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TEACHER INFLUENCE ON THE READING ATTITUDES AND READING BEHAVIOR OF SEVENTH GRADE LANGUAGE ARTS STUDENTS

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TEACHER INFLUENCE ON THE READING ATTITUDES AND READING BEHAVIOR OF SEVENTH GRADE LANGUAGE ARTS STUDENTS

by

Ann M. Wooten

A Dissertation submitted to
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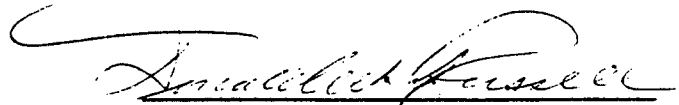

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ABSTRACT

WOOTEN, ANN M. Teacher Influence on the Reading Attitude and Reading Behavior of Seventh Grade Language Arts Students. (1983) Directed by: Donald W. Russell. Pp. 103.

Reading instruction has fallen short of meeting one of its primary goals--fostering positive attitudes toward reading. While credence has historically been given to the role of positive attitudes in student learning, relatively little research has been undertaken which focuses on reading attitude. Although greater interest has been shown in attitudes toward reading during the last ten years, research in this affective area of reading remains less than that which has been conducted in the cognitive area.

A number of factors were cited as influencing student reading attitudes, reading behavior of parents, availability of reading materials in the home, the value parents and peers place on reading, self-concept, teachers' attitudes toward reading, student interests, and classroom organization and instructional programs. This study examined the influence of teacher attitudes toward reading on the reading attitudes and reading behavior of their students.

Eight junior high schools in the Winston-Salem/Forsyth County, North Carolina school system were randomly selected from which to draw subjects for the study. Twenty-five teachers participated. They solicited student participation from their first period seventh grade class of reading/language arts. Student subjects numbered 427.

The study was begun during the fifth week of the school year. Teacher and student attitudes were assessed at that time using the reading section

of the secondary form of the Estes Attitude Scales and a similar self-developed instrument. Students completed reading record cards at four-week intervals during the study. They recorded books, magazines, and other printed materials which they had read of their own volition. Students responded to both reading attitude surveys a second time during the final week of data collection.

Raw student data were merged to form class attitude and reading record means. The Pearson product-moment formula was computed for each statistical analysis. No statistically significant correlation was found between teachers' reading attitudes and the reading attitudes of their classes. Likewise, no statistically significant correlation existed between teachers' attitudes toward reading and the amount of student free reading. A statistically significant, low positive correlation was found to exist, however, between student attitude toward reading and the amount of student free reading.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Reading is the most important skill attainable through formal education, for it is critical to the pursuit of knowledge. It is a vital means of acquiring information and heightens exposure to differing perceptions, styles, and philosophies. Reading opens the doors for greater understanding of oneself and one's world. It enhances personal development, providing a means of learning about people and places otherwise unknown.

Given the important role that reading plays in developing human potential, the central position ascribed to reading instruction in formal education is incontestable. The teaching of reading is based upon the philosophy that reading is an interactive process in which the experiences, abilities, and interests of the reader interact with the printed page, structuring comprehension of the author's words. Reading instruction must therefore focus not only on the basic skills of reading, but also on the development of positive attitudes toward reading if optimal learning is to take place. Alexander and Filler (1976) stated that fostering positive reading attitudes should be a universal goal of reading instruction.

Positive attitudes toward reading must not only be developed, they must also be sustained. As Mager (1968) pointed out, students' attitudes toward a subject influence the likelihood that knowledge of the subject will be utilized. Estes (1971) agreed, stating, "Certainly, how students feel about reading is as important as whether they are able to read, for,

as is true of most abilities, the value of reading ability lies in its use rather than its possession" (p. 135).

Unfortunately, many reading programs have fallen short of developing reading attitudes which result in lifelong readers. While the majority of the American people have learned efficient reading skills and thus can read, the amount of reading they choose to do is discouragingly little. Vail (1970) stated that 53% of all American adults have never read an entire book. To those who would counter this statement with the assertion that American adults are more likely to read newspapers than books, Mueller (1973) reported that in 1969, the United States led the world in number of television sets per thousand residents and ranked eleventh in newspaper circulation per thousand residents. As Stewig (1973) remarked, "...we are not a nation of readers" (p. 921).

Authorities cite the junior high (Hovious, 1974; Soares & Simpson, 1967) or middle teen years (Carlsen, 1980) as the period when the lack of interest in reading begins to emerge and recreational reading declines. At least four studies have found that reading steadily decreases over the course of students' schooling. Cleary (1935) reported that the average number of books read during the school year by a seventh grade student was 15, decreasing to eight in the ninth grade (p. 32). Mauck and Swenson's (1949) research revealed that, during a three-week period in which teachers weekly called attention to new books in the classroom, the mean number of books read by fourth grade students was 8.98, diminishing to 5.69 in grade seven and 1.52 in grade eight (p. 145). It should be noted that both of these studies were conducted before television viewing became widespread. A 1979-1980 assessment of reading and literature in

the United States, conducted by the National Assessment of Educational Progress, examined 100,000 nine-, thirteen-, and seventeen-year old students from across the United States. The study found that approximately 10% of the students in each age group did not read at all. Less than half of the thirteen and seventeen-year-olds reported that they liked to read "very much", with nearly half of the oldest students choosing reading as their least favorite way to spend their leisure time (NAEP, 1981).

A number of reading specialists hold formal reading instruction largely responsible for this apparent lack of interest in free reading. Odland (1970) contended that the lack of reading by American adults provided evidence that reading instruction had not been successful in establishing lifelong reading habits for the majority of the population. McCracken (1969) and Stewig (1973) voiced similar contentions. A resounding criticism was leveled by Johnson (1970): Present day reading programs have "...managed to kill a desire to read books for pleasure in all but about five percent of the population" (p. 214).

Many educators believe that a significant part of the problem rests with an overemphasis on teaching the skills of reading. Rowell (1972) contended that objectives for reading programs frequently fail to give adequate consideration to the development of positive attitudes toward reading. Ewing (1977) noted that it has been historically true that the attitudinal aspects of reading receive less emphasis than do the cognitive skills of reading. McCracken (1969) explained, "We have made complex the teaching of a complex skill so that our students are over-taught and under-practiced. They are literate, but they don't read" (p. 447). Bartelo (1979) stated, "Classrooms that have an overemphasis

on skill development may be conveying to the students that it is the isolated skill mastery that is valued, rather than the application of the skill of reading" (p. 3).

This preoccupation with reading skills appears to be widespread. Stewig (1973) reported that the main focus in five reading-methods texts he surveyed was teaching reading skills, not the development of a positive attitude toward reading. While it is essential that students become efficient readers, it is apparent that, if they are to become avid readers, careful consideration must be given to the development of positive attitudes toward reading (Alexander & Heathington, 1975). Sauls (1971) agreed, declaring,"Without contesting the importance of developmental reading skills, attention must be focused upon the objectives of the affective domain if our instructional program is to result in students who love reading and who will carry this love into adulthood" (p. 2).

Need for the Study

Relatively little research has been done regarding influence of teachers on the development of positive student attitudes toward reading and effective methods for stimulating wider reading. Khan and Weiss (1973), Roney (1975), and Schofield (1980) stated that few studies have been conducted which establish a cause-effect relationship between the teachers' attitudes and the attitudes of their students. Khan and Weiss (1973) added, "It would appear that the relationship between teachers' and students' attitudes has been regarded as axiomatic with no need for empirical research" (p. 774). Rowell (1972-1973) cited attitude as an important but neglected aspect of reading, stating that more attention must be focused on reading attitude and on changing students' attitudes

toward reading. Due to the limited research on reading attitudes, it is difficult to determine the types of educational experiences which would most effectively promote the development of the desired responses (Khan & Weiss, 1973; Taddeo, 1977). Lehr (1982) and Sauls (1971) suggested that research is needed to ascertain whether certain instructional strategies influence students' choices of books and their attitudes toward reading.

Research examining the extent of the influence of teachers on the recreational reading of pupils is also limited. Cutright and Brueckner (1928) reported that data collected from their study of the recreational reading program in the Minneapolis schools suggested that teachers do influence students' free reading. They added that, while a number of different methods were being used to enhance student interest in more extensive free reading, the effectiveness of the strategies was unknown. Greaney (1980) stated, "Much additional work is required if we are to throw further light on our present inadequate understanding of the variables affecting leisure reading" (p. 355).

Statement of the Problem

As previously noted, the amount of free or recreational reading done by students begins to decline in junior high school and continues throughout the teenage years. Given this information, the present study focused on the relationship between teacher and student attitudes toward reading. Also examined was the influence of teacher and student attitudes toward reading on student free or recreational reading.

The problem studied was to determine what relationship, if any, exists between teachers attitudes toward reading and the reading attitudes and reading behaviors of their pupils as reported on specific survey instruments?

Hypotheses

Hypotheses examined in this study were the following:

1. No statistically significant ($p < .05$) positive correlation will exist between teacher scores on the attitude toward reading scales and student scores on the same.
2. No statistically significant ($p < .05$) positive correlation will exist between teacher scores on the attitude toward reading scales and the amount of reading done by students.
3. No statistically significant ($p < .05$) positive correlation will exist between student scores on the attitude toward reading scales and the amount of reading done by students.

Limitations of the Study

Limitations of the study were as follows:

1. Only seventh grade reading/language arts teachers in the Winston-Salem/Forsyth County School System who were willing and able to participate in the study were included.
2. Only seventh grade students who expressed a willingness to participate were part of the study. All student subjects were enrolled in the first-period class of the participating teachers.
3. Only a twelve-week period was examined due to time constrictions.
4. Due to the size of the sample being investigated, it was not possible to control the administration of the instruments directly. This led to incomplete data collection, which, in some cases, limited the sample size.
5. The measurements obtained in this study were limited to paper-and-pencil self-reports and have the weaknesses inherent in such measures.

6. A number of external variables could not be controlled: peer influence, home and parental influence, the impact of media specialists, and the influence of teachers other than those surveyed. This researcher elected not to control for reading achievement and sex of subjects nor to analyze data by those categories.
7. The realiability and validity of two of the survey instruments, Reading Attitude Survey B (see Appendix B) and the Instructional Strategies Survey (see Appendix D) were essentially unproven. Therefore, data from the administration of these instruments could only be treated as corroborative and suggestive information.

Definition of Terms

The following definitions were developed for the purpose of this study:

Attitude. Attitude is broadly defined as a tendency to think, feel, and behave toward some object or concept in a particular way. Reading attitude as applied to this study is defined as that which is measured by the reading portion of the Estes Attitude Scales (see Appendix A) and a self-developed reading attitude survey, Reading Attitude Survey B.

Book Talk. A reading guidance strategy which can alert potential readers to one or more books.

Free Reading. Reading which is initiated by the student apart from assigned reading by the teacher, whether for information or for pleasure.

Instructional Strategies. Methods used by teachers to meet desired objectives.

Literate Nonreaders. Those who have efficient reading skills and so can read but do not choose to do so.

Sustained Silent Reading (SSR). A period of time in which students independently read books or other materials which they have chosen.

Young Adult Literature. "Books selected by young adults, ages 13 to 18, for their reading whether published specifically for them or published for the general adult public" (Harris & Hodges, 1981, p. 360).

Summary

Reading instruction has fallen short of meeting one of its primary goals--fostering positive attitudes toward reading. Many educators believe that preoccupation with the cognitive skills of reading is detrimental to the equally important affective domain. This study sought to examine the influence of teachers' attitudes toward reading on the development of their students' reading attitudes and on the frequency with which these students read for pleasure.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Reviewing the research and related literature concerning attitudes toward reading revealed that, while credence has historically been given to this aspect of student learning, research efforts to verify the importance of reading attitudes have been sparse. The majority of the work concerning reading attitudes was produced during the last 10 years, supporting the findings of Lewis and Teale (1980) who reported an increased interest in research on attitudes toward reading during the past decade. Renewed interest in the subject, however, has yet to spur research efforts commensurate with that which examines the cognitive aspects of reading. Davis (1978) reported that only 110 research studies concerning reading attitudes were published in professional journals from 1900 through 1977.

Attitudes: An Important Component of Reading

Few educators would fail to agree that student attitudes play an important role in learning in any area of the curriculum. Bradley (1978) stated that most educators in the secondary school view student attitudes as more important that innate intelligence. Agin (1974) reported that most authors of recent research in reading identify attitudes as one of the most important aspects of the educational process. Heilman (1977) suggested that the development of a positive attitude toward reading is one of the most important goals of beginning reading instruction. Koe (1975) saw attitude as a vital factor in the development of readers. He stated, "If we want the teaching of reading to count, negative attitudes toward this potent skill must be changed" (p. 342).

