedagogy and Multicultural Education for the New Millennium" by Rhonda Hammer and Douglas Kellner ([Hammer & Kellner, 2001](#), [Online Document](#)) and Ron Silverblatt's "Media Literacy in an Interactive Age" ([Silverblatt, 2000](#), [Online Document](#)) and "Visual Education" by Paul Messaris ([Messaris, 2001](#), [Online Document](#)).

Final Thoughts

Reinking and colleagues characterized the current epoch in literacy as a "post-typographic" world, the implications of which we have yet to understand and appreciate. As we document the trends of a journal that we believe has been on the cutting edge of the intersection between literacy and technology, we are pleased to have been a part of it and we look forward to the next chapters of the story.

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Literature Circles Across Student Groups, Contexts, and Texts: Lessons Learned and Ideas to Explore

**Linda Pacifici, Beth Frye, Michael Hale,
Pamela Schram, Tracy Smith, & Woody Trathen**

This problem court, composed of four descriptive case studies and a concluding section on the themes across all cases, considers deeper pedagogical issues of purpose and lessons learned by using literature circles with different student groups in different contexts. The narrative case reflections examine the following question: What can be learned when a literacy discussion/instructional strategy, literature circles, is designed and applied to different age-group configurations, different contexts, and text types?

Taking advantage of the non-linear capabilities of electronic text, we have provided you with the following organizational matrix. Readers are invited to navigate this set of articles according to their interests and needs. Just click on the title of the paper you would like to read. To return to the matrix, click on the “Return to Matrix” icon at the beginning of each article.

Table I

Problems Court Organizational Matrix

Introduction, Theoretical Perspective and Overview	
Author(s)	Title
Trathen & Frye	Guided Reading with 4 th and 5 th Grade Students Using Instructional Literature Circles
Pacifici	Learning Through Literature Circles: Engagement and Student Voice Across Two Undergraduate Student Populations
Schram	Literature Circles in an Undergraduate Course: Instructor and Students’ Perceptions About Learning
Smith	Literature Circles in a Graduate Course: Providing a Context of Meaningful Connections for Adult Learners
Hale	Themes Across Cases: Literature Circles in a Variety of Contexts