REACTION, INITIATION, AND PROMISE: A HISTORICAL STUDY OF THE INTERNATIONAL READING ASSOCIATION

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The purpose of the study was to determine the nature of the historical role played by the International Reading Association (IRA) from 1900 to 2006. The methodology used in this qualitative study was based on grounded theory in which information was located, examined, coded, and recoded until themes, patterns, and categories could justifiably be formed. The themes that emerged from an analysis of historical events related to IRA, the United States, United States' education, and United States' reading instruction. The study complements an earlier study of the history of IRA conducted by Dr. Douglas K. Hartman and Lou Ann Sears in which oral histories were conducted with IRA staff, officers, and members both past and present, and document analyses were conducted of materials archived at the IRA Headquarters in Newark, Delaware. Three research questions guided this study. In what ways has the International Reading Association been able to react to the forces that have affected its goals and members? In what ways has IRA been an initiator throughout its history? What political themes were prevalent in United States' history, educational history, and reading-instruction history from 1900 to 2006 that seem to have been reflected in the way IRA promoted sound literacy practices?

Three conclusions were drawn based on the analysis of the themes that emerged from the study. First, IRA intentionally reacted to internal and external forces. Second, IRA has initiated connections among and beyond its membership in the way that it structured its many groups. Finally, IRA has reacted to and been affected by themes that emerged from historical events in the United States, United States' education, and United States' reading instruction.

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1.0 CHAPTER ONE: FRAMING THE STUDY

1.1 THE STUDY

This qualitative study will examine the International Reading Association (IRA) within the context of a history of education in the United States of America. IRA, the organization formed in 1955 as a result of a merger between the International Council for the Improvement of Reading Instruction (ICIRI) and the National Association for Remedial Teachers (NART), had in 2006 approximately 90,000 members (B. Cady, personal communication, August 22, 2006) in over 100 countries and is considered one of the world's leading authorities on reading instruction. The main headquarters of IRA is in Newark, Delaware, and there are two other offices, one in Washington, D.C. and another in Buenos Aires. IRA's organizational structure includes a president, a board of directors, a headquarters' staff, and hundreds if not thousands of councils. Each U. S. state and Canadian province has its own council such as Pennsylvania's Keystone State Reading Association and Canada's Saskatchewan Reading Council. Anyone belonging to the state council is an automatic member of the local council where he or she lives. Councils are groups of people with similar interests who meet and conduct programming to further the cause of literacy in their areas and in many cases around the world.

This study has three themes: ways that the Association has reacted to forces that have affected its goals and members, ways that the Association has been an initiator, and ways that the

Association has followed leadership models from the history of the United States, United States' education, and United States' reading instruction from 1900 to 2006 resulting in the Association's potential to fill in gaps in the United States' educational system. An examination of United States' history will create a context for all of the other variables. Inside United States' history, one can find educational history. Within educational history, one can find United States' reading instruction. Within reading instruction's history, one can find IRA key figures such as presidents, board members, and others who made significant contributions to the Association. Within IRA, one can find professional development such as conventions, conferences, workshops, and publications.

Mosenthal's (1988) article "Understanding the Histories of Reading" describes approaches that can be taken with studying the history of reading. The "zeitgeist approach" reflects the "spirit of the times." The "Great Person Approach" lets key players in the reading world determine the definitions of reading (p. 64). Then, within the realm of ideology, some "write histories to show that current definitions and practices are damaging" (p. 65). I will be calling attention to IRA key figures. Finally, I will note that the United States' educational system is not perfect. All of this will make the point that IRA has much to offer. The approach taken in this document captures the spirit of the times through the voices of Key IRA figures.

In this qualitative study, I am specifically using the grounded-theory method. In grounded theory, the researcher does NOT begin with a fixed notion of a problem and does not from the outset plan to prove a particular hypothesis. No experiments are conducted. No statistics are generated. Rather, one walks across mountains of collected data in order to discover patterns that may exist. Grounded theory is a "prolonged stay" (Lancy, 1993, p. 10) in the many territories of data.

David F. Lancy (1993), author of *Qualitative Research in Education* noted that qualitative research has gained respectability since the 1980s since researchers have realized that not all studies of value need to be conducted in a quantitative manner. At the time of this writing, there was a qualitative research journal, a book series, and a "growing acceptance within the American Education Research Association" (p. 1). Lancy outlined the characteristics of qualitative research:

> The investigator has chosen a topic or issue to study. [The] task is to discover[.] Hypotheses emerge[.] The sites/individuals chosen for the study [are] governed by the topic. Sites/individuals/cases [are] relatively few in number. The investigator is the principal 'instrument' for data collection[.] The research process is designed to intrude as little as possible in the natural, ongoing lives of those under study[.] [The] investigator [is] aware of his/her own biases and strives to capture the subjective reality of participants[.] [The] investigator uses [a] 'wide-   angle   lens'   to   record   context surrounding phenomena under study. [The] focus may shift as analytical categories and theory 'emerge' from the data[.] Typical study lasts some months, perhaps years[.] [The] report utilizes narrative format[.] There is a story with episodes. (p. 2)

As Lancy (1993) noted, "There is no single approach to doing historical research" (p. 10). The first thing the researcher must do is be clear about what he or she is studying. Then it is time to see "what other scholars have had to say about the issue" (p. 266). Looking at context is a necessity. Primary and secondary sources must be used. Making sense of data is the greatest challenge. The researcher must devise a sensible way to take notes and finally create "an historical narrative, or an analysis of historical data" (p. 268).

Since this study is historical, I am using a combination of fugitive documents—such as minutes of meetings, letters, organizational records and the like—as well as primary and secondary sources. In 2003 and 2004, I conducted and co-conducted approximately twenty-five interviews. Most of these were telephone interviews although a few were face to face.

In 2003, IRA invited Dr. Douglas Hartman, formerly of the University of Pittsburgh and later of the University of Connecticut, to write the second history of IRA. He invited me to be his research assistant and co-author. This dissertation is an extension of that project that was recently completed. We made three trips to the IRA archives in Delaware. For two years, we worked at home on the mountains of information we brought back with us.

Several audiences may be interested in the results of this study. IRA itself is be interested in any additions to its archive and in any added dimensions that can shed light on all that it has to offer. The history-of-literacy community may be interested in any addition to its body of knowledge. The educational community and, I hope, the United States' public at large, may be interested in looking at itself in the mirror.

1.2 CONCEPTUAL BACKGROUND

Several experiences brought me to this study: prior involvement with the study and my personal and professional background.

As stated above, I was involved in the history-of-IRA project since 2003. In June of 2003, Dr. Hartman and I began collecting data, and in the fall of 2003, we completed the Institutional Review Board requirements. Although I gathered data on all of the IRA missions of professional

development, global literacy, partnership, research, and advocacy, my ultimate responsibility was to write two chapters: one about IRA councils and one about partnerships. I completed these in the summer of 2004. In May of 2004, Dr. Hartman and I presented our findings at the IRA 49th Annual Convention in Reno, Nevada.

Professional and personal experience also bring me to this study. Since 1997 at the University of Pittsburgh at Greensburg, I have been the director of the Learning Resources Center, the home of tutoring, disability services, the writing center, and study skills. In this capacity and in my role as instructor of College Composition, I work very closely with many students who do not find success easy to attain on their own. Students needing tutoring often feel they are left out of the mainstream of the class. They may not have the background knowledge needed to survive. I have observed that students with disabilities often live on the fringes of society. Those without disabilities do not always know what to do for, with, or about them. Only some students seem to have mastered the art of studying, and yet it can be argued that even those who do get high grades may still learn little. I know how they feel as I spent many years of my life in their same situation.

I am compelled to do this study for a variety of reasons.

First, working so closely with IRA people and materials has shown me that the Association has enormous power and potential. It takes the initiative and makes a difference to teachers and students across the globe. Working with its people and studying them has become addictive. With every tidbit I discover, I realize how much more there is to find and how few people are looking. I realize how much more I want to be a part of what they do. After putting together the review of discourses for this dissertation, I realized why IRA matters so much to me: It meets the needs of teachers and students, so we have much in common.

IRA and the Learning Center I direct perform similar functions for those who choose to participate. Through its councils, IRA reduces isolation for teachers. Belonging to a council helps teachers to meet others, network, and learn. The Center's tutoring services give students the opportunity to share their concerns and questions with someone and therefore learn more than they might have done on their own. Through its publications and convention sessions, IRA provides teachers with strategies to use in the classroom just as the Center provides study and composition strategies designed to help students be more successful in their classes. Overall, both IRA and the Learning Center can help participants to become more well-rounded and informed individuals who can therefore contribute more to their chosen professions.

I am interested in doing this study because it will extend conversations for me. In 2001 in a course called History of Reading Research and Instruction, I wrote a paper about a 1927 series of texts called *The Nutshell Library*. That course and that assignment marked the beginning of my interest in history of literacy. Writing a chapter about Edward L. Thorndike for a book about reading pioneers to be published in 2007 gave me an opportunity to discover more about the 1920s and reading pioneers. I find myself wanting to know the stories of the others.