Attitudes affect various aspects of the reading process. Fredericks (1982) and Tullock-Rhody and Alexander (1980) stated that reading achievement is affected by student attitude toward reading. Alexander and Filler (1976) agreed that positive attitudes toward reading are important if students are to achieve maximum success with reading.

Not only does reading attitude affect achievement, it may also influence student free reading. Kemper (1969) wrote, "Learned positive attitudes toward reading will predispose the individual to read; and learned negative attitudes toward reading will predispose the individual not to read" (pp. 102-103).

Sauls (1971) substantiated Kemper's statement in his study of the relationship between certain factors and the recreational reading of sixth grade students. Thirty-two teachers and 868 students were included in the study. Pupils kept a log of their recreational reading during the fall semester of 1970. At the end of the semester, students and teachers responded to an attitude scale designed by Sister Mary Eisenman (1962). Students also completed a questionnaire designed to determine the extent to which reading was valued in their homes. The questionnaire for teachers surveyed educational background, years of teaching experience, and teaching strategies used to promote recreational reading. After data analysis, Sauls found a positive correlation to exist between the pupils' scores on the reading attitude scale and the number of books read. Computation of the Pearson product-moment correlation yielded a coefficient of .19, significant at the .01 confidence level. Sauls thus rejected the null hypothesis, stating that "there was a significant relationship between the pupil's score on the reading attitude scale and the number of

books read by the pupil" (p. 73). However, while the correlation coefficient of .19 proved to be statistically significant, it is indicative of a weak correlation. In interpreting this correlation in terms of variance, $r = .19$ becomes $r^2 = .04$, indicating that only four percent of the variability in pupils' scores on the reading attitude scale can be associated with the number of books read.

In defining attitude in general, Bradley (1978) reasoned, "An attitude is the way a person feels about something; therefore an attitude has an object. An attitude also has a direction; we can be for or against something. Attitudes vary in degree and intensity" (p. 50). Barnes (1972) added, "Attitudes denote bias, preconceptions, convictions, and emotions. Once attitudes are formed, they influence the development of later ideas and attitudes since they become the light through which the world is viewed" (p. 26).

Lewis and Teale (1980) suggested that reading attitude is multidimensional in nature, consisting of the following factors:

> (a) Individual Development factor: The value placed on reading as a means of gaining insight into self, others, and/or life in general.
> (b) Utilitarian factor: The value placed on the role of reading for attaining educational or vocational success or for managing in life.
> (c) Enjoyment factor: The pleasure derived from reading. (p. 188)

Lewis and Teale stated that student reading attitudes are most effectively assessed with separate scores for each of the three dimensions of reading attitude. They conceded that a single-score assessment may be appropriate in some instances, but cautioned that generalization from such a score, i.e., that one student has a positive attitude toward reading while another has a negative one, may give, at best, an incomplete

picture in terms of working with those students or affecting curricular modifications to effectively enhance student attitudes. The researchers explained their position: two students could conceivably have identical summed scores on a Likert reading attitude survey, and yet there may be important differences in the way they view reading. The majority of the total score from one student may have been derived from a positive view of reading for enjoyment, while another student may not read for pleasure but may value reading as a method of gaining greater success in school and in the working world. Considering the two scores as commensurate attitudes toward reading would thus be incorrect. Roettger (1980) agreed that a multidimensional view of reading attitude yields important specifics for educators.

Kemper (1969) said that attitudes are learned through an individual's experiences. Mitchell (1976) postulated that, as is true of any learned behavior, attitudes can be influenced and changed, regardless of how firmly established they may be. Healy (1963) confirmed this in a year-long experimental study designed to discover ways of enhancing student interest in reading. Treatment consisted of different styles of reading instruction for each of three fifth grade classes. The initial survey of the class evidencing the most significant change in attitude toward reading showed that seven of those 34 students liked reading, twelve were neutral, and fifteen indicated that they disliked reading. At the completion of the study, data revealed that 29 of these students reported that they now liked reading, five were neutral, and none disliked reading.

In a summer study of remedial readers who had been assigned to grades four through eight the previous school year, Rowell (1972) found

that the reading attitude of older students could be changed as readily as that of younger students. He pointed out that this finding is counter to the general assumption that, the greater the years of frustration in learning to read, the more difficult the task becomes of affecting change to a more positive attitude toward reading.

Factors Which Influence Reading Attitudes

McMillan and Sloan (1981) reported that many of the factors which determine whether one will develop positive or negative attitudes toward reading are environmental, and that no single factor can be designated the sole influence. A number of these environmental factors are largely outside the influence of the teacher, such as reading behavior of parents, availability of reading materials in the home, and the value parents and peers place on reading (Alexander & Filler, 1976).

A monograph published by the Indiana State Department of Instruction, Methods of Motivation, Grades 7-9 (1981), specified self-concept as a factor in the development of key student attitudes. Duffy (1967) agreed, stating, "Self-concept is closely related to reading success, and it is doubtful if a child who does not see himself as a reader will ever possess the reading habit" (p. 225). Quandt (1973) supported this contention, reporting that reinforcing the students' self-concept is an important factor in the development of positive attitudes toward reading.

Schofield (1980) conducted research to examine the relationship between teacher and student reading attitudes and achievement. During the school year encompassing the study, reading attitude and achievement tests were twice administered to approximately 900 students in grades four through six and to their 48 teachers. After data were analyzed,

Schofield reported that teachers with high reading attitude and achievement scores apparently produced higher levels of reading achievement and more positive attitudes in their students than do teachers with lower attitude and achievement scores. However, the belief that teachers who are not competent readers and who possess unfavorable attitudes toward reading develop similar attitudes in their students was not substantiated in the study. The data revealed that pupils of teachers scoring in the moderate range on achievement and attitude measures have less favorable attitudes toward reading than do the pupils assigned to teachers with low reading achievement and attitude scores. Schofield hypothesized that teachers with middle achievement and attitude scores more accurately recognize the value of reading than do their low achieving/low attitude coworkers, but may dampen their students' enthusiasm for reading by inappropriate teaching strategies, such as exerting undue pressure on students to perform. Teachers of low achievement or low attitudes do not share their peers' regard for reading and so are less likely to create classroom environments in which unrealistic pressure for success may encourage negative attitudes.

Sister Victoria Eisenman's (1965) results were somewhat different from those of Schofield (1980). Eisenman hypothesized that teachers having high scores on an instrument designed to measure attitude toward literature would positively influence their classes and thus a high mean class score would be recorded. However, the correlation between teacher scores and respective class scores yielded disappointingly low coefficients, ranging from -.30 to +.29. The conclusion was drawn that the influence of the teachers' attitudes on the attitude of their classes was negligible.

The differing results between the two studies may be partially explained by the specific construct which was being measured. Schofield assessed general attitude toward reading while Eisenman addressed attitude toward literature.

Other factors also affect reading attitudes. Spache (1974) denoted student interests as the single most important factor influencing student attitudes toward reading. Alexander and Filler (1976) wrote that motivating students to read is often substantially more effective when the reading program is based on student interest patterns and student-recognized needs.

Fredericks (1982) specified classroom organization and the type and content of instructional programs as factors influencing reading attitude. He further stated that careful teacher planning which considers student attitudes can enhance positive student attitudes toward reading.

Taddeo (1977) advised teachers to be alert to changing student attitudes, explaining that such shifts "occur as a result of success or failure in reaching their goals or values" (p. 11). While success reinforces the development and maintenance of a positive attitude, repeated failures may deter such formation.

Ransbury (1973) wrote that classroom teachers' reports of positive attitudes toward reading are often closely associated with student intelligence. In her study of 60 children in the fifth and sixth grades, their parents, and their teachers, answers were diverse when subjects were asked to describe the reading behavior of a person who enjoyed reading and one who did not like to read. In her opinion, tabulation of the responses showed that "the educator is concerned primarily with the

cognitive aspects of reading, whereas the child thinks in terms of the affective domain of choice and desire" (p. 26).

Roettger (1980) found that, while there are differences in the purposes for which students value reading, there are some who have a good attitude toward reading but have difficulty with the subject. Likewise, able readers do not consistently express significant interest in reading. She suggested that teachers may perform a disservice to students when a dubious factor such as intelligence or achievement is used as an assessment of attitude toward reading.

Kemper (1969) wrote

> It is the experiences which children have with persons, materials and activities related to reading which will develop their attitudes toward reading, not only as children but as adults. And it is the positive or negative natures of these attitudes which will greatly influence whether or not reading is actually done. (p. 103)

Although there were few research studies to document the belief, many educators contend that positive teacher attitudes can enhance student learning (Alexander & Filler, 1976; Bradley, 1978; Burlando, 1969; Carlsen, 1980; Gallo, 1968; Johns, 1972; McMillan & Sloan, 1981; Mitchell, 1976; Mueller, 1973; Schofield, 1980; Taddeo, 1977; and Tibbetts, 1975). Agin (1974) and Rieck (1977) stated that the attitude of the teacher is of significant importance in the classroom. Rieck wrote that the attitude of the teacher is "often more important than reading techniques, methods, or materials" (p. 646). As Alexander and Filler (1976) noted, teachers, especially those in the elementary schools, have tremendous potential for influencing student attitudes and behavior. It is generally believed that students of enthusiastic teachers are more likely to demonstrate positive attitudes and behaviors than are the students of less interested teachers (Alexander & Filler, 1976; Mitchell, 1976; Mueller, 1973; and

Rieck, 1977). Mueller (1973) explained, "Since teachers teach what they themselves stand for, pupils are certain to be affected when the teacher shows excitement and enthusiasm over a book; they will be no less influenced by a teacher's apathy toward reading" (p. 203). Rieck (1977) expressed concern that teachers who do not model reading behavior and an awareness of the importance of reading may create for their students a limited view of the role of reading in human lives. Mitchel (1976) declared, "Teacher attitudes and expectations can affect positively or adversely student achievement, teacher behavior, and student behavior" (p. 309).

However, this premise has yet to be confirmed through research. In Sauls' (1971) study detailed previously, no statistically significant correlation was found between teacher scores on the attitude survey and the mean number of books read by their pupils. In studying attitudes toward literature, Eisenman (1965) discovered only a nominal relationship between teachers' attitude scores and mean class attitude scores. Taddeo (1977) stated that she firmly believes that teacher attitudes affect student learning, regardless of the fact that research in attitudes is inadequate to substantiate or to disprove her belief.

Teachers' Role in Developing Positive Reading Attitudes

The influence of teachers is multifaceted; it spans verbal and non-verbal behaviors, models set for students, classroom atmosphere, personal reading attitudes, and attitudes toward students as readers and as persons (Alexander & Filler, 1976). An important responsibility of teachers is developing an awareness of the ways in which this influence is perceived by their students. Alexander and Filler (1976), Bradley (1978), and Koe (1975) suggested that teachers should analyze their personal attitudes

toward reading and toward the teaching of reading. Koe (1975) stated that "through self-examination [by educators] and a renewed sensitivity to the intricacies of reading, the learner's attitudes will be subsequently improved..." (p. 366).

An additional role of the teacher is that of appraising student attitudes in order to plan instruction that will heighten the development of positive attitudes toward reading (Fredericks, 1982). Attitude surveys can be used to assist in this appraisal. When Likert-type instruments are used, teachers should look at both the summed score of each student and his or her response to individual categories of statements. Lewis and Teale (1980), Roettger (1980), and Tullock-Rhody and Alexander (1980) suggested that analyzing clustered scores, i.e., responses to questions addressing attitude toward reading for pleasure versus those examining reading for information, would enable teachers to modify teaching strategies to strengthen those facets of reading attitude being neglected. Thus the teacher may be able to provide a more stimulating and meaningful reading program for those students, resulting in the enhancement of attitudes toward reading.

Assessment of student attitudes is an important function for teachers since inaccurate judgments breed inappropriate teaching strategies. Students who are high achievers in reading do not necessarily hold the positive attitudes toward reading that is often assumed. Roettger (1980) demonstrated this in her study of 75 fourth, fifth, and sixth grade students whose reading attitude scores and reading performance levels were not consistent. Her two research groups both said that reading was important to them in some way, but reading met different needs for each

group. She found that high attitude/low performance students valued reading as a survival skill, as a means of attaining a job in the future. "Reading was important to their self-concept; it made them 'smarter'. Without reading they thought they could not be in school. Reading gave them a 'good feeling'" (p. 452). In contrast, the low attitude/high performance students looked upon reading as a means of gaining information, of being successful in school. They referred to reading as a "skill to use on call, whenever they needed it to suit the situation" (p. 452). This often proved to be motivated by specialized interests.

Roettger (1980) suggested that teachers administer the Estes Attitude Scales and analyze the scores to determine how students feel about reading before beginning instruction. Strategies could then be planned to give special consideration to the support of current reading values while working to provide activities and materials which may stimulate broader interests and more positive attitudes toward reading in general.

An important role of the teacher in developing positive student attitudes toward reading is the identification of student interests. Once this is accomplished, teachers can suggest books and other materials which reflect student interests and provide a variety of reading materials representing as many of the specific interest areas as possible (Alexander & Filler, 1976; Culliton, 1973; Fredericks, 1982; Hovious, 1974; Jacobs, 1956; Kemper, 1969; Ransbury, 1973; Roettger, 1980; Rosenblatt, 1940; Rupley, 1976; Shuman, 1982; Soares & Simpson, 1967; Spiegler, 1956). Informal interest inventories of several varieties can be used. Teacher-student conferences and informal discussions also provide awareness of student interests and may well enhance the teacher-pupil relationship. Quandt (1973) wrote that one of the best ways to make a child feel valued is to share the child's interests.

A discussion of teacher responsibility regarding student attitudes would be incomplete without references to the reinforcement of student self-concept (Alexander & Filler, 1976; Kemper, 1969). Duffy (1967) and Quandt (1973) wrote that self-concept influences reading attitudes. Methods for Motivation, Grades 7-9 states, "Feedback from teacher to student enhances or diminishes self-concept. Teachers can modify their methods or styles of feedback to obtain positive rather than negative results" (Indiana State Department of Instruction, 1981, p. 4).

The model set by the teacher is of vital importance. Alexander and Filler (1976) confirmed that teachers who demonstrate that reading is valued in their lives do much to encourage students to read, especially since the teacher may be the only adult with whom students come in contact who evidences an enjoyment of reading. This point is valid regardless of the subject area being taught. Rieck (1977) insisted that content area teachers must develop within their students the awareness that reading is an essential skill in specialty areas, just as it is in the reading/language arts classroom. She added, "Students will read more if they know that you consider reading an essential source for new knowledge and reinforcing skills in your subject" (p. 648).

Alexander and Filler (1976) and Kemper (1969) set forth yet another role for the teacher, that of working with parents. They suggested that, since parents and the home environment appear to influence student attitudes, educators may need to work with parents in order to maximize student attitudes. Parents should be kept informed about the reading program, and should be invited to assist whenever mutually beneficial.

Parents need to be informed of the ways in which their influence is most keenly felt and offered suggestions and/or literature which may provide them with valuable information for strengthening the role of reading in their home.

Artley (1975) succinctly summarized the teachers' role:

> ...teachers who sense the importance of reading as a vital force in the development of young people, who see reading as the most important activity that they will carry on during the day, and who are able to convey that conviction through their enthusiasm and creative teaching, produce children who are likely to enjoy reading and hence be efficient readers. (p. 31)

Teaching Strategies:

Positive Influences on Reading Attitudes

While Lehr (1982) reported, "Findings concerning the relationship of specific teaching techniques to attitude formation are inconclusive ..." (p. 81), many educators have supported the validity of certain instructional strategies in positively influencing student attitudes toward reading. Those strategies denoted as most credible are explored below.

Determining and Utilizing Student Interests

Determining student interests in order to suggest and to make available appropriate books was deemed an important strategy in promoting positive reading attitudes by many educators (Alexander & Filler, 1976; Culliton, 1973; Fredericks, 1982; Hovious, 1974; Jacobs, 1956; Ransbury, 1973; Roettger, 1980; Rosenblatt, 1940; Rupley, 1976; Shuman, 1982; Soares & Simpson, 1967; Spiegler, 1956).

Jacobs (1956) and Soares and Simpson (1967) wrote that discovering student interests and areas of personal achievement is the surest way to help youngsters find reading materials that they will enjoy. Spiegler

(1956) stated simply, "Let him read what he likes, appeals to his interests--and Johnny reads" (p. 183). As noted by Rupley (1976), determining the interests of reading students who are difficult to motivate is especially important if they are to develop the interest in reading that their teachers desire. Alexander and Filler (1976) and Ransbury (1973) suggested that opportunities be provided for students to pursue their personal interests within the framework of the formal reading program whenever possible. The rationale for such a suggestion was set forth by Hovious (1974)

> ...if a student is reading what interests him, he is more likely to think about it and discuss it. The reader should be free to select books and to reject ones that do not interest him. Cooperation is needed between the student and his teacher in selecting reading materials so that there may be growth in the necessary reading skills and the development of positive attitudes toward reading. (p. 374).

Self-selection of Reading Materials

Healy (1963) reported that, in her study of fifth grade classes, self-selection of reading materials was one of the two most influential factors in developing student interest in reading. Gentile and McMillan (1977), writing about teenage reluctant readers, suggested exposing them to a wide variety of materials and allowing them to select what they read according to their personal interests. Alexander and Filler (1976) discussed giving students choices in content area reading as a strategy which might enhance student interest. Agin (1974) asserted that self-selection of reading material reduces tensions and emphasizes the pleasure to be found in reading.

In a reading methods course of approximately one hundred junior and senior education majors, Artley (1975) asked the students for opinions

concerning effective or ineffective teaching practices based on what they remembered from their own experiences. He found that

> Many of the students confirmed what one would expect--that stimulation for reading grew out of the sheer fun of experiencing an abundance of good things to read. Books were readily available in a school library or materials center, and the pupils were given time to survey, sample, check out, read, and return their books. They could make their own choices of what they wanted to read, and, most important, they were given time to read. (p. 27)

Sustained Silent Reading

Believing that, after seven years of instruction in basic reading skills, students needed increased opportunities to put these skills into practice, Farrell (1982) designed a reading program for eighth grade students using sustained silent reading as its core. One class of students who were reading on grade level participated in the study. Both the teacher and students spent most of each 42-minute period in self-selected silent reading, choosing their reading materials from a classroom collection. Materials included titles from various lists of young adult literature, suggestions from the media specialist, classics chosen for theme and brevity, and personal favorites of the researcher. As the year progressed, students were also allowed to read materials from other sources, i.e., the public library and self-purchased paperbacks. Lists of unfamiliar words and reading logs were kept during each reading period. Forms were provided for book reports upon the completion of each selection. Grades were determined by such factors as the number of books read and reported on, vocabulary quizzes, and reading behavior during class. In the final grading period, a narrative book report and a book talk were also required.

In terms of reading achievement, Farrell noted that scores on the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test, Level E, showed that 90% of the students raised their reading achievement scores by one to two years between the first administration in early October and the second administration in late May. The remaining ten percent were divided equally between students who had made less improvement and those who had shown a three to five year gain. All students were reading above grade level when tested in May. While pleased with the notable achievement in reading skills, Farrell wrote,

> The preeminent value of the program was the growing interest students exhibited in reading itself. They became more involved in their books, showing a reluctance to lay them aside when the bell rang.... Other teachers reported a noticeable increase in the number of eighth graders reading in study halls, during free time in classes, in the cafeteria, and in homerooms. There was even a ripple effect among students not participating in the program. (p. 51)

Bartelo (1979) found sustained silent reading to be effective in her study of sixth, seventh, and eighth grade students in a Title I compensatory reading program. The students and teacher read in self-selected materials silently for the first ten minutes of the 50-minute period each day. Logs were kept of daily reading, and these were used in book sharing conferences and discussion sessions on selected Fridays each month. In analyzing data from the attitude survey administered at the conclusion of the study, Bartello noted a 17% increase in the reported amount of reading students did during their free time and an 8% increase in the reported time spent discussing personal reading with friends. Self-concept also appeared to be enhanced, as evidenced by the 5% increase in the number of students designating themselves as above average readers. "Student questionnaires overwhelmingly stated a feeling of improvement in

the number of students designating themselves as above average readers. "Student questionnaires overwhelmingly stated a feeling of improvement in reading ability, along with eighty-one percent concluding an attitude change toward reading" (p. 11). This was further substantiated by parents, 88% of whom observed favorable attitude changes in their children. No information was available concerning the statistical significance of these percentages.

McCracken (1969) reported that sustained silent reading had been used in the State of Washington for a number of years. During that time it had been successful with students at all grade levels, kindergarten through college. "We have yet to see it fail if the teacher inundates the class with books of all levels and if he reads" (p. 447). Fox (1947), Gray (1959), Kemper (1969), and LaBrant (1939) wrote of the importance of including time for free reading during the school day. Sadoski (1980) found that the inclusion of SSR for even short periods of time, such as during his seven week study, could be valuable in developing positive attitudes toward reading among senior high school students. While not using the terminology SSR, Bullen (1970) and Pfau (1967) stated that planned recreational reading periods can be an effective stimulus for the development of greater interest in reading.

Research concerning sustained silent reading is mixed, however. When studying the effects of including a period of SSR in grades two, four, and six, Wilmot (1975) found that fourth and sixth grade students in the SSR group had significantly better attitudes toward reading but significantly lower comprehension scores than students in the control group. Einhorn (1979) researched the effects of SSR on the reading behavior and

attitudes of fifth grade students. In analyzing data collected from experimental and control groups, differences in attitude and amount of independent reading between the two groups did not prove to be statistically significant.

Minton (1980) found the inclusion of a daily 15-minute sustained silent reading period in ninth grade classrooms for one semester to have been essentially ineffective. In response to an attitude questionnaire at the end of the semester, 27% fewer students were currently reading a book, although 6% indicated that SSR was an excellent idea. "When answering the final question, 'What word best describes your feeling toward reading?', 15% fewer students said they 'enjoyed' reading and 12% more described their feelings as 'hate'" (p. 500).

When discussing possible reasons for this negative change, Minton said that the teaching faculty was not given adequate preparation in the implementation of sustained silent reading and did not feel particularly committed to it. Also, the scheduling of SSR at a specific time during the school day cut across all high school content areas, some of which were difficult to combine with this particular strategy. Minton summized, "If SSR is to be incorporated successfully into the secondary school curriculum, different levels of student ability and maturity must be considered along with the right of the student to determine when and where he/she will read for pleasure" (p. 502).

Classroom Libraries

Alexander and Filler (1976) wrote that a varied collection of books in a classroom suggests to the students that reading is important. As Rupley (1976) added, it "reinforces the importance of reading for enjoy-

ment" (p. 119). Jacobs (1956) stated that the collection should be attractive and well-balanced. Culliton (1973) proposed that the materials reflect both the wide range of student interests and also independent reading levels.

Chantland (1979), Coley (1981), and Rupley (1976) presented the use of paperback books as an effective, motivational supplement to the traditional hardbound collection. In discussing the rise in popularity of paperbacks, Donelson and Nilsen (1980) wrote, "Paperbacks were ubiquitous, comfortably sized, and inexpensive" (p. 146). Coley (1981) stated that the broad selection possible among paperback titles might help meet the diverse and mercurial interests of the students.

Kemper (1969) stated that students often prefer newspapers and magazines over other types of reading materials. He suggested that their use in the classroom as instructional aids and as recreational reading material is helpful in developing positive student attitudes toward reading.

Use of Young Adult Literature

Small (1972) generalized that English teachers introduce their students to that which is widely accepted by adults as "good" or "classic" literature with the expectation that this experience will raise the level of the students' literary awareness and appreciation. He contended that, while this might be a worthy goal for senior high students, classic adult novels are largely beyond the grasp of students in the junior high school. He suggested that the teaching of junior novels, young adult fiction, is an effective means of reaching the goals of a literature program: reading works of literature with enjoyment without direction

from the teacher, and developing an understanding of and appreciation for various types of literature. Young adult novels fill this role for a number of reasons, i.e., the format of adolescent literature is more easily understood, the protagonists are near the age of the readers, and the problems presented are often those encountered by today's young adults. Thus, the young adult novel is more easily comprehended, evokes a more personal response, and elicits greater appreciation and enjoyment among junior high school students than the traditional "classics". As further substantiation, Small concluded, "Only the adolescent who discovers that literature is valuable to him, wherever that value may originally be thought by him to lie, will benefit from the rest of the program the English teacher designs for him" (p. 224).

Donelsen and Nilsen (1980) suggested that young adult literature can be very effective in motivating reluctant readers, and listed several reasons for its success with these students: It is written specifically for teenagers and is thus appropriate for their age level and reflects their interests. In addition, it is written in idiomatic language which the students are accustomed to hearing and so is more easily understood than are books written for adults. Even though it is shorter and has a more simple format than books designated as adult books, young adult literature is not condescending in style or format. The prolific number of young adult books published each year gives the reader a broad spectrum from which to choose titles of personal interest. Some of the most highly acclaimed contemporary authors write books for young adults, books which are more interesting and better written than the controlled vocabulary books often used with reluctant readers.