I am compelled to do this study because I have been Drs. Biggs' and Hartman's student. In 1999, I began the Ph.D. program in Reading Education at the University of Pittsburgh and met Dr. Shirley Biggs, my advisor. From her, I learned of a place called "IRA." In 2001, I was her teaching assistant for a graduate course called Methods and Materials in Reading. She is also responsible for my discovery of content-area reading and the chance to teach that graduate course for four summers on the Oakland campus of the University of Pittsburgh.

That same year, I took Dr. Hartman's course the History of Reading Research and Instruction. From him, I became aware of and interested in the story behind the story of reading.

Two years later, when he invited me to join him in writing a history of IRA for its upcoming 50th anniversary, I learned about grounded theory from doing grounded theory.

Dr. Ogle Duff who worked with me in the summer of 2003 on a directed study in Reader Response also played a part in my interest in this dissertation. From her, I began to see myself within the context of my own profession. I learned to uncover the voices of student response. I learned to look for information in places I would not have thought to try.

From those individuals, I have learned something life changing: the "big picture" of learning and teaching.

The more I experience the history of literacy, the more I am interested in adding to that body of knowledge. I see now that we cannot hope to understand who we are as reading professionals and teachers until we know the roads and sometimes paths that others took to get us this far. Part of speeding ahead into the future involves looking in the rear view mirror.

I am compelled to make a contribution to the field of education in general. With this study, I hope to do for others what Drs. Biggs, Hartman, and Duff have done for me. I hope to put the subject of the International Reading Association within its many contexts out there for discussion. Perhaps others, then, will want to join the conversation, do a similar study of other organizations, and/or seek assistance by joining IRA.

1.3 STATEMENT OF INTENT

One purpose of this study will be to examine the ways in which the International Reading Association has been able to react to the forces that have affected its goals and members.

A second purpose of this study will be to examine the ways in which the Association has been an initiator throughout its history.

A third purpose of this study will be to examine what was happening in United States' history, educational history, and reading-instruction history from 1900 to 2006 that seems to have been reflected in the way that the Association was functioning.

1.4 GUIDING QUESTIONS

The guiding questions of this study are as follows:

1. In what ways has the International Reading Association been able to react to the forces that have affected its goals and members?

2. In what ways has IRA been an initiator throughout its history?

3. What political themes were prevalent in United States' history, educational history, and reading-instruction history from 1900 to 2006 that seem to have been reflected in the way IRA promoted sound literacy practices in U.S. public education?

1.5 DELIMITATIONS

Telling all of the tales of American history, all of the story of American education, all of the story of reading instruction will not be possible within the scope of this study. Focusing on the publications of all IRA key figures will also be out of reach as will telling the complete story of

IRA and what it has to offer. This study will focus on selected IRA presidents from each decade as well as significant figures whose names are practically synonymous with IRA. Telling all of the story of all the reading pioneers will be out the scope of this study as well. Selected representative figures will be used. Since this study concentrates on United States', education, and reading instruction, this study will not focus on IRA's mission of global literacy although I hope that some future researcher will write the international equivalent of this study.

This study will be A history, not THE history, since no two researchers would interpret material the same way.

1.6 DEFINITIONS

1. literacy: "reading, writing, discussing (Harris & Hodges, 1995, p. 140), participating in a community, understanding the word and the world" (p. 141).

2. fugitive documents: nontraditional sources such as minutes of meetings, interview transcripts, organizational charts, and other written records

3. reaction: actions that IRA has taken as a deliberate response to a particular event, observation of student and member needs and willingness to meet those needs so that teachers can expand their professional capabilities and connections, observation and clarification of IRA operations in order to meet the needs of members and students, expansion of leadership strategies

4. initiation: generative, rather than deliberately responsive actions that foster connections

2.0 PROCEDURES

A chapter called "Procedures" must begin with a definition of and a justification for the term as well as the purposes of such a section. As Piantanida and Garman (1999) noted, "procedure" refers to the process of obtaining answers to one's questions (p. 106). In qualitative studies, the term "research methods" commonly associated with quantitative studies, does not apply (p. 105). Piantanida and Garman indicated that the procedure section has two purposes: "explanation of rationale for the research genre" and "careful explanation of the procedures that will be followed to address the questions" (p. 105). Marius (1999) noted that writing about history involves "fit[ting] evidence together to create a story, an explanation, or an argument" (p. 20). Stories, rather than statistics, measure the "intensity of beliefs" (p. 46). Getting an answer to one's questions depends upon three activities: considering the "big picture," keeping certain processes in mind—something that Stahl and Hartman (2004) called "ongoing vigilance"(p. 180), and acting on experts' guidance.

2.1 CONSIDERING THE BIG PICTURE

As Stahl and Hartman (2004) noted, those who do historical research need a "kind of double vision, where we look not only at the historical artifact . . . but at ourselves analyzing the artifact . . . ." (p. 171). Looking at myself includes remembering a less than successful high school career and a successful journey as a first-generation college student, substitute teacher, an adjunct

instructor at the college level. Piantanida and Garman (1999) suggested that anyone embarking on a qualitative dissertation learn to live with uncertainty, acquire a taste for it, and admit it.

Stahl and Hartman (2004) and reader-response theorist Rosenblatt (1995) have given me permission to see myself as a part of the writing process, to move my prior experience to the forefront. Part of the big picture of any enjoyable research project is a healthy interest in the topic, a genuine desire to learn, and some connection to the data. To this mix, I add a fourth component: a strong commitment to making a difference in the lives of teachers and students. My willingness to do so extends beyond my ten years' experience as the director of a college learning center. For an earlier eight-year period, I worked with community-college students to try to increase their chances of success.

Looking at myself, however, is only part of the "big picture." Looking at genre is even more significant. This historical dissertation will employ grounded theory. Eichelberger (2003, Fall) noted that the interpretivist method and grounded theory are, in fact, the same. My procedures follow his lead: I have "no interest in the one best perspective but [am] looking to see why people have particular views." As a writer of historical text, I "attempt to make sense of what [I] find, try to describe and understand internal meanings and experiences people have, [and] classify and analyze" as a form of measurement (personal communication).

Pandit (1996, December) elaborated. Grounded theory can be divided into three parts: concepts, categories, and propositions. In order to create meaning, the writer conceptualizes data, a higher level activity than gathering data. Citing Corbin and Strauss (1990), Pandit noted that concepts, then, give way to categories that represent an even higher level of thought (para. 4). Citing Whetten (1989), Pandit continued: Unlike "hypotheses [that] require measured relationships," propositions, or proposed plans, stem from conceptual relationships (para. 5).

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Again citing Corbin and Strauss (1990), Pandit emphasized the inductive nature of the research process: "[O]ne begins with an area of study and what is relevant to that area is allowed to emerge" (para. 6).

Realizing and examining the "big picture" are only the beginning of the process. Keeping certain procedures in mind is necessary.

2.2 KEEPING CERTAIN PROCEDURES IN MIND

Several sources recommend the following specific procedures. Stahl and Hartman (2004) outlined the three-part process involved in "constructing history":

> [The] process of constructing history is directed by three factors: the philosophical stance held by the writer, the evidence that was discovered in the available primary and secondary sources, and the researcher's interpretation of the data. The facts that are uncovered by the historian say little in and of themselves (p. 183).

Before discovering any evidence, however, the writer needs to employ external criticism: If a source is not "authentic" or "genuine," it should not be considered worthy of inclusion (p. 181). "External criticism" refers to four questions:

1. "Who wrote the work?

2. Where was the work authored?

3. When was the document developed?

4. Under what condition was the work authored?" (p. 181).

If a source is deemed authentic, examining the text on an in-depth basis occurs.

Hartman and Stahl (2004) noted that internal criticism, the "act of evaluating the accuracy and worth of the evidence. . " then becomes necessary (p. 181). Those who seek to write something historical will need to use whatever sources are available that meet the tests of external and internal criticism. Even with a multitude of acceptable sources, the writer should keep in mind that he or she can "know pieces and parts" of history but cannot gather or know all (p. 175). The highest level of thinking is needed in "weigh[ing] and sort[ing] evidence into patterns" (p. 174).

Taking Dr. Biggs' advice, I studied Piantanida and Garman's (1999) *The Qualitative Dissertation*. These University of Pittsburgh professors recommended having procedures for each guiding question. Procedures should address the following:

1. "What information will be used to address the question?

2. How [will] this information be gathered and from what sources?

3. How will the information be analyzed or interpreted?

4. How [will] the information be presented or represented in order to make its contribution to the inquiry clear?" (p. 107).

The final section of this chapter will address the answers to these questions.

Marius (1999) offered instruction for creation of the story that the research will tell: "Historians fit their evidence together to create a story, or explanation, or an argument" (p. 20). A story needs to begin with a conflict. "Story," then, can be defined as an interpretation of "something [the writer] wants [the reader] to know about the past" (p. 13). Each piece of the tale is a puzzle piece, and some of the puzzle pieces need to be secondary sources. Above all, as Cassell noted (2004, October 12, personal communication) and Marius (1999) confirmed, a major part of the dissertation procedure is seeing things in context.

More specifically, Marius (1999) suggested that telling the story depends upon obtaining answers to the following journalistic questions:

1. "Why am I telling this story?

2. Where do I want to begin?

3. What happened?

4. When did it happen?

5. Who or what caused these things to happen?

6. What details must I tell about these events and what can I leave out?

7. Who were the major characters in the drama?

8. What is the climax of the story?

9. Where do I want to end?

10. What does the story mean?" (p. 61).

The final section of this chapter will address answers to these questions.