Donelson and Nilsen (1980) further detailed the potential benefits of the use of young adult literature with adolescents:

1. It can provide a common experience or a way in which a teenager and an adult can focus their attention on the same subject.
2. It can then serve as a discussion topic and a way to relieve embarrassment by enabling people to talk in the third person about problems with which they are concerned.
3. It can give young readers confidence that, should they meet particular problems, they will be able to solve them.
4. It can increase a young person's understanding of the world and the many ways that individuals find their place it in.
5. It can comfort and reassure young adult readers by showing them that they are not the only ones who have fears and doubts.
6. It can give adults as well as teenagers insights into adolescent psychology and values. (p. 382)

Kemper (1969) stated, "The child who sees reading as a means of understanding himself and his world will develop increasingly positive attitudes toward reading" (p. 105).

Presenting Books to Students

In Porter's (1969) study to determine the effects of reading aloud to inner-city, middle-grade students, 21 experimental classes from grades four through six were read to twice a week for twenty weeks by high school juniors who had received training in effective oral reading. At the end of the study, it was found that the students in the experimental classes had increased in both reading achievement and interest in reading. Fourth grade students showed more statistically significant scores than did those in the fifth and sixth grades.

Johns (1972) conducted a study to determine whether differences existed between attitudes of inner-city and suburban students toward oral reading by their teachers. The sample consisted of 346 fifth and

sixth grade students from two public school systems. Two questions were asked: "(1) Do you like to have your teacher read stories or books to you? (2) Does your teacher read stories or books to your class?" (p. 184). Analysis of the responses revealed statistically significant differences between the two groups, i.e., teachers in the suburban schools read to their students more frequently and the students reportedly enjoyed it more than did the inner-city students. Due to sample limitations, John drew tentative concluions--teachers in inner-city schools should read more often to their classes and "develop a greater student interest in oral reading" (p. 185).

Johns and Read (1972) replicated the study with a sample of 400 fifth and sixth grade students from four public school systems in two states. Contrary to the results of the initial study, no significant difference was found between the amount of oral reading done by teachers in the suburban and inner-city school. Statistically significant differences did still exist, however, between the two groups in their response to oral reading by their teachers, suburban students reported more favorable attitudes toward the oral reading than did inner-city students. The researchers offered no hypothesis in explanation of this recurring difference in student attitudes.

Roney (1975), in a research study designed to analyze the relative effectiveness of oral reading to students versus the use of bulletin boards as strategies to promote independent reading by students, found oral reading to be generally more effective. In the study by Artley (1975) described earlier, the junior and senior students in his reading methods course said that oral reading by teachers was the aspect of their reading

program that they enjoyed and remembered most. Kemper (1969) stated that reading done by the teacher, whether orally to the students or during sustained silent reading, demonstrates to students that the teacher values reading.

Butler (1980) reminded teachers not to forget poetry when choosing material to read aloud. She added, "It is, after all, designed to be heard. More than one reading is desirable for maximum pleasure and understanding" (p. 884).

Cullinan (1981) and Culliton (1973) wrote of the use of choral speaking or choral reading. This activity can be effectively used with any age, providing opportunities to develop appreciation for words and meter, and to experience pleasure in a group reading experience. Culliton stated that there are two elements which are essential in effectively introducing poetry or choral reading to students, "teacher interest in the genre and appropriateness in terms of student interest" (p. 189).

Donelson and Nilsen (1980) wrote that book talks provide the teacher or librarian with an effective means of recommending reading materials to large numbers of students. They contended that book talks often interest students in reading the titles presented and pave the way for individual discussions of books and reading recommendations.

Huck (1976) recommended the use of book talks for children age eight and older. Cullinan (1981) suggested that book talks be given by students as well as by teachers and librarians. She viewed students' book talks as "opportunities for the children to share their enthusiasm for something they have read" (p. 458).

Donelson and Nilsen (1980), Hovious (1974), and Jacobs (1956) advocated book displays and/or exhibits as effective methods of developing an awareness of available materials and stimulating student interest in reading. Greenberg (1970) hypothesized that book displays are effective because students often believe that books which are displayed are special in some respect. She added that book displays also highlight a small number of books, thus providing the student who has difficulty making decisions about reading materials with a limited number of titles from which to choose.

In 1934, Broening conducted a survey of factors influencing pupils' reading of library books. Two hundred fifty-eight teachers responded to her survey. When reporting the methods they used to interest students in reading, displaying books was used by the teachers 16% of the time, second only to discussing the background of the book.

Some authorities disavow the value of prescribed reading lists (Agin, 1974; Spiegler, 1956). Their disenchantment with this strategy may stem from the limited student choice which the term "prescribed" suggests. However, the preparation of bibliographies or reading lists according to type or theme from which students are free to choose may prove to be motivational. Donelson and Nilsen (1980) suggested the distribution of miniature bibliographies, perhaps printed as book marks. Jacobs (1956) said that reading lists which reflect areas of student interests alert readers to a number of titles which, if read, are likely to be enjoyed.

Follow-up Strategies

Small group or class discussions of reading can prove to be an effective strategy for enhancing student learning and for motivating further

reading. Hovious (1974) stated that students acquire new ideas from the discussion of their reading as readily as they do from the reading itself. When given opportunities to participate in both, she contended that students learn necessary skills while maintaining their interest in reading. Gentile and McMillan (1977) wrote, "There is tremendous potential for growth and development through the sharing of ideas and experiences with other members of the class" (p. 651). Rosenblatt (1940) likewise espoused the value of "spontaneous natural expression of personal reactions to books" (p. 227).

Rieck (1977) expressed concern regarding the lack of follow-up discussions to reading assignments made in the content areas. She said that, through failure to do so, teachers may be given students the non-verbal message that outside reading is of little importance in their class.

Opportunities to share reading experiences with others is recommended by Culliton (1973) as a technique for motivating wider reading. Greenberg (1970) found that "contact with an individual who is excited about reading" (p. 314) is successful in stimulating similar reading interests among the reader's peers. She discovered that students most often make their choices of what to read based upon personal recommendations, recommendations by peers being the most influential. Gallo (1968) wrote, "The tremendous influence of friends on reading and discussing books is something that a wise teacher takes advantage of through classroom discussions with small groups" (p. 538). In Broening's (1934) research detailed earlier, when students were asked what reading a book made them feel like doing, 51% responded "telling friends."

Rosenblatt (1940) noted that there are times when an individual conference with the teacher may be the most effective means through which a student expresses thoughts concerning his/her reading. This technique is also beneficial for strengthening the student/teacher relationship and motivating interest in reading.

Artley (1975) discovered that students enjoy personal reading experiences shared by their teachers. Chantland (1979) stated that occasionally sharing comments with her students about books she was reading developed into meaningful book conversations with the class. These helped to initiate program modifications--the addition of a classroom library, more time for free reading, and informal sharing of student reading--which heightened student interest in reading and increased the frequency with which they read for pleasure.

While not as influential as peer recommendations, suggestions by teachers concerning student reading material can be a factor influencing student recreational reading (Fox, 1947; Gallo, 1968). These recommendations may occur during teacher/student conferences or in informal conversations.

While Huck (1976) advocated creative methods of sharing reading for the elementary school child, the junior high school reader may also benefit from similar experiences. In discussing the creative sharing of books, Alexander and Filler (1976) wrote, "Just knowing that he [the reader] will be able to use what he has read in some interesting way may be just the thing that moves him toward more favorable attitudes" (p. 49).

Fredericks (1982) suggested that teachers "allow the students to present creative book reports with mobiles, diaramas, collages, models,

posters, and other craft projects" or plan a program of skits and oral presentations (p. 39). Jacobs (1956) encouraged teachers to permit students to interpret their reading through dramatics, painting, sculpture or puppetry. Alexander and Filler (1976) suggested inviting students to write a dialogue of some reading material to perform for the class, or to select interesting conversation from a story or personal reading to be shared. Gentile and McMillan (1977) recommended allowing students to present a characterization from their reading for the class.

Alexander and Filler (1976) discussed creative writing techniques, such as encouraging students to write a new ending for a book just read. Another suggestion used one pupil to write a summary of the beginning of a book while a student who had not read the book wrote the ending. The second student then reads the book to compare the original ending with that of the author.

Panel discussions among students who have read the same book (Alexander & Filler, 1976) or among students who have read books of similar themes by various authors can also prove to be effective motivational strategies. Storytelling is also advocated as a means of motivating students to read (Alexander & Filler, 1976; Cullinan, 1981; Huck, 1976).

Information was limited on the effect of formal book reports and subsequent recreational reading. Greenberg's (1970) disclosure of student reaction to required book reports provides a rationale for the differences of opinion which exist among teachers as to the value of such assignments. Greenberg's sample was composed of 23 students who had been enrolled in various seventh grade classrooms in the same school

the previous year. Three students assigned to the same teacher had been regularly required to write book reports. These students reported that the assignment caused them to read more than they would have otherwise. Two of the three discovered an interest in young adult novels and continued to read at an increased rate. A fourth student reacted negatively to the requirement and refused to go to the library at all. Two students assigned to a different class became interested in wider reading as a result of their teacher's requirement of oral book reports. Information was not provided regarding the reactions of the other students.

Gallo (1968) conducted an informal survey of all eleventh grade students at two different public schools; 262 students completed his questionnaire. When responding to whether or not they liked book reports, 79% said they did not. In concluding the discussion of his findings, Gallo stated, "Eliminating the threat of grading, minimizing the amount of required writing, and encouraging free discussion about books ought to produce more enthusiasm for reading" (p. 538). He added the reminder, however, that students do need some guidance in reading as constant use of free reading does not always yield satisfactory results.

Agin (1974) and Spiegler (1956) were quite negative in their assessment of prescribed book reports and suggested that teachers abolish such assignments. Agin contended that a child only reads when motivated to do so; therefore,prescribed reading lists and traditional book reports should not be required. As was reported by Greenberg (1970), however, such requirements are a motivational factor for some students, stimulating wider reading.

Jacobs (1956), McMillen and Sloan (1981), and Shuman (1982) suggested that students keep records of their personal reading. Shuman noted benefits

of student-kept reading logs--students are made aware of how much reading they do daily, and teachers learn what is being read in school and at home. This information can aid teachers in planning activities which reflect student interests and reading levels. Jacobs added that student-kept informal reading records gave the teacher information concerning student interests and reading behavior. This information can provide the basis for a cooperative evaluation by student and teacher of the present reading status. Recommendations for further reading arise as teachers become more familiar with the student as a reader. McMillen and Sloan (1981) suggested the use of "...structured interviews with all students with accurate records maintained of materials read both at (a) home and (b) school" (p. 11).

Assessing Reading Attitude

Summers (1977) wrote that attitudes are personal constructs and thus are not directly observable; therefore, attitudes must be inferred from the presence or absence of certain behaviors. He further explained, "Attitude is a response, thus permitting a person's attitude to be inferred and elicited by providing appropriate verbal and nonverbal stimuli. School and school related activities (reading) are appropriate areas for attitude assessment because they are socially salient in the life of every student" (p. 139).

Attitude is an affective characteristic with a significant influence on student learning. Summers declared, "It goes without saying that cognitive characteristics may determine the limits to a student's development but affective characteristics will influence whether or not the attempt is made to reach these limits" (p. 140).

Summers asserted that attitudes can be assessed more effectively through the use of more than one measure since the analysis of different types of behavior samples makes possible more accurate inferences. Attitude measurement devices can be broadly categorized as self-report instruments, direct observation, and projective techniques (Summers, 1977). Summers identified the group-administered self-report inventory as probably the most widely used. In this category, he deemed the Estes Attitude Scales (Estes, Johnstone & Richards, 1975) as "technically and conceptually, the best developed reading attitude scale to date. Reliability and internal consistency data are strong" (p. 152). The Estes Attitude Scales are "Likert or summated ratings type" in design, meaning that "a summation of the values of each student's response on the scale will yield a quantitative representation of his attitude..." (Estes, 1971, p. 136). Fifteen statements are presented in each of five content areas--English, mathematics, reading, social studies, and science. Forms are available for use with elementary or middle and secondary school students.

Summers reported that relatively few studies have used direct observation as the basis for attitude research. "Contrived and natural settings are utilized in some instances, but major problems in reliability and validity exist in obtaining large numbers of such observations for measuring purposes" (p. 146). He added that the projective technique in reading attitude measurement "usually involves considerable modification of the more familiar (TAT, Rorschach) projective techniques used in personality assessment. Coding of qualitative material provided the major problem in analysis of projective results" (p. 147).

Lewis and Teale (1980) contended that reading attitudes should be measured as a multi-dimensional construct with separate analyses of each of its factors: individual development, utilitarian, and enjoyment. The authors suggested that this tripartite factorization was a significant and practical means of describing the reading attitudes of secondary students. They also presented this view of reading attitudes as being theoretically sound and as providing specific information for diagnostic and curricular modofications. In noting the conflicting results of studies analyzing the relationship between attitude and achievement, Lewis and Teale wrote, "Perhaps the reason for such conflicting results is that in each of the studies, attitude toward reading was inadequately defined and therefore measured in the 'overall'fashion. It may be that achievement in reading is linked differentially to the various dimensions of attitude toward reading." (p. 200).

Summers (1977) reported that information regarding the development and use of reading attitude instruments is difficult to locate, and that "the volume of information available on the assessment of reading attitudes is scanty..." (p. 150). He added that the majority of the work had been done with younger students. He postulated, however, that "Attitude research will add an important dimension to the study of affective functioning. Attitudes constitute a significant source of behavioral variance and could serve to integrate and explain a wide range of behavior" (p. 153). Kennedy and Halinsky (1975) suggested that assessing student attitudes toward reading can provide important information for the evaluation of both instructional and recreational reading programs.

Summary

Although greater interest has been shown in attitudes toward reading during the last ten years, research in this affective area of reading is still not commensurate with that which has been conducted in the cognitive areas. Most educators agree, however, that student attitudes play an important role in learning. In the area of reading, attitudes affect student reading achievement and student free reading.

Attitude toward reading has been characterized as multi-dimensional, consisting of three distinct factors: individual development, utilitarian, and enjoyment. It has been suggested that each of these dimensions should be analyzed if attitude assessment is to be of maximum value.

Attitudes are learned through an individual's experiences and, as is characteristic of any learned behavior, can be influenced and changed. In one study, reading attitudes of older students were changed as effectively as were the attitudes of younger students.

No single factor can be designated as the sole influence on attitudes. Environmental and school-related factors influence attitudes toward reading. Self-concept, teachers' attitudes toward reading, student interests, and classroom organization and instructional programs are presented as influencing reading attitudes.

The influence of teachers is multifaceted; it spans verbal and nonverbal behaviors, models set for students, classroom atmosphere, personal reading attitudes, and attitudes toward students as readers and as persons. Certain roles are assigned to teachers in the development of positive attitudes--analyzing their personal attitudes, appraising student attitudes, identifying student interests, reinforcing student self-concept, providing a reading model, and working with parents.

While the relationship of specific teaching strategies to attitude formation has yet to be demonstrated to be statistically significant, many educators have supported the validity of certain instructional strategies in positively influencing student attitudes toward reading. Those strategies denoted as most credible are discussed.

The Estes Attitude Scales (Estes, Johnstone & Richards, 1975) were reported to be the best attitude scales developed to date. The use of more than one measurement tool, however, provides for the most effective assessment of reading attitude. While information regarding the assessment of reading is limited, Summers (1977) viewed attitude research as "an important dimension to the study of affective functioning" (p. 153).

CHAPTER III

DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to examine the influence of teacher attitudes on the reading attitudes and reading behavior of seventh grade students. This chapter describes the design and methodology for examining this relationship.

Population

Practical and theoretical considerations underlay the decision to use junior high school teachers and their seventh grade reading/language arts students in the Winston-Salem/Forsyth County, North Carolina, school system. (1) Winston-Salem/Forsyth County is a combined city/county school system using cross-busing to achieve racial balance. This presupposes a certain degree of heterogeneity in each school. (2) A sufficient number of teachers and students was available to provide a reasonable basis for statistical treatment and cautious generalizations. (3) As noted in the literature review, the junior high or middle teen years were identified as the period when lack of interest in reading begins to be manifest and recreational reading declines (Carlsen, 1980; Horious, 1974; Soares & Simpson, 1967). (4) It was assumed that reading would receive more emphasis in reading/language arts classes than in any other content area. (5) It was further assumed that seventh grade students were capable of reading and responding to the data collection instruments employed in the study.

Approval to conduct the study was obtained from the Human Subjects Committee of the University of North Carolina at Greensboro.

Permission was granted by the Winston-Salem/Forsyth County School System's Research and Review Committee to conduct research in the system's schools, contingent upon the agreement of the individual principals (see Appendix G). The Committee requested that the study be limited to a representative number of the school system's junior high schools.

There were 11 junior high schools in the Winston-Salem/Forsyth County school system. Using a table of random numbers, the investigator selected eight of the 11 schools for participation. A letter was written to the principals of the eight junior high schools, advising them of the nature of the study and the random selection of their school (see Appendix H). Permission to include each school in the sample was requested. This investigator subsequently phoned to answer questions and learn of each principal's decision. All eight principals agreed to the inclusion of their schools and meetings were scheduled to present the study to the appropriate teachers and to approach them concerning participation in the study.

Thirty-three teachers from the eight schools met the criterion established for participation, i.e., at least one section of reading/language arts in their teaching schedules. The study was explained to the teachers in general terms only to preclude bias. They were told that the study would look at seventh grade reading instruction, but not in evaluative terms. They were assured that this study did not intend to denote teacher excellence and that individual schools, teachers, and students would not be identified. It was further stipulated by this investigator that the first reading/language arts section in each teacher's instructional schedule would be the one surveyed and only those

students expressing a willingness to participate would be included. Of the 33 teachers, only one declined to take part in the study.

Instrumentation

An underlying assumption of the present study was that reading attitudes could be identified and measured within acceptable limits of error by the secondary form of the reading section of the Estes Attitude Scales (Estes, Johnstone & Richards, 1975). This particular instrument was chosen for its reliability and validity. Reliability coefficients for the secondary form were computed from data gathered from two administrations. When testing 629 students in grades seven through 12, the reliability coefficient was .93; when testing 194 students from grades seven, eight, and nine, the reliability coefficient was .87 (Estes, Johnstone & Richards, 1975). Summers (1977) wrote, "technically and conceptually, [it is] the best developed reading attitude scale to date" (p. 152).

The reading section of the Estes Attitude Scales consists of 15 statements designed to bring to mind the construct "reading". The survey is a Likert-type or summated ratings scale, meaning that "a summation of the values of each student's response on the scale will yield a quantitative representation of his attitude..." (Estes, 1971, p. 136).

In order to establish content validity for the Secondary Form of the Estes Attitude Scales, Estes developed a pool of several hundred statements concerning attitude toward school subjects through a search of related literature. Teachers and students also provided items which they felt would differentiate between positive and negative attitudes. Each item was judged for its content validity. Items which appeared to

assess a broad range of content in each of the five subject areas (English, mathematics, reading, social studies, and science) and appeared to have face validity were included in a trial administration. A scale of 30 statements for each of the subjects was administered to approximately 600 secondary students. Item analyses identified those statements which were most effective in discriminating between high and low scoring students. By this method, each of the five content area scales was reduced to twenty items.

Estes established factorial validity through data analysis of two administrations. The attitude scales were first administered to approximately 100 public school students at each grade level, seventh through twelveth. Varimax rotated factor loadings demonstrated that the designated scale items did group according to specific subject areas. The 15 items with the highest factor loadings for each of the five subject areas were retained for further testing. The five 15 item scales were then administered to all seventh, eighth, and ninth grade public school students attending a junior high school; 194 completed all five scales. Data analysis demonstrated that each of the attitude scales did assess a distinct aspect of attitude toward a specific subject area (Estes, Estes, Richards & Roettger, 1981).

"Convergent validity is demonstrated by showing that test scores are positively correlated with alternative measures of the same construct" (Estes et al., 1981). Johnstone (1974) collected data on six such criteria from the students in grades seven through 12 who completed the original 20-item scale. She examined self-ratings of attitude, peer judgments of attitude, teacher rankings of attitude, course grades,

standardized achievement scores, and reports of extra-curricular activities. In order to analyze the relationship of these criteria with the reading section of the secondary form of the Estes Attitude Scales, correlation coefficients were computed at the .01 level of confidence. The relationship between self rating of reading attitude and reading attitude scores was positive and of relatively high value (r=.70). This indicates a strong tendency for students who perceived themselves as having a positive attitude toward reading to have high scores on the reading attitude survey, and those who described themselves as persons who did not enjoy reading to have low scores on the reading attitude survey. The correlation between reading achievement and reading attitude scores was positive and moderately strong (r=.50). This reveals a moderately strong tendency for students with high scores on the reading section of the Sequential Tests of Educational Progress to also have highly positive scores on the reading attitude survey. Peer judgments (r=.37) and extracurricular activities (r=.31) were also positively related to reading attitude. Each of these correlations was also significant at the .001 confidence level. No data were available for the correlation of teacher rankings of course grades with the reading attitude scale scores since reading was not taught as a separate subject.

The reading section of the secondary form of the Estes Attitude Scales was reprinted and designated as Reading Attitude Survey A for the purpose of this study. Verbal permission to use this attitude scale was secured in May, 1982, from Dr. Thomas H. Estes, University of Virginia.

In order to supplement the data obtainable through the use of the Estes Attitude Scale (Estes et al., 1975), an attitude scale was developed

for use in this study by the researcher. An attitude scale constructed by Sister Mary Victoria Eisenman as part of her dissertation research (1962) provided the basis for the self-developed instrument.

After a review of the literature related to attitude assessment, a list of 20 statements representing positive attitudes toward reading was compiled. Three functions of reading were considered when selecting the statements: reading as an informational tool, as a leisure time activity, and as a means of developing greater awareness of self and others. A panel of experts provided their opinions concerning the relevancy of each statement to an assessment of junior high school students' attitudes toward reading. On the basis of this feedback, 15 items were retained. Five of these items were then reworded as negative statements with regard to reading in order to minimize response set.

The resulting instrument, Reading Attitude Survey B, was field tested at a junior high school in Marshalltown, Iowa in May, 1982. A class of 22 students was selected by the media specialist to complete the survey. The class was described by the teacher as quite diverse with regard to ability and economic background. The media specialist added that, while there were a number of good readers represented, there were no students in the class that she considered to be outstanding readers.

In order to establish a measure of convergent validity, teachers' judgment of student attitude was compared to student scores on the attitude scale. In keeping with the methodology described in Estes Attitude Scales: Measures of Attitude Toward School Subjects (Estes et al., 1981), the media specialist and the teacher were asked to judge the attitudes of the students who were to complete the survey on a three

point scale. Those perceived to rank in the top 27% of the class in positive reading attitude were ranked as three. Those students who appeared to fall in the middle 46% in positive attitude toward reading were ranked as two. Those that were predicted to be in the bottom 27% were ranked as one. Enthusiasm for reading, frequency of free reading, and comments about reading were asked to be considered in making these judgments. Tabulation of the students' scores revealed a mean of 54.6 for the group designated by the teacher as having the most positive reading attitudes. The mean score for the middle group was 52.9, with the lowest group scoring a mean of 49.0. Examining the media specialists predictions, the mean for the top group was 54.9 and 46.0 for the lowest group (see Table 1).

The classroom teacher was asked to respond to questions regarding the content of the attitude survey and its administration. She wrote, "I feel that the statements were valid, easy to understand, and relevant to the students' lives." She made a suggestion regarding the administration of the instrument that she felt would heighten student attention to directions for completing the survey. This change was reflected in the instructions for administration used in the study.

The attitude survey was administered a second time later in the week to determine if the same scores would be obtained on a second administration. Of the 22 respondents, 15 had identical scores or showed a variance of one to two points, two students' scores differed by three points, one by six points, and the remaining four by seven or more. Three of the four showing the greatest variance were predicted to be in the average group by their teacher.

Table 1

Field Test Comparison of Educators' Assessment of Student Attitude and Student Scores on Attitude Survey B

Educator	Predicted Category	Number of Students	Range of Attitude Scores	Mean of Attitude Scores
Classroom Teacher	Top 27%	8	33-63	54.6
	Middle 46%	12	41-64	52.9
	Bottom 27%	5	42-62	49.0
Media Specialist	Top 27%	9	46-63	54.9
	Middle 46%[a]	10	33-65	54.7
	Bottom 27%	6	41-50	46.0

[a]Indicated insufficient knowledge of some students in this category to make accurate assessment.

The pilot study suggested the following: (1) Students could read and understand the instrument. (2) The instrument was simple to administer. (3) The instrument tended to offer scores in the predicted direction. (4) Test/retest reliability was adequate to proceed with further testing. Computation of the Pearson product-moment yielded a correlation coefficient of .96, showing a very high positive correlation between the scores on the two administrations of the attitude survey ($p < .01$).