2.3 ACTING ON EXPERTS' GUIDANCE

Acting on experts' advice is not a linear process, but rather a discursive one: In order to get to the point, the writer must wander away, pass from one subject to another, and slowly put pieces together. In the following section, the reader will note a blend of experts' questions posed in section two of this chapter.

Acting on expert advice began in 2003 when Dr. Hartman asked me to join him in his research project on the history of IRA. In June and September of 2003 and in March of 2004, we

made three trips to the archives at IRA Headquarters in Newark, Delaware. The information used on those visits consisted of IRA journals, books, pamphlets, videos, minutes of meetings, photographs, letters, web site, newspaper, study group packets, and assorted documents such as charts. Getting to know IRA also included several meetings with publishing staff, acquaintances made with other staff, and outings such as dinners with the publishing staff. Both Dr. Hartman and I brought home bags of the data that would help us to tell a history of IRA. Archive librarian Erin Cushing was particularly helpful although many IRA staff members dropped what they were doing and came to meet us to offer their assistance.

Once we had our information, the discursive process began. Each piece of data had to be scrutinized to see who wrote it, where it was written, when it was developed, and under what conditions (Stahl & Hartman, 2004). At that very early stage of our research, we did not know whether or not the information collected would be worth something to us, but we kept open minds, saved every piece of data, and operated under the assumption that an item would be considered useful until proven less than useful.

Although I did not realize it at the time, the story we were telling from 2003 to 2004, the history of IRA, would become the backdrop of the story I would later tell in 2005 and 2006. We were searching for components to the story of IRA because Dr. Hartman was invited to create the 50th anniversary text. In 2003 and 2004, we were not sure where we wanted to begin. Descending upon the archives was our beginning. In the shuttle on the way to the hotel in Delaware, we decided to focus the chapters of the history text around the five IRA missions. This was our early notion of how to present findings. In the archives, then, we began to code data according to those missions: professional development, global literacy, advocacy, partnership,

and research. Coding is first step in the analysis process. We decorated the notes we took and the documents we took home as souvenirs with pd, g, a, p, and r.

In the fall of 2003, we began to conduct telephone and face-to-face interviews with IRA council members, affiliates from other countries, current and former IRA staff members, committee members, executive director, and those who had some experience connected to IRA. Dr. Hartman and I co-conducted some of the interviews, he conducted some on his own, and I conducted others on my own. The telephone interviews conducted in Dr. Hartman's office at the University of Pittsburgh utilized the new recording equipment that IRA purchased for this project. Conversations were recorded onto CD's, some of which I then transcribed. These CD's and transcripts are now a part of the IRA archives. With the aid of a tape recorder, I conducted some telephone interviews at my home and produced transcripts of each. These tapes and transcripts were also donated to the IRA archives.

In addition, I took other measures to obtain information. In December of 2003, I flew to Scottsdale, Arizona, for the National Reading Conference where I interviewed Colin Harrison of England, Edward Fry of California, and Kathy Au of Hawaii, three well-known figures in the reading community. These tape recorded interviews were added to the collection and also donated to IRA. In May of 2004, I flew to Reno, Nevada, for the 49th annual IRA convention where I interviewed Heather Bell of New Zealand and CleoBell Heiple-Tice of California. At the convention in Reno, Dr. Hartman and I presented the information we had obtained so far. At the convention's council award ceremony, I made an announcement to hundreds of attendees that I was looking for information from interested parties. In June of 2004, I attended an IRA Leadership Workshop in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, and announced again that I was interested in

talking with any interested party. All in all, I conducted approximately 25 interviews via tape or paper. Some respondees preferred to send me answers to questions I had emailed to them.

In January of 2005, I began to work officially on my dissertation. At that early date, I knew that I would incorporate the IRA-history project somehow into what I would produce. Originally, I had thought that I wanted to write about IRA councils although an October 2004 conversation with Dr. Cassell caused me to acquire a new perspective. When I met with him to ask him if he would be a member of my dissertation committee and I briefly explained what I had in mind, he advised me to explore the context of IRA within United States' history. That short conversation was an aha moment for me. Still, I did not know exactly how I would accomplish that goal.

Also in the spring of 2005, I was writing a chapter about Edward L. Thorndike for an upcoming book about reading pioneers, those who made significant contributions to the field of reading. This project that consumed most of January through April, led me to pages and pages of sources, and I began to realize the overlap between that project and my dissertation. Many of the sources I had already found could be dissertation sources as well. And then I had aha moment number two: The reading pioneers about whom twenty or so of us were writing played a significant role in my dissertation. From that realization came aha moment number three when I saw that IRA key figures are a necessary part of any story about IRA within the context of history. Those who shaped IRA from 1955 to the present were in many cases pioneers in their own right and certainly IRA pioneers. The search began then for any sources I could find that were available through the University of Pittsburgh library, PALCI libraries, journals found through database searches, and IRA web documents. I often searched for references found within particular sources. By this point, I had accumulated two boxes of data that would eventually produce two preliminary chapters: one about reading pioneers and one about IRA key figures.

IRA within the context of United States' history also includes three other categories: United States' history, United States' educational history, and IRA offerings. I remembered a United States' history text on my shelf at work and naively thought it would probably be sufficient as a source on United States' history. At this point, I did not know where to go with the general information about U.S. history. A lunchtime conversation with Dr. Joel Sabadasz, a visiting professor of history at the University of Pittsburgh at Greensburg, caused him to refer me to an inspirational text called *Huck's Raft: A History of American Childhood*. He shared one of the chapters, and suddenly, I had aha moment number four. That history text from my shelf was not the only voice I wanted to hear, and history was indeed a story, a force that is, contrary to what I had been indirectly taught in high school and college, alive and very much connected to every other topic including what I had in mind. So the search began for more sources for the history box.

Then came aha moment number five. I realized that United States' educational history is a topic I needed to separate into its own box. The notion of United States' education is a topic near and dear to me since I have been teaching since 1983. Looking through sources, writing the review of discourses, and daydreaming about prior knowledge and past experience in the educational arena led to aha moment number six: Underneath it all, I am also writing about imperfections in the United States' educational system.

The question then became "What does that have to do with IRA and with United States' history?" Then came aha moment number seven. IRA is, in fact, a response to the state of United States' education. United States' history is overflowing with evidence.

Then came aha moment number eight. I entertained notions that the chapters of my dissertation might be as follows:

Chapter One   Framing the Study

Chapter Two   Review of Discourses

Chapter Three   Procedures

Chapter Four   Marginalization throughout American history 1900 to the present

Chapter Five   Marginalization throughout American educational history 1900 to the present

Chapter Six   Marginalization in reading education from 1900 to the present

Chapter Seven   Selected IRA key figures from 1950's to the present who attempted to reduce the marginalization of teachers and students and guide IRA

Chapter Eight   IRA offerings that attempt to reduce the marginalization of teachers and students

Chapter Nine   Conversations for the future

As my review of discourses indicates, I had accumulated five boxes of data that I could add to the data collected from the 2003 to 2004 portion of this project. Analysis of that data had only just begun. While I was writing the review of discourses, I paid attention to Stahl and Hartman's (2004) questions but knew that it would not be until the findings stage of the dissertation that I would truly begin to see the worth of these sources.

Seeing the worth of the sources would involve keeping a watchful eye on Marius' (2004) checklist found in section two of this chapter. First, I had to keep in mind the reason I was telling my story. Although Marius' second point was consideration of the place I want to begin, I saw that as something that would occur later, so I found myself slightly rearranging his guidance. His third point was asking myself what happened. I renumbered this as the second piece of the process involved in the findings' stage into which I moved quickly upon approval of the

overview defense. Marius' fourth consideration—when things happened—would become my third step. His fifth consideration—who or what caused these things to happen—would become my fourth step.

Marius (2004) continued. His consideration six—details that I need to tell and omit about these events—would become my fifth step. Consideration seven—identification of major characters in the drama—would become my sixth step. Consideration eight—the climax of the story—would become my seventh step. Only when I had gathered and coded all the above did it seem appropriate to ask the question "Where do I want to begin," so Marius' step two became my step eight. Consideration nine—where do I want to end—seemed appropriate as step nine. What the story means—consideration ten—seemed to apply to the entire process of gathering information, coding it, and telling the story. Waiting until the end of the story to ask myself what the story meant seemed shallow and dangerous.

Guidance provided by my dissertation committee in September 2006 led me to take another look at myself as a writer and researcher. It was a short time later that I realized that the "preliminary chapters" that I had created had, in fact, been ways to boost my prior knowledge of United States' history, educational history, and reading-instruction history between the years 1900 and 2006. Separately, the preliminary chapters were enormously useful in that regard, but collectively, they would not permit me to tell a story of IRA. Therefore, my final stage of the writing process had to take a turn.

The new task was to combine information from the preliminary chapters 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 to produce a new document that would serve as the most substantial section of the dissertation. While entertaining thoughts of how to accomplish that, I recalled the committee's advice to make IRA the center of the story, to look at what it had done over the years within the context of

the many angles of history. Looking closely at the Hartman and Sears (2006) text, I realized that IRA has always been full of reactions to member needs, has always been an initiator, and has—however unwittingly—followed historical examples of leadership found throughout United States' history, educational history, and reading-instruction history. Then I realized that as it followed historical examples of leadership, IRA was actually filling gaps in the United States' educational system.