In order to provide some behavioral confirmation of attitude toward reading, Reading Record Cards were used to gather data concerning the frequency with which students choose to read. Nilsen, coauthor of Literature for Today's Young Adults, (Donelson & Nilsen, 1980) supports the inclusion of behavioral data. She expressed the belief that students do not answer attitude surveys honestly. "You have to judge more by their actions than by what they tell you" (Nilsen, 1983).

The Reading Record Cards provided for student listing of books, magazines, and other printed materials they had read (see Appendix C, page 90). In order to facilitate the accuracy of reporting, students were asked to complete these forms three different times during the 12-week study. It was assumed that students might be more likely to remember what they had read if recall was limited to a four-week period.

In order to obtain information concerning instructional techniques employed in the 25 classrooms, a checklist of teaching strategies was designed. A search of the literature examining teaching strategies which positively affect student attitude toward reading was conducted. Due to the limited research and inconclusive findings in this area, a listing was made of those instructional strategies cited in the literature

review as most influential. General strategies widely used in the teaching of reading were also included in order to disguise the intent of the instrument and to insure that each teacher would be able to respond to certain items. In order to minimize a "forced choice" mind set, teachers were advised in the initial meeting that it would be most unlikely that any educator would feel the need to utilize all of the strategies in a given four week period. Teachers were invited to write in any strategy utilized which was not printed on the survey. The form provided for indication of the frequency of use of each of the teaching strategies listed. A copy of the Instructional Strategies Survey is offered as Appendix D, page 92.

Data Collection

With decisions made respective to the subjects and instruments to be used, it was then possible to proceed to the actual implementation of the study. On September 17, the cooperating teachers were given an initial packet containing the schedule for the study (see Appendix F, page 99), and materials needed for initiating the study. During the fifth week of school, September 20-24, the 32 teachers solicited student cooperation with a standard explanation included as Appendix E, page 96. Agreement to participate in the study was accepted as informal consent for inclusion in the data analysis. Both teachers and participating students responded to Reading Attitude Surveys A and B. It was assumed that this would provide a base rate of response against which change could be measured. It was further assumed that teacher scores on the reading attitude survey would show little subsequent variance; therefore this was the sole administration of the attitude survey for teachers.

Teachers subsequently completed Teaching Strategies questionnaires at four-week intervals as students simultaneously completed Reading Record cards. Students were then readministered Reading Attitude Scales A and B during December 6-10. This completed the data collection period.

In order to minimize teacher responsibility in the study and maximize data collection, the reading attitude surveys administered during the week of September 20-24 were collected by the researcher the following week. At this time, the reading record cards and instructional strategies needed on October 14-15 were left for the teachers. This procedure of picking up completed forms the week following each administration and leaving packets containing the necessary materials for the next phase was continued throughout the study.

Treatment of the Data

Raw data were transferred to columned data sheets and then key-punched. Class mean attitude scores for each of the two administrations of Attitude Surveys A and B were computed. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was calculated to determine the correlation between teachers' attitudes toward reading and the reading attitudes of their classes. Four correlations were thus obtained: teacher and student reading attitude scores on the first administration of Reading Attitude Survey A, teacher and student reading attitude scores on the first administration of Reading Attitude Survey B, and teacher scores on the first administration of Reading Attitude Surveys A and B with student scores from the second administration of the same.

Student reported reading information was coded and recorded in four categories--books, magazines, newspapers, and stories - for each of the three administrations. Totals of each student's reading, including all

four categories and all three administrations, provided the data necessary to compute class means. A frequency distribution of these class means was established. The Pearson r formula was then used to measure the relationship between teacher attitude as measured by Reading Attitude Survey A and the amount of student reading.

In order to determine the correlation between student attitude and the amount of student reading, class means on each administration of Reading Attitude Surveys A and B were compared with class means on the total amount of reading reported by the students. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was computed to determine this relationship. Frequency distributions of student reading categorized as books, magazines, and newspapers were also established and examined.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

Reasons underlying the selection of the sample were discussed at some length in Chapter III. Although 32 of the 33 3ligible teachers originally expressed a willingness to participate, only 25 (83%) completed the study. Table 2, presents the reasons for exclusion of both teacher and student subjects. Of the four teachers with uncorrectable errors in administration of the survey instruments, one failed to administer the reading attitude surveys in September, one gave the September and December administrations of the reading attitude surveys to different classes, and two teachers returned only one of the three sets of reading record cares.

Seven data points for each student subject comprised the student data for this study: two administrations of Reading Attitude Survey A and Reading Attitude Survey B, and three administrations of the student reading record cards. The decision was made that information must be available for six of these seven data points in order for a student to remain in the study. Teachers completed the first administration of Reading Attitude Surveys A and B and three instructional strategies surveys. Since instructional strategies were not a component of the present study and as such were not included as essential data points, two data points comprised the teacher data base.

The one allowable missing data point proved to be a problem in utilizing the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) for data analysis. When all students were missing data within one class, the SPSS system consistently

Table 2

Reasons for Exclusions of Subjects

Number of eligible subjects	
Teachers	33
Students	720[a]
Exclusions	
Teachers	
Declined to participate	1
Personal withdrawal during study	3
Uncorrectable errors in administration	4
Total exclusions	8
Students	
Declined to participate	25
Assigned to nonparticipating teachers	166[a]
Incomplete data	102
Total exclusions	293
Participating subjects	
Teachers	25
Students	427

[a]Numbers are approximate.

eliminated those subjects. When directed to include all subjects, missing data were coded as zeros and class means were lowered proportionately. As a result, several of the means required separate calculations.

Hypotheses involving reading attitude scores were accepted or rejected on the basis of data from Reading Attitude Survey A because of the instrument's proven validity and reliability. Data from Reading Attitude Survey B would serve as corroborative information.

As previously reported, Reading Attitude Surveys A and B were completed by teachers and students during the week of September 20-24, 1982, the fifth week of the school year. Students again responded to the surveys during the week of December 6-10, the 16th week of the school year. In scoring the surveys, some decisions were made for the purposes of consistency. Single items which were left blank in otherwise complete surveys were assigned a three, "Cannot Decide." Duplicate answers were likewise assigned a three,"Cannot Decide." Surveys which were obviously left uncompleted were not included in the data analyses. Both the scoring of the surveys and the coding of this information on data sheets were checked for accuracy.

Attitude scores for teachers on the first administration of Reading Attitude Surveys A and B were computed. These were the sole teacher attitude scores and were used in each correlation involving teacher attitude. Mean class attitude scores for each administration of the two surveys were computed. Tables 3 and 4, report this information.

The first hypothesis stated that no statistically significant ($p < .05$) positive correlation would exist between teacher scores on the

Table 3

Teacher Scores and Class Means
for Reading Attitude Survey A

Teacher Number[a]	Teacher Scores	Administration 1 Class Means	Administration 2 Class Means
2	72	57.93	53.93
3	75	55.36	57.73
4	75	54.25	48.37
5	75	52.67	52.90
6	74	63.47	59.32
7	75	51.71	56.12
8	63	51.33	55.93
9	70	48.25	49.75
10	75	51.78	49.67
11	74	50.90	53.10
13	72	52.04	50.08
14	61	56.05	56.19
15	59	53.92	53.63
16	68	48.57	48.59
17	66	56.74	54.65
18	74	41.94	49.00
19	75	63.00	55.40
20	72	57.94	56.67
21	75	48.32	49.11
22	75	53.50	54.20
23	75	52.10	52.30
24	73	53.61	54.35
25	75	55.74	56.42
26	72	58.83	58.33
28	70	49.64	48.57
Grand Mean	71.60	53.58	53.37

NOTE: Highest possible score is 75.

[a]Missing numbers reflect exclusion of teacher subjects.

Table 4

Teacher Scores and Class Means
for Reading Attitude Survey B

Teacher Number[a]	Teacher Scores	Administration 1 Class Means	Administration 2 Class Means
2	72	55.43	57.29
3	70	56.27	52.18
4	65	57.25	47.50
5	74	53.80	53.30
6	66	59.21	56.79
7	73	55.12	56.18
8	61	51.87	56.79
9	50	49.13	50.87
10	68	52.88	49.00
11	71	51.80	57.60
13	69	51.21	51.92
14	66	53.48	No Data
15	66	52.95	53.17
16	61	48.91	51.05
17	68	52.78	52.59
18	71	45.00	47.25
19	68	58.40	No Data
20	4	56.72	No Data
21	71	50.42	49.63
22	73	54.15	53.45
23	74	52.10	52.00
24	73	No Data	49.55
25	66	No Data	55.46
26	67	No Data	55.46
28	64	49.79	46.96
Grand Mean	67.64	55.65	55.05

NOTE: Highest possible score is 75.

[a]Missing numbers reflect exclusion of teacher subjects.

attitude toward reading scales and student scores on the same. The Pearson product-moment formula was used to determine the correlation between the individual teacher reading attitude scores and class mean reading attitude scores. Scores from Reading Attitude Survey A produced the following correlation coefficients: first administration, r = +.01; second administration, r = -0.11. The correlation coefficients were not significant at the .05 level of confidence. The results suggested that, in this study, teacher attitude was not a measurable factor in the variance of student attitude scores. The null hypothesis was thus accepted. Table 6, presents the statistical analysis for this hypothesis.

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was computed using scores from Reading Attitude Survey B for both teachers and students. The correlation coefficient for the first administration, r = +.16, and the correlation coefficient for the second administration, r = +.14, supported the acceptance of the null hypothesis.

Tables 3 and 4 demonstrate the variability in teacher scores on both reading attitude surveys. Although there is a 15-point range in teacher attitude scores, the majority of the variability is accounted for in five of the teacher scores with the scores of the other 20 teachers falling between 70 and 75. Ten of these 20 teachers scored 75, the highest possible score. Thus, teacher reading attitude scores "ceiling" out but student attitude scores produced divergent class means. It is therefore possible that the limited range of teacher attitude scores rendered the likelihood of a correlation improbable. The Pearson r is a measure of the linear relationship between two variables, whether increasingly higher scores in one variable are associated with increasingly

higher scores in a second variable. Although class reading attitude means varied widely, teacher scores tended to be homogeneous, thus restricting the potential size of the correlation coefficient.

The second hypothesis stated that no statistically significant ($p < .05$) positive correlation would exist between teacher scores on the attitude toward reading scales and the amount of reading done by students. The format of the reading record cards directed students to report their reading of books, magazines, and any other printed materials. A perusal of the information found on the reading cards led the researcher to code reading information in four categories: books, magazines, newspapers, and stories. Encyclopedia articles and the Bible were coded as magazines since such reading often involves similiar reading strategies--scanning followed by reading a selected passage. Multiple issues of magazines were counted separately. Students who did not hand in reading record cards had no information recorded for that particular administration. Zeros were recorded in each reading category for those students who submitted reading record cards containing only their name.

A mean was computed for the total reading done by each class as reported on the three reading record cards. Table 5 depicts the frequency distribution for these data. The Pearson product-moment formula was computed to determine the correlation between teacher attitude scores as measured by Reading Attitude Survey A and the reading record scores. A correlation coefficient of -0.09 resulted, suggesting that teacher attitude toward reading was not related to the amount of student reading. The null hypothesis was thus not rejected. Table 6 presents the statistical analysis for this hypothesis.

Table 5

Frequency Distribution of Reading Record Means by Classroom Groups

Class Intervals: Number of Titles Read	Frequency	Cumulative Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
10-12	4	4	16	16
13-15	8	12	32	48
16-18	2	14	8	56
19-21	4	18	16	72
22-24	4	22	16	88
25-27	1	23	4	92
28-30	0	23	0	92
31-33	1	24	4	96
34-36	1	25	4	100

NOTE: Means are inclusive of all categories of reading materials on the reading record cards.

Table 6

Statistical Analysis for Hypotheses One and Two

	Coefficient	Cases	Significance
HYPOTHESIS 1: Correlation of Teacher Attitude Scores with Class Mean Attitude Scores			
Reading Attitude Survey A: First Administration	+ .01	25	P = .47
Reading Attitude Survey A: Second Administration	- .11	25	p = .30
Reading Attitude Survey B: First Administration	+ .16	22	p = .24
Reading Attitude Survey B: Second Administration	+ .14	22	p = .27
HYPOTHESIS 2: Correlation of Teacher Attitude Scores with Class Reading Means	- .29	25	p = .08

NOTE: Neither hypothesis was rejected since correlation coefficients were not significant at $p < .05$.