The revised dissertation includes the following chapters:

Chapter One: Introduction

Chapter Two: Methodology

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3.0 REACTION, INITIATION, AND PROMISE

3.1 WAYS IN WHICH IRA HAS INTENTIONALLY REACTED

3.1.1 Reaction to member needs

Throughout its history, the International Reading Association's (IRA) (the Association) leadership has intentionally reacted to internal and external forces.

3.1.1.1 Gaps within the association Much of the Association's activity involves reacting to its own members' needs. Some reactions have filled gaps within the Association itself. In other words, at certain points, IRA leaders realized that it could be doing more for its members. In 1975, the Association published just a few books per year and made a conscious effort to find out what book topics it could solicit from its members. Lloyd Kline was hired "to raise and expand the visibility and stature of book publications" (as sited in Hartman & Sears, 2006, p. 119). Hartman and Sears reported that "potential authors were encouraged to submit proposals for books that might be of interest to Association members or of benefit to the profession" (p. 119).

Another type of gap within the Association involved expansion of the organization's image. In the 1960s, IRA leaders purchased the *Journal of Developmental Reading* from Purdue University. This was an attempt to show the public that the Association was not solely an

elementary-reading association (Hartman & Sears, 2006). As Jerrolds (1977) noted, IRA's journal *The Reading Teacher* was so "successful and popular" (p. 96). That adolescent and adult reading were crowded out (p. Rather than trying to find more space within *The Reading Teacher* for adolescent and adult reading topics, the Association decided to let a new journal do that job.

Years later, reacting to member needs would also include redesigning the IRA web site. In 2004, (Hartman & Sears, 2006) it became apparent that the web site needed to offer members more convenience. Ann Fullerton of the publications staff noted that "the original web site approached online services and products as distinct entities" (as cited in Hartman & Sears, p. 129). New and more "integrated" services started to appear: *The Reading Teacher (RT)*, the *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy (JAAL)*, and *Reading Research Quarterly (RRQ)* began to appear online as well as in print. *Reading Today Daily*, "the online component to the membership newspaper" allowed readers the chance to get summaries of reading news and communicate with each other (p. 129). The web site became easier to use as a result of new search mechanisms. Finally, an e-planner was added that permits convention attendees to plan more easily which presentations they want to attend. A plan also exists to address web accessibility for those with disabilities.

In the 1970s, the Association also reacted to "a surge of worldwide growth in IRA" (Hartman & Sears, 2006, p. 189). The International Development Committee that "support[ed] council and provincial growth" had met with success, which meant that there would be a need to better serve members (p. 189). To properly serve affiliates, members from countries other than the United States, in 1972, the Association created a new position called "area coordinator." These employees would "encourage more development of new affiliates and provide better services to

existing affiliates" (p. 189). Two years later, a Council Relations Department was formed. It later became known as Council and Affiliate Services.

In 1983, Hartman and Sears (2006) indicated that IRA leaders reacted to the fact that its membership increased substantially. Changing the membership's newspaper *Reading Today* seemed a wise way to have better communication with members (Hartman & Sears, 2006). The original 1968 version of the publication had been a 4-page newsletter, but in 1983 became a 20-page paper. As the newspaper grew, John Micklos became editor in 1984, a position he continues to hold in 2006. The newspaper's mission changed over time: Part of that mission is "filling a news gap that can't be filled by books or journals" (p. 131).

3.1.1.2 Gaps within members' professional lives However, other gaps beside those inside the Association became apparent over the years. IRA leadership has found ways to react to gaps within teachers'/members' professional lives.

3.1.1.2.1 Networking In 1964, it reacted to member needs by establishing Special Interest Councils that permitted members in a geographic area to connect with others who were interested in the same topics. One example is the Secondary Reading League in Chicago for those who are interested in middle and high school reading. Brenda Townsend, Director of Council and Affiliate Services, noted that one of the newest Special Interest Councils, located in Russia, centers on the Reading and Writing for Critical Thinking Project (RWCT) (as cited in Hartman & Sears, 2006). Belonging to a council such as this is a way of reducing the isolation that overburdened teachers often feel as they remain in their own classroom spaces day after day.

Networking can also occur through "Online Discussions," an electronic bulletin board and the eight listservs that the Association has established. Teachers who know that they are not islands unto themselves and therefore seek to share the wisdom and experiences of others can find out how to do that via the "Online Discussions" page available on the web site. In addition to conversations one can have with adolescent educators via electronic "bulletin boards," eight listservs are available. Joining a listserv immediately puts teachers in touch with other educators across the United States. Listservs include *Reading Teacher*, IRA's oldest journal; *ROL [Reading Online] Communities*, commentary regarding IRA's electronic journal; *Critical Literacy*, critical perspectives in literacy; *HRSIG*, History of Reading Special Interest Group; *ROL Announcements*, monthly notification of new postings to the electronic journal; *Faculty*, announcements of IRA programs and projects; *Gov-Rel*, an update on the United States' legislative scene; and *Leader-SIG*, discussion of leadership issues via the Leadership Education and Development for Educators in Reading Special Interest Group (Hartman & Sears, 2006).

3.1.1.2.2 Connections between teacher and information Reacting to member needs has also meant promoting connections between teachers and information. To meet teachers' needs, convention sessions offer practical strategies that will enrich the lives of teachers and their students. Attendees who were interviewed in *Reading Today* after the 2005 convention in San Antonio, for example, praised the "practical ideas" they encountered (Hartman & Sears, 2006, p. 36). At a 2004 convention session in Reno, Nevada, I listened to editors of *JAAL* explain how to write for that publication.

Building connections between teacher and information happens in other ways as well. For example, Hartman and Sears (2006) noted that the Wisconsin State Reading Association, one of

IRA's state-level groups, found a way to fill another type of gap: lack of time for teachers to do research. Through the "Book Notes" section of the WSRA web site, teachers without time to investigate a variety of topics—best practices in the classroom, books that cut across the curriculum, the experiences of students with disabilities—can save hours by using WSRA's recommended list. In only one section of the 2002 to 2004 "Book Notes," members learn of *Joey Pigza Swallowed the Key*, told from the point of view of a child with Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder and Regie Routman's *Conversations* that "help[s] to shape and change the practices of teachers" (p. 67).

Another gap in the lives of busy teachers is the ability to keep up with what is happening in the reading profession. This is particularly true of those whose school districts and other obligations do not permit them to attend conventions. News about IRA and the reading profession in general is readily available in three ways. Members receive a copy of *Reading Today* which "sum[s] up all of IRA's services in one place" (Hartman & Sears, 2006, p. 131). Beyond paper, the Association web site hosts *Reading Today Daily*. Editor John Micklos calls it a way "to provide very brief synopses of news articles, reports, and other information sources that we think IRA members will find useful and then provide hot links to the full article, report, or web site for those who want more indepth information" (as cited in Hartman & Sears, p. 133). Also in the web site, R*eading Headlines Daily* that began in 2002 keeps members connected to what is happening around the United States and the world.

Hartman and Sears (2006) noted that connecting teachers to information took a new direction in 1980 when *Lectura y Vida*, IRA's journal written in Spanish, became available. In the 1970s, teachers in Central and South America had made it known that they would appreciate such a publication. For the most part, the journal featured pieces by those "from countries in the region"

(p. 194). This journal also served to bring teachers from Latin and South America into contact with each other.

3.1.1.2.3 Connections between teachers and between teachers and information Special Interest Groups (SIGS) are yet another reaction to member needs in that they bring teachers closer to needed information and to each other. In 1970, SIGS were started so that people with similar interests could readily be known to each other. As a member of the History of Reading Special Interest Group, I know that it meets each year at the annual convention, and occasionally members go to dinner after the meeting. Outside the convention parameters, members often collaborate on projects related to history-of-literacy. In 2007, this group began compiling a list of history-of-literacy resources that can be donated to the IRA web page to raise awareness. Susan Israel, the History SIG's president in 2007, and former President Jennifer Monaghan, co-edited an IRA-published book *Shaping the Reading Field* for which several History SIG members wrote chapters.

Literacy study groups available since 2003 give teachers a chance to "engage" with people interested in the same topic. *Reading Today* noted that as an alternative to a workshop, "study group[s] [let] educators meet periodically to study and discuss research on topics of interest and report on the effectiveness of new strategies in their own practice" (as cited in Hartman & Sears, 2006, p. 138). Utilizing an IRA book, some journal articles, and a facilitator's guide, these groups give teachers ownership of their own learning.

3.1.2 Reactions to conditions in United States' History

On several occasions throughout its history, IRA leadership has intentionally reacted to events occurring in the history of the United States as a whole.

3.1.2.1 Reorganization to make an impact Sometimes this meant reorganizing the Association to make more of an impact on teachers and on educational policy. In 1971, the Association transferred the editing of *RT* to IRA Headquarters in Newark, Delaware. Previously, university researchers had served as editors but in 1971, Lloyd Kline was hired to "redirect the journal's look and content toward a newer generation of classroom teachers" (as sited in Hartman & Sears, 2006, p. 85). With the advent of a new decade, the Association kept up with the changes that other journals were making and provided a more "reader friendly" approach to the journal (p. 85).

In 1982, Hartman and Sears (2006) noted that IRA leadership reorganized its governmental relations position as a result of President Ronald Reagan's plans to reduce educational funding. The plan included drastically reducing Title I funds that provide assistance to the disadvantaged, The Office of Basic Skills was closed, and there was some talk of shutting down the Department of Education. Leaders took action by setting up a Washington D. C. office for Richard Long, the part-time Director of Governmental Relations and gave him more hours per week. The position then became "more proactive. . . by initiating activities, building coalitions, working with other coalitions, and taking up leadership roles" (as sited in Hartman & Sears, p. 210). His job was "to influence what was going on in Washington politics on behalf of IRA" (p. 210). As one example, Long helped to shape parts of the Vocational Education Law.

Hartman and Sears (2006) found that reorganizing to make an impact also occurred in the 1990s in response to Senator Ted Kennedy, U. S. President William Clinton, and other governmental figures who "were aligning themselves to make a policy response to the millions of struggling readers that the NAEP [National Assessment of Educational Progress] scores had

revealed" (p. 211). At that point, IRA leadership realized that the stakes were higher, things were changing, and IRA would need to extend more of an influence, so it hired Richard Long full time and gave him a small staff. A close collaborative team of Alan Farstrup, Executive Director; Brenda Townsend, Director of Council and Affiliate Services; and Terry Salinger, Director of Research, were charged with the mission of "higher visibility and impact in the policy making process when it came to reading" (p. 211).

3.1.2.2 Organization to make an impact On occasion, intentional reaction to U. S. history meant that something concerning IRA had to be organized, rather than reorganized. The formation of IRA itself is one such example. Hartman and Sears (2006) noted that in 1956, two organizations that championed the scientific study of reading—the International Council for the Improvement of Reading Instruction (ICIRI) and the National Association of Remedial Teachers (NART)—combined forces to create the International Reading Association. ICIRI's plan was "to encourage research in the field of reading and to report investigations of studies now existent in the manner of W. S. Gray's [annual] Summaries [of Investigations Related to Reading]" (p. 26). Gray, who was the 1955 president of ICIRI, became the first president of IRA. NART was focused on "scientific ways to study remedies" for remedial readers (p. 50). Gray had been the 1950 president of NART. All three organizations that Gray led "reflected [Harry S. Truman's 1947] ideology of progress through scientific inquiry. The leaders. . . thought reading materials and methods would be better because of . . . commitment to [research]" (p. 27). It is not surprising, then, that Gray focused IRA's activity on promoting "reading proficiency" (p. 16). In its infancy, the Association's 1955 mission was heavily focused on doing research and sharing it with the world.

Beyond the actual organization of the Association, IRA leaders used position statements to react to events in United States' history. Between 1998 and 2000, the Association published seven position statements that were then distributed to policy makers and legislators in Washington, D. C. (Hartman & Sears, 2006). This was a direct response to what the Association saw as Washington's distorted impression of professional associations. To counteract the stereotype that professional associations were vague "naysayers" (p. 216), IRA created statements such as the 2002 *Family-School Partnerships: Essential Elements of Literacy in the United States* that encourages the community to understand that it has a responsibility to promote family involvement in literacy and demonstrates how to accomplish that. Overall, organizing and distributing position statements declares that IRA is part of the solution to United States' educational dilemmas.

3.1.2.3 Adaptation to changing face of United States A third type of intentional reaction to U. S. history involves responding to the changing face of America. Realizing that the state of the United States' family had changed over the decades, Association leaders produced twelve brochures connecting parents to their children's literacy development. *Preparing Children for Reading Tests: Tips for Parents* highlights six tips for getting students ready for tests as well as seven suggestions for helping children to become more proficient readers. All but two of the brochures are available in both Spanish and English, and all offer parents a variety of no-cost literacy-awareness tips. *Get Reading to Read: Tips for Parents of Young Children*; *Explore the Playground of Books: Tips for Parents of Beginning Readers*; *Summer Reading Adventure: Tips for Parents of Young Readers* are only a few examples. In addition to providing tips, some brochures make connections among literacy and other aspects of a child's life: nutrition, lifelong learning, television watching, and internet usage (Hartman & Sears, 2006).

Kay Hayes, former IRA Leadership Development Associate, noted that councils within the Association have been reacting to the "shrinkage of the world due to electronic mail and world travel" by getting involved in international projects (as cited in Hartman & Sears, 2006, p. 67). In 2004, Anita McClain of the Oregon Reading Association and the Portland (local) Council took student teachers to Mexico to do a portion of their student teaching and makes trips there to deliver funds for materials (as cited in Hartman & Sears). The Colorado Council of the IRA has had a 2004 to 2007 commitment to connect with the world. By providing teaching supplies, educational resources, and funding for tutoring, the group supports the Masechaba Saturday School of Excellence in Johannesburg. Support also includes making trips to the South African school. Creating opportunity for disadvantaged students, challenging adversity, and giving hope a voice are the goals.

Reaction to the changing face of America can also be seen in the IRA Publication Series *Perspectives in Reading*. The 1972 series and the conference from which the material came were "focused on pressing societal issue[s] of the time" such as *The Black Child and His Reading* and *Spanish Speaking American Children and Children's Books* (Hartman & Sears, 2006, p. 113). The series of sixteen books was "a volume that focused on the pressing societal issues of the time" (p. 48). IRA Past President Nancy Larrick's chapter was called "We Are Still Afraid". This series ended in 1979.

3.1.3 Reaction to United States' educational History

A fourth type of intentional reaction was a response to something happening within U. S. educational history.

3.1.3.1 Response to censorship Occasionally, Association leaders took deliberate action in response to censorship. The 1979 *Perspectives Conference*—the last of its kind—was devoted entirely to censorship. The "turbulent schoolbook censorship controversies that occurred in [the state of] West Virginia" in the past served as inspiration (Hartman & Sears, 2006, p. 48). Since it was a product of the conference of 1979, the *Perspectives* series was then devoted to the same topic.

3.1.3.2 Enhancement of definition of "teacher" Change in U. S. public education has meant that the definition of the word *teacher* had changed. Kay Hayes noted that schools had started "requesting teachers to attend specific school-based professional in-service sessions"; therefore, IRA councils changed their purpose from "the sole source of professional development" to proponents of community-literacy projects (as cited in Hartman & Sears, 2006, p. 67). This is helping to expand teachers' influence on society and make their world a larger place.

Beyond getting teachers out into the community where they can make even more of a difference, the Association has helped to expand teachers' experience and effectiveness by making them advocates. With educational regulations becoming more common, teachers need to be able to survive, understand what is happening around them, "establish networks, and advocate change" (Hartman & Sears, 2006, p. 212). In 1998, IRA hired Cathy Roller as Director of Research and Policy, an expansion of a previous position called Director of Research. She and Long worked together to broaden the scope of IRA visibility.

Through governmental relations workshops and regional leadership workshops, "members and councils are becoming more aware of their need to serve a dual role as professional educators and literacy advocates" (Hartman & Sears, 2006, p. 68). IRA encourages members to

become more aware of what is happening in Washington, D. C. and to take part in "educational policy gatherings in their state and communities" (p. 212). When teachers and other professionals get involved in educational policy, they can become more aware of issues that affect them and their students and be an instrument of change. To assist members, some state-level organizations like Oklahoma Reading Association have produced brochures explaining the definition of advocacy and the steps to getting involved.

3.1.3.3 Steps to ensure that no one is left behind Reacting to occurrences in U. S. educational history also includes taking steps to ensure that no student is left behind. Concerned about the quality of urban education in the U. S., IRA and the National Urban Alliance for Effective Education formed a team called Urban Partnerships for Literacy "to intensify and accelerate student achievement" the point of which is to help disadvantaged students in places where "schools lack resources and where parents, because of financial circumstances struggle" (Hartman & Sears, 2006, p. 147). By consulting with the Delaware Department of Education and the Delaware Adult Staff Development Network in 1987, Association leaders took steps to offer more publications and programs for adults. The 2002 position statement *Making a Difference Means Making It Different: Honoring Children's Rights to Excellent Reading Instruction* outlines ten "specific and evidence-based principles to build reading programs that honor children's rights to excellent reading instruction" (p. 217). Working closely with the national Middle School Association (NMSA), IRA leaders produced a 2002 position statement that implores the educational community to save some of its attention for middle school learners. Susan Swaim, Executive Director of NSMA in 2004, indicated that "early reading has received increased attention from policy makers, funding agencies, and educational planners," and not

paying attention to middle schoolers would be a serious error (as cited in Hartman & Sears, p. 144).

3.1.3.4 Enhancement of United States' educational system Reacting to U. S. educational history has also included broadening the term *education* to include peers and the community. In 1974, IRA and the Children's Book Council worked together to produce *Children's Choices*, recommended booklists. This was and continues to be an organized way that outside forces can supplement education. Via the information on IRA's web site, teachers can let children know what books their peers recommend (Hartman & Sears, 2006). This far-reaching project that is not confined to classroom parameters has the potential to cause more students to read. Once students know that their peers are reading, they may be more inclined to do the same.