The third hypothesis stated that no statistically significant ($p < .05$) positive correlation would exist between student scores on the attitude toward reading surveys and the amount of reading done by students. The class means which had been computed for student reading served as the basis for correlation with the two administrations of Reading Attitude Survey A. The Pearson product-moment formula was used to determine the relationship between the variables. A coefficient of +.24 was obtained when correlating class reading attitude means on the first administration of Reading Attitude Survey A with class reading record means. The correlation coefficient of +.27 resulted when correlating class reading attitude means on the second administration of Reading Attitude Survey A with class reading record means. Both coefficients were statistically significant at the .05 level of confidence. On this basis, the null hypothesis was rejected, indicating that a statistically significant correlation did exist between student scores on the attitude toward reading surveys and the amount of reading done by students. Table 7 reports the statistical analysis of hypothesis three.

Although statistically significant in terms of this study, correlation coefficients of +.35 and +.40 indicate a positive, but not a strong, relationship between student attitude toward reading and the amount of reading that students chose to do. This suggests that there is a slight tendency for students with high scores on the reading attitude survey to read more than students with low scores.

In order to provide further information, the Pearson product-moment formula was computed to survey the relationship between student attitude toward reading as measured by each of the two administrations of Reading

Table 7

Statistical Analysis for Hypothesis Three
Correlation Between Student Attitude Toward Reading
and Student Free Reading

Variables	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Correlation Coefficients	Probability
Reading Attitude Survey A Administration 1	426	53.52	11.23	.24	.0001
Reading Score	426	17.31	11.72		
Reading Attitude Survey A Administration 2	425	53,28	11.05	.27	.0001
Reading Score	425	17.38	11.75		
Reading Attitude Survey B Administration 1	354	52.69	9.37	.23	.0001
Reading Score	354	17.06	12.25		
Reading Attitude Survey B Administration 2	375	52.41	10.04	.31	.0001
Reading Score	375	16.56	9.50		

NOTE: Variance in Number reflects the one missing data point allowable while remaining a subject in the study.

Attitude Survey B and the student reading record means. A coefficient of +.23 was derived from the correlation of the first administration of Reading Attitude Survey B and student reading record means. The correlation of the second administration of Reading Attitude Survey B and student reading record means produced a coefficient of +.31. The coefficients were statistically significant at the .05 level of confidence.

Frequency distributions for the three largest categories of reading materials reported on the reading record cards, books, magazines and newspapers, were prepared in order to provide a more detailed account of the types of materials read by the students. Means for each category were also computed. As indicated in Table 8, 50% of the students reported reading slightly less than three books during the were also computed. As indicated in Table 8, 50% of the students reported reading slightly less than three books during the 12-week study. The mean of 4.1 books was raised considerably by the few students who read significantly more.

Table 9 represents the frequency distribution for student magazine reading. The cumulative frequency indicates that 50% of the students read between one and two magazines during the 12-week period with a mean of 4.1. In this study, more students reported reading books than magazines, with 33 students indicating no books read as compared to 60 who reported reading no magazines. The means for numbers of books and magazines read were the same, however.

Table 10 reports the frequency distribution for student reading of newspapers. Of the 427 students in the study, 258 read no newspapers during the twelve-week study. The mean for newspaper reading was .34.

Table 8

Frequency Distribution for Books Read as Reported on Student Reading Record Cards

Number of Books Read by Individual Students	Students Reporting This Number of Books	Percentate of 100% Represented by Number of Books Read	Frequency Corrected for Missing Data	Cumulative Frequency
0	33	7.7	8.7	8.7
1	48	11.2	12.6	21.3
2	65	15.2	17.1	38.4
3	52	12.2	13.7	52.1
4	41	9.6	10.8	62.9
5	42	9.8	11.1	73.9
6	30	7.0	7.9	81.8
7	23	5.4	6.1	87.9
8	10	2.3	2.6	90.5
9	6	1.4	1.6	92.1
10	11	2.6	2.9	95.0
11	2	0.5	0.5	95.5
12	7	1.6	1.8	97.4
13	7	1.6	1.8	99.2
14	1	.2	.3	99.5
21	1	.2	.3	99.7
23	1	.2	.3	100.0
99[a]	47	11.2	Missing	100.0
TOTAL	427	100.0	100.0	

NOTE: Relative, adjusted and cumulative frequencies are reported as percentages.

[a]99 = Missing data.

Table 9

Frequency Distribution for Magazines Read as Reported on Student Reading Record Cards

Number of Magazines Read by Individual Students	Students Reporting This Number of Magazines	Percentage of 100% Represented by Number of Magazines Read	Frequency Corrected for Missing Data	Cumulative Frequency
0	60	14.1	15.8	15.8
1	55	12.9	14.5	30.3
2	114	26.7	30.0	60.3
3	52	12.2	13.7	73.9
4	56	13.1	14.7	88.7
5	22	5.2	5.8	94.5
6	7	1.6	1.8	96.3
7	2	0.5	0.5	96.8
8	6	1.4	1.6	98.4
9	4	0.9	1.1	99.5
13	2	0.5	0.5	100.0
99[a]	47	11.0	Missing	100.0
TOTAL	427	100.0	100.0	

NOTE: Relative, adjusted and cumulative frequencies are reported as percentages.

[a]99 = Missing data.

Table 10

Frequency Distribution for Newspapers Read as Reported on Student Reading Record Cards

Number of Newspapers Read by Individual Students	Students Reporting This Number of Newspapers	Percentages of 100% Represented by Number of Newspapers Read	Frequency Corrected for Missing Data	Cumulative Frequency
0	258	60.4	67.9	67.9
1	116	27.2	30.5	98.4
2	4	0.9	1.1	99.5
3	2	0.5	0.5	100.0
99[a]	47	11.0	Missing	100.0
TOTAL	427	100.0	100.0	

NOTE: Relative, adjusted and cumulative frequencies are reported as percentages.

[a]99 = Missing data.

Analyses were then undertaken to determine the differences in amount of free reading done by students with high, middle, and low attitude scores. Class means on both administrations of Reading Attitude Survey A were averaged to give composite mean class attitude scores. A normal curve of the distribution of scores was established. In keeping with the specifications for a normal curve, the upper 16% was denoted as the top attitude group and the bottom 16% as the low group. Four class means thus comprised the top group with scores ranging from 61.40 to 57.30. The following four means of the low group ranged from 45.47 to 49.00. The middle group, comprised of the remaining 17 class means had scores ranging from 50.72 to 56.12. Class reading record means were then paired with class attitude means. A total reading mean was computed for each of the three attitude groups. The reading mean for the top group was 23.29, indicating that the classes with the most positive attitudes toward reading as measured by the two administrations of Reading Attitude Survey A read an average of slightly more than 23 books, magazines, and newspapers. This score was quite diverse from that of the other two attitude groups, i.e., total reading mean of 17.04 for the middle attitude group and 18.17 for the low attitude group. It is evident that those students who expressed the most favorable attitudes toward reading also did the most reading. The relationship was not as clear with the middle and low attitude groups since three of the five total reading means for the low attitude group were high and the two lowest total reading means fell in the lower portion of the middle attitude group. Table 11 presents this data.

In order to provide additional information concerning Reading Attitude Survey B, the Pearson product-moment formula was computed to assess the

Table 11

Reading Record Means Paired with Class Means for Reading Attitude Survey A Administrations Categorized by Group

Attitude Group	Class Means: Reading Attitude Survey A	Class Means: Reading Record	Grand Mean
High	61.40	15.33	23.29
	59.20	20.80	
	58.58	24.46	
	57.30	32.56	
Middle	56.12	20.74	17.04
	56.08	24.68	
	55.93	34.64	
	55.70	15.15	
	54.05	15.14	
	53.98	12.26	
	53.91	16.93	
	53.85	16.65	
	53.77	21.57	
	53.63	22.73	
	52.78	13.00	
	52.20	14.68	
	52.00	14.60	
	51.31	10.00	
	51.06	12.55	
	50.72	10.67	
	49.11	13.65	
Low	49.00	21.62	18.17
	48.71	19.08	
	48.58	20.38	
	45.47	11.58	

NOTE: Grouped according to specifications for normal curve.

relationship between this survey and Reading Attitude Survey A. The largest of the 25 classes in the study with complete data for the first two administrations of both attitude surveys was chosen for the analyses in order to provide maximum information. Scores for the teacher and the 27 students were paired, Reading Attitude Survey A with Reading Attitude Survey B. The raw score formula for the Pearson r was calculated, yielding a correlation coefficient of +.40, indicative of a low positive correlation between the two survey instruments. There is, therefore, a positive, but not strong, likelihood that scores on Reading Attitude Survey A would be matched by scores on Reading Attitude Survey B. The correlation coefficient of .40 was statistically significant at the .05 level of confidence.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

While credence has historically been given to the role of positive attitudes in student learning, relatively little research has been undertaken which focuses on reading attitude. Although greater interest has been shown in this affective area of reading in the last 10 years, reading attitude research is still sparce. Davis (1978) reported that only 110 research studies concerning reading attitudes were published in professional journals from 1900 through 1977.

Although generating less research than the cognitive aspects of reading, attitudes are an important component of reading. Koe (1969) stated that attitude is a vital factor in the development of readers. Heilman (1977) identified the development of positive attitude toward reading as one of the most important goals of beginning reading instruction. Agin (1974) reported that most authors of recent research in reading identify attitude as one of the most important aspects of the educational process.

Although many educators believe that teacher attitudes influence the development of student attitudes, results of the limited research undertaken to verify the hypothesis have been mixed. Data from Schofield's (1980) year-long research study of students in grades four through six revealed that the teachers with high reading attitude and achievement scores produced higher levels of reading achievement and more positive student attitudes than did teachers with lower attitude and achievement scores. Somewhat different results were reported by Eisenman (1965) who

conducted a study of 40 teachers and their students in grades five and eight. Focusing on attitudes toward literature, Eisenman's research revealed only a nominal relationship between teacher attitude scores and mean class attitude scores.

Student attitudes toward reading affect student achievement and free reading behavior. Kemper (1969) stated that students with positive attitudes toward reading would read more than their more negatively predisposed peers. Sauls' (1971) research substantiated Kemper's statement when a low but statistically significant correlation ($r = +.19$) was found to exist between pupils' scores on a reading attitude scale and the number of books read.

A number of factors influence student attitudes toward reading. Many of these are largely outside the influence of the school: reading behavior of parents, availability of reading materials in the home, and the value which parents and peers place on reading. Factors which fall within the purview of the school include student interests, student self-concept, teacher attitude toward reading, and classroom organization and instructional programs.

Educators have assigned certain roles to teachers in the development of positive attitudes: analyzing their own personal attitudes, appraising student attitudes, identifying student interests, reinforcing student self-concept, providing a reading model, and working with parents. Research has yet to statistically demonstrate the validity of specific instructional strategies in positively influencing student attitudes toward reading.

Developing and maintaining positive attitudes toward reading is an essential component of reading instruction if students are to become lifelong readers. Research must be implemented which focuses upon the factors influencing the growth of positive student attitudes toward reading. Results from such research may make possible the development of reading programs which meet the cognitive and affective needs of children and thus prove to be effective in producing skillful readers who choose to read throughout their lives.

This researcher chose to examine teacher attitude toward reading as it influenced the development of student reading attitudes and reading behavior. Since the junior high school years have been denoted as the beginning of a decline in student interest in reading, seventh grade language arts students were the subjects in this study.

Conclusions

No correlation was found between teacher and student attitude toward reading. In this study, the variance in teacher scores was limited with scores falling within a relatively small range. Twenty of the 25 teacher attitude scores were between 70 and 75. As a result, teachers with high scores taught classes with high, middle and low attitude mean scores. Thus the variance in class means was not identifiably attributable to teacher attitude within the scope of this study. Of the classes assigned to the 20 highest scoring teachers, six had means that increased from the first to the second administration of Reading Attitude Survey A, six means decreased, and seven remained essentially the same.

This researcher recommends that an instrument designed specifically to measure teacher attitude toward reading is needed, one which would

more effectively differentiate between degrees of teacher attitude. Such an instrument might also include an assessment of teacher attitude toward the teaching of reading.

There was no correlation between teacher attitude toward reading and the amount of reading done by students. However, a statistically significant, low positive correlation did exist between student attitudes toward reading and the amount of free reading done by students. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. This indicates that there is a slight tendency for students with high scores on the reading attitude surveys to engage in wide free reading and for students with lower attitude scores to read less.

Although the correlation coefficients for the relationship between student attitudes toward reading and the amount of student free reading were statistically significant, they account for a very small portion of the variability in scores. Interpreting the correlations in terms of variability, only five to six percent of the variability in students' attitude scores can be associated with the number of books read by students. This suggests that other factors accounted for more than 90% of the total variability in scores.

The seventh grade students in this researcher's study reported reading magazines in addition to books. The mean for number of magazines read during the 12-week period was the same as that for books, 4.1. However, more students reported reading books than magazines. Very few students reported newspaper reading, reflected in the mean of .34.

Recommendations for Further Research

Further research is needed which focuses upon the influence of teacher attitude on the attitude of their students. A particularly strong need exists for the development of an instrument designed specifically to measure teacher attitude toward reading and toward the teaching of reading. In order to maximize confidence in the results obtained from its use, the instrument must have proven statistical validity and reliability.

Research is also needed to determine whether instructional strategies is a variable affecting student attitude toward reading. While many educators support the contention that certain instructional strategies are effective in this regard, research must substantiate this contention and identify the strategies most effective in developing positive student attitudes toward reading. Survey research might be conducted initially, but it should be followed by experimental research which tests the validity and applicability of the findings.

Research which studies the combined influence of teacher attitude toward reading and the teaching of reading and various teaching strategies on student attitudes toward reading would provide useful information for faculty development, curriculum planning, and teacher educators. Research is also needed which focuses on a combination of variables and which seeks to assess the relative strength of each in influencing positive student reading attitudes and wider free reading. This author suggests the following combinations since these variables are largely within the purview of educators: teacher attitude, teaching strategies, student self-concept, student interests, and the role of the media specialist.

Longitudinal research would be beneficial in investigating student attitude toward reading. Such a research design might produce additional

information about the factors which influence the initial and continued development of student reading attitudes and might document more specifically the teacher's role in this process. This broader view of student attitude development might provide worthwhile information for planning instructional reading programs which effectively meet the affective and cognitive needs of students. As a control, an observational component should be part of the research design.

Research should also be conducted which provides assessments of the three components of reading attitude suggested by Lewis and Teale (1980): individual development, utilitarian, and enjoyment. While the statements which comprised Reading Attitude Survey B were formulated on the basis of these factors, it was not feasible to accurately assess each of these areas in a fifteen-item survey. The measurement instrument employed must be sufficiently comprehensive to assess each of the three components of reading attitude and must have been proven to be reliable and valid. Such research could conceivably utilize an experimental design to determine the instructional strategies which enhance each of the three attitude factors.

While Reading Attitude Survey B provided the additional information desired for the purposes of this study, further refinement and testing to document its validity are necessary before its use as a researcher's sole assessment tool for measuring student attitudes toward reading. This author contends that the research efforts needed for the refinement and validation of the instrument would be better spent in further examination of the variables which positively influence student attitudes toward reading. Such research should include junior and senior high school

students as subjects and should employ both the reading section of the Estes Attitude Scales (Estes, Johnston & Richards, 1975) and the Lewis and Teale reading attitude scales (1980) as assessment tools.

Suggestions for further research have centered around reading attitude since this study found a correlation, albeit low, between student attitude toward reading and subsequent free reading. There is thus reason to believe that greater knowledge of student reading attitude and the ways in which teachers can best influence its positive development may be key factors in enhancing student free reading.

This study analyzed the amount of student free reading in order to provide a basis for the acceptance or rejection of defined hypotheses. However, the point should be made that the amount of student reading done, per se, is not the critical issue. The critical issue is the development within students of a desire to read for pleasure, for information, and for personal and social development that will become an intrinsic part of their lives.

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APPENDIX A

Your Name _____ Your Teacher's Name _____

READING ATTITUDE SURVEY A	Strongly Agree	Agree	Cannot Decide	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. Reading is for learning but not for enjoyment.					
2. Spending allowance on books is a waste of good money.					
3. Reading books is a good way to spend spare time.					
4. Books are a bore.					
5. Watching T.V. is better than reading.					
6. Reading is rewarding to me.					
7. Books aren't usually good enough to finish.					
8. Reading becomes boring after about an hour.					
9. Most books are too long and dull.					
10. There are many books which I hope to read.					
11. Books should only be read when they are assigned.					
12. Reading is something I can do without.					
13. Some part of summer vacation should be set aside for reading.					
14. Books make good presents.					
15. Reading is dull.					

APPENDIX B

Your Name _____ Your Teacher's Name _____

READING ATTITUDE SURVEY B	Strongly Agree	Agree	Cannot Decide	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. I don't like to read books.					
2. Reading a book can make me feel happier.					
3. Some books seem so real that I feel that I'm part of the story.					
4. I learn about things I'm interested in by reading books.					
5. I read books even when I don't have a book report to do.					
6. When I finish reading a book, I'm glad to be through with it.					
7. A book can be good company.					
8. Reading some books causes me to think about what I think is really important in life.					
9. Reading books helps me to understand other people better.					
10. Reading books about other people sometimes helps me to understand myself better.					
11. Reading books about the problems of people my age makes me worry about my own problems.					
12. You can't learn much about life by reading books.					
13. I occasionally enjoy reading poems.					
14. I enjoy some poems so much that I read them many times.					
15. I would feel foolish talking to my friends about books I have read.					

APPENDIX C

READING RECORD

Your Name_____ Teacher_____

List the books and magazines that you have read during the last four weeks. You may also list any other reading that you have done during this time.

BOOKS READ

_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

MAGAZINES

_____	_____
_____	_____

OTHER

_____	_____

APPENDIX D

INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES

The following represents a wide variety of instructional strategies related to the teaching of reading. Please indicate those strategies which you have used during the previous four weeks and the number of times they were used. Write in any strategy used but not included on this form.

		1	2-3	4 or more
1.	Organizational practices			
	a. Whole class instruction			
	b. Organized reading groups			
	c. Grouping for specific instruction			
2.	Work with the skills of reading			
	a. Comprehension			
	b. Word attack skills			
	c. Reading in the content areas			
	d. Vocabulary study			
3.	Materials used in the reading program			
	a. Basal texts			
	b. Supplementary readers			
	c. Young adult literature			
	d. Newspapers			
4.	Reading Assignments			
	a. From the text			
	b. Parallel reading			
	c. Independent reading for book reports			
5.	Questioning classroom reading			
	a. Oral responses to teacher's questions			
	b. Written responses to teacher's questions			
	c. Discussion of student formulated questions			
6.	Questioning independent reading (self-selected)			
	a. Oral responses to teacher's questions			
	b. Written responses to teacher's questions			
	c. Discussion of student formulated questions			
7.	Record Keeping			
	a. Assessment of classwork			
	b. Assessment of homework			
	c. Notes from teacher-pupil book conferences			
	d. Individual reading records			
8.	Oral reading by students			
	a. Selections from the text			
	b. Selections from independent reading			
9.	Sustained silent reading (self-selected materials)			
10.	Teacher reading independently during SSR			
11.	Class use of the school library			

		1	2-3	4 or more
12.	Utilization of Poetry			
	a. Analysis of poetry			
	b. Memorization			
	c. Oral or choral reading			
13.	Determining and utilizing student interests			
	a. Administration of interest survey			
	b. Individual conferences with pupils			
	c. Books made available that reflect student interest			
	d. Assignment allowing student choice of reading material			
14.	Book talks			
	a. By the teacher			
	b. By the students			
15.	Oral reading to the class			
	a. Selections from the text			
	b. Selections from young adult literature			
16.	Bulletin board related to books or book display			
17.	Provision of reading lists			
	a. Required readings			
	b. Suggested readings related to a unit of study			
	c. Suggested books for recreational reading			
18	Storytelling			
	a. By the teacher			
	b. By the students			
19.	Dramatization of readings			
20.	Audio-visual presentation			
	a. To supplement text material			
	b. To encourage independent reading			
21.	Informal discussion by the teacher of his/her personal reading			
22.	Teacher recommendation of books to individual students			
23.	Reporting on books			
	a. Written book reports			
	b. Oral book reports			
	c. Student choice of method of presentation			
	d. Small group discussion of individual reading			
	e. Time allowed for informal discussion of books among friends			
	f. Teacher-pupil conferences			
24.	Communication with parents			

Check the type of reading instruction which most nearly describes that which your students receive:

_____basal book

_____individualized according to instruction in skills

_____individualized according to reading materials

Do you have a classroom collection of reading materials?_____

If yes, check the types of printed materials which it contains:

_____hardback books

_____paperback books

_____magazines

_____reference/informational books

_____newspapers

_____student suggested or contributed materials

APPENDIX E

DIRECTIONS FOR EXPLAINING THE STUDY TO THE STUDENTS

Our school has been chosen to take part in a study of seventh grade reading. I am participating in this study since I teach _____ (specify whether reading, language arts, language arts/social studies block) to seventh graders. I am giving you the opportunity to take part also.

Let me explain what you will do if you decide to participate. I have two short questionnaires called reading attitude surveys that you will fill out today and in December, both during class time. These reading attitude surveys will help the researcher find out how you feel about reading. Your answers on these surveys will not affect your grades in any way.

At three different times between now and Christmas during our _____class (again, specify what it is called), I will ask you to write down the names of any books or magazines, or anything else that you have read recently. You won't need to include any reading that I a-sign you, only what you choose to read on your own. I will give you special cards to use for this. Your grades will not be affected by how much you have read and your name will not be mentioned when the study is written up. You will be asked to write your name on the reading surveys and the reading record cards only to help the researcher keep the information that you give her altogether.

Listen carefully as I explain how to complete the two reading surveys. Each of these surveys uses fifteen statements to measure how you feel about reading. Beside each statement you will find five choices: "I strongly agree", "I agree", "I cannot decide", I disagree", "I strongly

disagree". (You may wish to draw a sample on the board to illustrate this.) You will read each statement, decide how you feel about it, and then put an X under the column that show your answer. If you don't know how you feel about one of the statements, or if you have mixed feelings about it, mark "Cannot decide".

Here is an example: If the first statement said, "Junior high students should not read magazines", where would you put your X? If you strongly agree with the statement, you would put the X for number one in the box below "Strongly agree". This would show that you strongly agree that junior high students should not read magazines. This is what you will do for each of the fifteen statements on the two surveys. Are there any questions? If you have difficulty reading or understanding any of the items, raise your hand and I will help you. If you change your mind and want to change an answer, completely erase your first X before making a new one. Remember that your answers on this survey will not affect your grades. It is very important that you answer these questions as honestly as possible.

That is all that you will be asked to do if you participate in the study. Those of you who are willing to take part, raise your hands and I will give you the reading surveys. Be sure to write your name on both of them. (Give whatever instructions are necessary to those not participating.)

APPENDIX F

SCHEDULE FOR THE STUDY

September 20-24	Teachers and students respond to the Reading Attitude Scales
October 14-15 November 9-10 December 10-11	Students complete the Reading Record cards and teachers complete the Teaching Strategies questionnaire.
December 6-10	Students respond to the Reading Attitude Scales

Please note the change in the November dates to allow for professional days for teachers.

When each of the above has been completed, please send the information to the office in the envelope in which it came. I will come the following week to pick up the data and leave the materials needed for the next phase of the study. Thank you for your help.

Ann Wooten

APPENDIX G

WINSTON-SALEM/FORSYTH COUNTY SCHOOLS

Dr. James A. Adams, Superintendent • James E. Dew, Assistant to the Superintendent
P.O. Box 2513, Winston-Salem, N.C. 27102 • (919)727-2966

May 27, 1982

Ms. Ann M. Wooten
4870 Thales Road
Winston-Salem, N.C. 27104

Dear Ms. Wooten:

The Winston-Salem/Forsyth County School System's Research and Review Committee has reviewed your request to conduct a research project in the Winston-Salem/Forsyth County Schools and have approved your request contingent upon permission being granted by the local school principals. However, the Committee felt that the project should be limited to a representative number of junior high schools rather than all junior high schools.

If we can be of further assistance to you with regard to this project, please do not hesitate to call on us.

Sincerely,

James E. Dew

James E. Dew
Assistant to the Superintendent

JED/dp

APPENDIX H

THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA
AT GREENSBORO

School of Education

August 26, 1982

Dear

The Winston-Salem/Forsyth County School System's Research and Review Committee has approved my request to conduct research in the Winston-Salem/Forsyth County Schools. The study will look at seventh grade reading instruction and will comprise the data base for my doctoral dissertation. A limited amount of teacher and classroom time will be required of those agreeing to participate.

Since_____ was randomly selected to be one of the junior high schools in the sample, I would appreciate your permission to collect data there beginning September 20th and continuing for twelve weeks. I would like to include those teachers who teach at least one section of reading, or language arts, or a language arts/social studies block for seventh graders.

I will contact you within the next few days to answer any questions you may have and to learn of your decision.

Sincerely,

Ann M. Wooten

AMW/psr