U. S. schools traditionally do not reach out to communities to help students with their reading. In 1997, IRA became a partner in the America Reads Challenge, a project that "works with families and communities to promote reading and 'enlist a million reading tutors to assist in teaching children to read to high standards'" (Hartman & Sears, 2006, p. 146). Between 2003 and 2004, IRA President Lesley Mandel Morrow created the manual used to train these tutors. This kind of project illustrates that education can and should happen outside of the classroom and the classroom is not an island unto itself.

3.1.3.5 Response to educational policy Enhancing U. S. education has also meant providing comment on existing school policy, creating national standards, and getting involved in governmental policy making. In 1979, The IRA Resolutions Committee issued its first policy statement arguing against "the use of a single assessment as the basis for determining promotion

[to the next grade level] or graduation" [from high school] (Hartman & Sears, 2006, p. 206). Commenting on an existing school policy, this statement was designed for educators, not policy makers.

In 1992, IRA and the National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE) began a collaborative effort "to establish national standards in English and Language Arts for grades k[indergarten] to twelve" (Hartman & Sears, 2006, p. 168). The U. S. Office of Educational Research and Improvement that had been providing funding then decided that insufficient progress had been made and withdrew aid. To continue the project, both IRA and NCTE provided the capital. This project produced a 1996 publication called *Standards for the English Language Arts* that showed "what students should know and be able to do in the English Language Arts" (p. 169). The Standards Project became indicative of the new power struggle evident in the world of education.

As a reaction to the Standards Project, Hartman and Sears (2006) noted that IRA leadership sponsored the National Commission on Excellence in Elementary Teacher Preparation for Reading Instruction. This sponsorship came from the Association's need "to more actively sponsor projects that informed the policy decisions which were increasingly being made at the federal level" (p. 170). This Commission's study found that "an investment in quality reading teacher preparation at the undergraduate level contributes to effective teaching and learning of reading in elementary schools" (p. 171).

Reaction to educational policy has also meant getting involved in governmental policy affecting education. One way to accomplish that has been to offer Governmental Relations Workshops that deal with "concerns and issues that educators in the state ha[ve] with existing and pending policy. . . such as No Child Left Behind, Headstart, Adolescent Literacy, IDEA [Individuals with Disabilities Education Act], and Teacher Edcuation" (Hartman & Sears, 2006,

p. 213). These workshops started in 1996 are held each February in Washington, D. C. as a way for members to "strengthen their own and their councils' ability to impact state and national policy related to reading" (p. 212).

Hartman and Sears (2006) reported that getting involved in educational policy has also meant putting together Legislative Action Teams (LATs) who "volunteer their time to advocate for legislation that promotes good reading and writing instruction" (p. 213). In 2005, 605 IRA members participated. Together, the LATs and the Government Relations Workshop "mobilize state councils" by having them "monitor ongoing legislative activity" and "get the word out quickly when an issue is on the table for legislative action" (p. 214). Legislative Action Teams that started in 1999 have two responsibilities: "to transport IRA perspectives to the government and to take policy information back to IRA staff" (p. 151).

Hartman and Sears (2006) reported that creating position statements has been a way to respond to educational policy. A position statement can be defined as "a distillation of the research literature with a bent toward stating what the implications of that literature meant for action" (p. 184). These written statements have the ability to "carry weight when working with policy makers" (p. 184). At the time of this writing, Cathy Roller's job is to create the statements while Richard Long's job is to "'sell'" them to Washington (p. 211).

Providing clarification to the U. S. government is yet another way that IRA responds to educational policy. In 1998, Public Law 105-277, the Reading Excellence Act, went into effect. IRA Executive Director Alan Farstrup; Director of Research and Policy, Cathy Roller; and then IRA President Kathryn Ransom worked together to change the definitions of the words *reading* and *research* used in the law (Hartman & Sears, 2006).

Finally, becoming involved in governmental policy making became necessary. As Hartman and Sears (2006) noted in 1975, Public Law 94-142, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act, passed. Seeing that it had not been involved in that process, IRA leadership noted that it was an "outsider with no means to amplify [its] voice" (p. 208). Then Executive Director Ralph Staiger began to "network with individuals in Washington, D. C. agencies, with reading-related contacts in the U. S. Department of Education, Title I, and the National Institute of Education" (p. 208). Also as a result of being left out of Law 94-142, IRA hired Richard Long in 1977 to "become 'the eyes and ears' for IRA on Capitol Hill" (p. 208).

3.1.4 Reaction to history of United States' reading instruction and research

In addition to reacting to member needs, U. S. history, and U. S. educational history, IRA leadership has intentionally reacted to what was happening in the history of U. S. reading instruction.

3.1.4.1 Awareness of new trends Through its publications and conferences, the Association informs members of timely topics and new trends. In the mid 1960s, the fifth volume of the *Perspectives in Reading* series featured the First Grade Reading programs, a "hot topic" of the day. Hartman and Sears (2006) indicated that the fervor was a result of Jeanne Chall's 1996 *Learning to Read: The Great Debate*. Chall was a 1959-1960 IRA Committee Chair (Jerrolds, 1977) and a 1961-1964 Board member. The 1964 edition of *Perspectives in Reading* entitled *College-Adult Reading Instruction* that commented on "adult reading in all its forms across three

contexts: college, work, and home" contained "some of the best research and ideas of the time" (Hartman & Sears, p. 113).

Since 1997, the Association's newspaper *Reading Today* has featured a column called "What's Hot and What's Not." From reading the column, members can stay current in their fields by knowing what is happening (Hartman & Sears, 2006). The February/March 2007 column reports that the hottest topic in 2007 is adolescent literacy (Cassidy & Cassidy, 2007). At the 2004 convention in Reno, Nevada, Past IRA President Jack Cassidy presented a session on "What's Hot and What's Not."

Keeping members apprised of new trends has also occurred through the *Conference Proceedings* texts published between 1956 (Hartman & Sears, 2006) and 1968. William S. Gray and Nancy Larrick, IRA's second president, (Jerrolds, 1977) served as editors. Hartman and Sears noted that the *Proceedings*, the first books that IRA ever published, featured sample[s] of the presentations made at the Annual Convention. The 1956 volume featured presentations on "television as an aid to teaching reading" and "'adapting reading programs for the demands of current life'" (p. 111). All volumes "focused on new forms and approaches to reading that modern times were demanding and how new technology could assist in teaching the new reading skill to a new generation" (p. 111). Pre-convention Institutes held just before the convention each year also raise awareness of timely topics. At a 1972 Institute, attendees learned about instructional technology as connected to reading.

Seeing that times had changed and that it needed to broaden its book publishing (Hartman & Sears, 2006), IRA leadership hired Lloyd Kline in 1975 to serve as Director of Publications. The make-up of the memberships was changing, and "topics in reading [were] expand[ing]" (p. 119). At that time, attention turned to an assertive search for potential authors.

3.1.4.2 Gaps in knowledge base Identifying "gaps in the knowledge base" (Hartman & Sears, 2006, p. 172), has been another method by which the Association has intentionally reacted to the history of U. S. reading instruction. In 2004, IRA and the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (NICHD) formed a partnership in the name of the true nature of comprehension, a topic that remained vague over the course of the twentieth. The purpose of the meeting was to provide an opportunity for invited experts "to identify gaps in the knowledge base about comprehension and to propose priority research questions and areas for future research" (p. 172).

3.1.4.3 Criticism of reading profession More noticeable has been IRA leadership's intentional response to criticism of the reading profession. In fact, criticism of the reading field was occurring even before Rudolf Flesch wrote his scathing 1955 *Why Johnny Can't Read and What You Can Do About It*. Hartman and Sears (2006) noted that the National Association for Remedial Teachers (NART) and the International Council for the Improvement of Reading Instruction (ICIRI), the two organizations that merged to produce IRA, "felt the need to better address the real issues and political rhetoric of the times and to begin to establish an international community for the discussion and advancement of a scientific approach to reading instruction" (p. 27). Once Flesch's book appeared, the "merger sped up considerably" (p. 28). W. S. Gray planned the 1956 convention with Flesch in mind—*Better Readers for Our Times* a telling title. Helen Robinson and Emmett Betts, two other IRA key figures, developed the Association's bylaws as a reaction to Flesch's criticism. Robinson (Jerrolds, 1977) and Betts were both IRA committee chairs in the 1950s. Gray's Committee on Studies in Research had a large-scale 1960

project "that was to respond to the attacks on the field of reading since R. Flesch's book . . . appeared in 1955" (Hartman and Sears, p. 159). The committee's study was designed to discover whether or not Flesch was correct. In 1962, the Association formed a Resolutions Committee as a way to address reading pioneer Arthur Gates' notion that "the Association's leadership should respond to the criticism about reading and instruction that were appearing in the popular press and political arena at the time" (p. 206). The resolutions stemming from the committee "could only focus on issues where 'gross exaggerations' and 'assaults' had been made toward the reading field" (p. 206). The job of the committee was to raise awareness of IRA's positions.

In summary, throughout its history, IRA has taken certain actions as a deliberate response to a particular need or occurrence. Since the association has been watchful of its members' needs and willing to meet them, it has been in the position to expand members' professional capabilities and connections. Since IRA leadership has been mindful of its own operations, it is able to reorganize and organize in an effort to keep pace with history, clarify its missions to the public, and expand its leadership strategies in an effort to supplement U.S. public education and thereby bring students and teachers into the main stream.

3.2 IRA INITIATIVES

Not only does the Association's leadership react to member needs, U. S. history, U. S. educational history, and U. S. reading- instruction history, but it can also be defined as an initiator. Throughout its history, the Association has been initiating connections between councils and communities, between teachers and practice, and between teachers and research.

3.2.1 Connections between councils and communities

By creating connections between themselves and the community, IRA state and local councils stay true to their purposes of "tak[ing] action to raise awareness of literacy issues[;] reach[ing] out to meet the needs of students, teachers, [and] society; [and] improv[ing] quality of life" (Hartman & Sears, 2006, p. 53). Since the 1960s, many councils have had programming for parents who want to support their children's literacy growth. For example, in 1976, the Southeastern Idaho Reading Council held a four-year Book Bag Project through which "at-home libraries" were established. At the end of the program, 240 U. S. first graders had read a total of 24, 144 books.

In 2004, the Alabama Reading Association found two ways to reach out to the community. ARA's web site advertised the Book Buddies program in which business men and women in Nashville, Tennessee, gave up their lunch hours to tutor children in need whom school districts had identified. Knowing that children respect and admire firefighters, ARA developed another project called Four Alarm Reading. Volunteers took children to the station so that off-duty firefighters could read to them (Hartman & Sears, 2006).

Between 2004 and 2005, the Utah Council of IRA encouraged members to help reduce illiteracy in residents of a particular county of Utah. UCIRA's newsletter advertised Project Read through which members could donate several hours per week to assist some of the 21,000 adults with reading and writing skills. The council raised awareness of the alarming illiteracy rate and took action to change lives (Hartman & Sears, 2006).

In the same spirit, the Keystone State Reading Association and the Lancaster-Lebanon Reading Council in Pennsylvania conducted a community project. Sue Francis, past president of

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KSRA, reported that the project involved enlisting college students to accompany council members to shelters, day care centers, and a variety of locations where children were. Reading to these children, no doubt, showed them that they were valued and gave them the sense that books make good companions (as cited in Hartman & Sears, 2006).

Occasionally, connections between councils and the community expand to include partnerships with companies and other organizations. In an August 2003 letter to council leaders, Brenda Townsend, Director of Council and Affiliates Services, shared a list of companies and other organizations that promoted literacy. Townsend noted that "this information may [contain]. . . the literacy project that your council needs to refocus its efforts to promote literacy in your community and beyond" (as cited in Hartman & Sears, 2006, p. 148).

3.2.2 Connections between teacher and practice

Beyond connecting councils to the community, the Association has a long history of initiating connections between teachers and practice. Between 1973 and 1974, the Association—in conjunction with the Educational Products Information Exchange—helped to clarify which reading-related products in the educational market were frauds (Hartman & Sears, 2006). Teachers and practice are also connected through literacy study groups founded in 2002. These groups are designed "'to put teachers in charge of their own learning, allowing them to play a larger role in determining what they need to learn in order to strengthen their own professionalism'" (p. 123). After participating in a study group, teachers can take new knowledge into the classroom. Face to face communication not always being possible, in 2002, the Association created *ReadWriteThink*, a "'free web site offering standards-based lesson plans

and online resources that integrate Internet content meaningfully into k[indergarten] through 12[th grade] reading and language arts instruction'" (p. 141).

Since the 1960s, the Association has created publications that connect teachers and practice. In 1965, the *Reading Aids* series began. These how-to brochures that continued through 1985 covered topics such as "how to read a book; how to read a book critically in the primary grades; how to teach reading in mathematics, science, [and] physical education" (Hartman & Sears, 2006, p. 116). Perhaps more popular than the Reading Aids series, the 1995 *Literacy Dictionary* and its 1981 predecessor *A Dictionary of Reading and Related Terms* that provided vital information for future and practicing teachers. Finally the most popular publication of all, *The Reading Teacher* that had grown out of the 1950's *Bulletin*, has always been full of "practical suggestions for classroom activities and reading materials for teachers and children" (p. 77).

3.2.3 Connections between teacher and research

Even more prevalent have been the ways that IRA leadership has found to connect teachers and research. Since 1955, the purpose of the Association has been "bringing together teachers and researchers to 'improve quality of reading (Hartman & Sears, 2006, p. 22) instruction, encourage quality teacher education, [and] promote the development of reading proficiency'" (p. 23). This emphasis on research can be seen in the 1956 bylaws that indicate that IRA would "publish the results of pertinent and significant investigations and practices and disseminate knowledge helpful in the solution of problems related to reading" (p. 72).

Offering grants is one way that the Association connects teachers to research. The Helen M. Robinson Grant established in 1996 "supports dissertation research that develops a better

understanding of ways to address instructional interventions" (Hartman & Sears, 2006, p. 164). Some grants offer practicing teachers assistance in carrying out classroom research. In 1998, one year after the award was established, then classroom teacher and future teacher educator Susan Israel, won for her study *Using Picture Books with Older Readers*.

The Committee on Studies and Research that W. S. Gray formed in 1956 sought to "plan, promote, and disseminate information about reading research" (Hartman & Sears, 2006, p. 158). As its first task, the group "design[ed] and distributed a survey on 'research in progress' among the Association's membership" (p. 159). The next year at the convention, the committee reported that IRA members were doing approximately one hundred studies. In the 1960s, Gray's committee suggested the formation of "regional institutes to help translate research findings into practical classroom use"; however, this did not happen until later (p. 161).

Hartman and Sear (2006) reported that conferences have been a way to bring teachers and researchers together. Between 1981 and 1982, the Association offered CORR, a conference on reading research. This was a whole day focused on "new research developments" (p. 40). Between the 1970s and 1980s, John Guthrie who was hired in 1974 as Director of Research created a "research strand in the convention program" (p. 180). Originally, it was called the Annual Research Address "which included a keynote address by a prominent scholar in the field of reading and literacy" (p. 181).

Most noticeably, connections between teachers and research have been strengthened through IRA publications. One book and one book series serve as examples. Hartman and Sears (2006) indicated that *Theoretical Models and Processes of Reading* that was first published in 1970 is in 2007 in its fifth edition. This work presents highly respected scholarship and is seen as a crucial reference in the reading field. The volume gives "perspectives in literacy research and its

applications, processes of reading literacy, models of reading and writing processes, [and] literacy's new horizons" (p. 122). The *Annotated Bibliography* series that started in the mid 1960s and ran through the 1990s, was "packed with listings of the best journal articles, book chapters, and books on the topic of that time" (p. 114). The 1996 volume called *Studies in Miscue Analysis* highlighted one hundred years of research on that topic. Another volume brought together the works of W. S. Gray while another did the same for another IRA Past President Nila Banton Smith.

Beyond books, Hartman and Sears (2006) indicated that the Association has used its journals to bring teachers and research closer together. *Reading Online* was established in 1997 as a way to expand what members know about different types of literacy such as visual, critical, media, and digital. The *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy* had "columns centered around five features of becoming a 21st century reader and writer: technology, media and pop culture, new workplaces and literacies, Doublespeak, and literacy: Age and Generation" (p. 100). In 1964, the Association purchased the *Journal of Reading* from Purdue University and renamed it *JAAL*. In the 1960s, the *Journal of Reading* had a column called "Research for the Classroom" that later converted to a column called "Report from ERIC/CRIER" that "brought together reports from the ERIC database system so readers could learn more about research on particular topics and where to go if they need more information" (p. 175). In the 1970s, John Guthrie had a research column in the *Journal of Reading*.

Hartman and Sears (2006) found that *Reading Research Quarterly* was created in 1965 as a way to concentrate on research as opposed to practice. President Theodore Clymer was responsible for the idea. Between 1965 and 1979, the publication had "summaries of all reading research published in the previous year" (p. 102). In 1973, *RRQ* highlighted major studies such

as Edward Thorndike's article "Reading as Reasoning" and Dolores Durkin's study about comprehension. In 1977 and 1978, the journal featured the Carver Model of reading comprehension. In 1971, it featured a republication and analysis of Thorndike's "Reading as Reasoning" article. Issues in 1977 included a discussion of the First Grade Studies. Since 2003, editors David Reinking and Donna Alvermann have included a section called "Theory and Research into Practice" that translates research into everyday use.

Perhaps no journal has intentionally brought teachers and research together more successfully than *The Reading Teacher*. Inspired by the 1920s' work of W. S. Gray (Hartman & Sears, 2006), in the 1960s, 1970s, 1990s, and 2000s, *RT* has acquainted readers with studies relating to reading. In the 1960s, editor Russell Stauffer began to offer "themed issues that grew out of major government and foundation initiative" of the decade (p. 82). For instance, one of the 1966-1967 issues introduced readers to the First Grade Studies. Some issues featured the work of two key IRA figures from the 1960s: Mary Austin's *Torchlighters* and Jeanne Chall's *Learning To Read: The Great Debate*. W. S. Gray's Committee on Studies in Research not only provided content for *RT* but starting in 1960, the publication has a "bibliographical listing of recent doctoral dissertations in reading" (p. 159). Also in the 1960s, *RT* had a column called "ERIC/CRIER" that showcased studies that appeared in that database. After the 1960s, *RT* continued to make intentional connections between teachers and research. In the 1970s, readers learned of studies that focused on sexism, open classrooms, minority issues, and the influence of poverty on reading. In the 1990s, editors Priscilla Griffiths and Carol Lynch-Brown introduced readers to popular topics of the day: multiculturalism, technology, assessment, accountability, and bilingualism.

Beyond acquainting readers with the fact that studies were going on, *RT,* as Hartman and Sears (2006) noted purposely explained the research to readers. In the 1950s, the publication began to contain a column called "What Research Says to the Reading Teacher" that featured, in part, some of the studies that IRA members were doing in 1956. The January 1968 issue explained "how to analyze the merit of a research article" (p. 83). In 1976, John Guthrie had a column that broke down research for teachers. In the 1980s, the journal still featured a column called "Translating Research for Practicing Teachers".

In summary, unlike those actions that the association has taken as a deliberate response to a particular occurrence in association history, U.S. history, or educational history, some association activity is not designed as responsive, but rather as generative. Examples include initiating connections between councils and communities, between teachers and practice, and between teachers and research.

3.3 IRA'S USE OF POLITICAL THEMES FROM HISTORY TO PROMOTE SOUND LITERACY PRACTICES IN UNITED STATES' PUBLIC EDUCATION

Throughout its history, IRA has had two intentional purposes: reacting to its surroundings and initiating connections. A third and equally significant component of the Association is its ability to follow—however unintentionally—political themes from the history of the United States, U. S. educational history, and U. S. reading instruction from 1900 to 2006 in an effort to promote sound literacy practices in U.S. education . During that 106-year period, U. S. citizens including teachers have been searching for the promised land and finding instead that all is not well with society, with education, and with reading instruction. Becoming part of the mainstream of

society is not always easily attainable. In each decade, guides have emerged to assist citizens and teachers in becoming part of that mainstream. Following historical example, the Association has been able to promote sound literacy practices in the U. S. educational system.

3.3.1 United States' history 1900 to 2006

My reading of the United States' history has led me to believe that, both new and long-time citizens have been expecting society to be the promised land. What they found instead was challenge.

3.3.1.1 Absence of promised land As Mintz (2004) indicated, during the Progressive Era—1900 to 1914—"eighteen million immigrants entered the United States" (p. 200) only to find that it did not quite live up to their expectations. Becoming an American meant living in poor housing in crowded neighborhoods. Henretta, Brownlee, Brody, Ware, and Johnson (1997) added that eating substandard food, enduring factory and mining accidents, sending children off to work, enduring low wages and poor working conditions, or even expecting work-related death for women characterized the era. The 1911 Triangle Shirtwaist Company in New York City kept its doors locked all day so that women employees could not leave early. When fire broke out on March 25, 146 women died.

Between 1900 and 1919, physical struggle was compounded by psychological struggle. Mintz (2004) reported that both inside and outside the home, new Americans suffered a loss of self-image. Within the home, parents and children battled over religion, language, and styles of dress. Leaving traditions behind caused anguish, alienation, and inadequacy.

Outside the home, immigrants often received a hostile reception from native-born Americans (Mintz, 2004). If immigrants could find work, fellow employees mistrusted them. Before World War I, African Americans, Mexicans, and women had less of an opportunity to make a living (Henretta et al., 1997). After the war began, German Americans became the objects of suspicion. Finally, between 1900 and 1910, the beginning of migration of African Americans to the North distressed white citizens to the point of race riots.

In this decade, African Americans continued to feel what W. E. B. DuBois, "the towering black scholar of the twentieth-century" (West, 1999, p. 1967) called the "'two-ness'" of being African American and trying to survive in America (p. 1969). Between 1882 and 1930, the number of lynchings reported was 3,386—a number that was surely "understated" (Tuttle, 1999, "Lynching," p. 1210). Discrimination in housing forced African Americans to move into "ill-maintained and segregated housing," and many of the jobs they could find were menial ("Great Migration," 1999, p. 871). A silent film *Birth of a Nation* released in 1915 depicting the so-called noble purposes of the Ku Klux Klan and African Americans as "idling and brutish" sold approximately 3 million tickets and caused the KKK to celebrate in the streets of Atlanta, Georgia ("Birth of a Nation," 1999, p. 237).

In the 1920's, immigrants and African Americans continued to be subjected to brutality. The U. S. Department of State Bureau of International Information reported that the newest immigrants from Russia, Poland, Greece, and Italy experienced the most brutal of working conditions and felt the wrath of being unwanted ("War Prosperity," 2005, para. 25). Perhaps no one experienced more fear and turmoil than African Americans as the Ku Klux Klan had 3 million members at this time (Henretta et al., 1997).

In the 1930s, widespread distress replaced promise. Unemployment (Hoover, 1931, para. 20), drought, and lack of confidence (para. 30) chipped away at the American spirit. In any direction that one cared to look, failure was palpable. As Henretta et al. (1997) reported in the 1930s, "9,000 banks went bankrupt or closed their doors and 100,000 businesses failed" (p. 773). Lack of work produced physical effects. Fewer families decided to have children. Breadlines formed although women often preferred to starve quietly at home rather than face the humiliation of accepting handouts. Some families were forced to relocate to Hoovervilles, shanty towns that made more visible the pain and suffering of many. Mintz (2004) explained that Hoovervilles may have provided more stability than the "Depression Nomads" (p. 242) knew: In the early 1930s, a quarter million youths were homeless. These drifters earned new identities as hoboes and "'sisters of the road'" (Henretta et al., p. 778). Lack of opportunity and psychological turmoil were common: As Mintz reported, in "1930, 11% of black teenagers were in high school and almost 300 counties in fourteen states provided no high school for black students" (p. 239). Schools in the South "were open just 146 days a year" (p. 239). Teens experienced a loss of childhood. Security and contentment were replaced by "insecurity, deprivation, and stress" (p. 237).

In the 1940s, World War II posed the most substantial physical struggle (Mintz, 2004). Those who fought to keep the promise of the promised land often returned from war as changed men whose families disintegrated or struggled to make sense of the changes. On the homefront,

> there were countless acts of violence against African Americans who voted, as well as
> public campaigns on the part of candidates like Eugene Talmadge of Georgia and
> Theodore Bilbo in Mississippi, inviting whites to do what was necessary to keep blacks

from the polls. In several cases, black veterans were gunned down after voting. (Sullivan, 1999, p. 445)

In the 1950s, Eisenhower's "good life" (1956, para. 88) did not extend to all. Quiet poverty gnawed at "one in four Americans." They had "lost their jobs in steel manufacturing, coal mining, automobile assembly, and other industries that were rapidly automating" (Henretta et. al, 1997, p. 901). African Americans, Latinos, and the elderly did not share the "good will and good hope" (p. 919). Mintz (2004) reported that "nearly a third of postwar children grew up near or below the poverty line" (p. 274). On August 28, 1955, Emmett Till, and African American teenager visiting family in Mississippi, was lynched for allegedly calling a white woman "baby". This incident for which no one was ever found guilty led to the Montgomery Bus Boycott that fall. Confusion and doubt surrounded the 1950 Brown vs. Board of Education declaration that segregated public schools were unconstitutional.

In the 1960s, the promised land became more unpredictable. Security became more difficult to obtain. Eleanor Roosevelt (1963) called it the "era of world revolution" (p. 23). Revolution became more physically and metaphorically bloody. Martin Luther King's 1967 speech "The Casualties of the War in Viet Nam" addressed the atrocities but also the loss of trust that Americans came to feel in their government (para. 2, 4, 13, 14). Besides the 58,226 United States' soldiers killed in Viet Nam ("Viet Nam War," n.d.), "young people," as Eleanor Roosevelt noted, "seem[ed] to be losing their sense of adventure, their courage, their zest in the face of the future" (p. 80). As Henretta et al., (1997) recounted, the assassination of President John F. Kennedy "set off a wave of self-examination" and made Americans question who they really were (p. 933). Roosevelt spoke of the "herd" mentality that developed among the young (p. 120). Mintz (2004) noted that the great chasm became known as the "generation gap" (p.

316). Collectively, the herd expressed its inward chaos in sexual, cultural, and civil rights revolutions. Civil rights was still in its infancy. Eleanor Roosevelt reported that society as a whole was still unready to give the "Negro" equal opportunity.

In his July 15, 1979, address to the nation, President Jimmy Carter explained that the promised land had become a continent without confidence (para. 32-33). The 1974 impeachment of President Richard M. Nixon mushroomed into a cloud of confusion and distrust (Watergate.info, 1995-2006, para. 3-4). Physical and psychological struggle included Viet Nam death tolls (Henretta et al., 1997), shootings of student war protestors at Kent State University in Ohio, the decline of the family (Mintz, 2004), America's second Depression (Henretta et al.), and teen isolation (Mintz).

In the 1980s, inhabitants of the promised land learned of two new forces beyond their control: environmental racism and Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (AIDS). A 1987 study revealed that "60 percent of blacks and Hispanic Americans live[d] in communities with uncontrolled toxic waste sites" (Weishel, 1999, p. 680). The United States Department of State reported that nothing plagued the country more than a newly identified disease called AIDS ("The New Conservatism," 2005, November, para. 10).

Although finding a place in a stable society had been difficult throughout the preceding decades, the 1990s had far more struggles to offer. Foreign and domestic war, health, and work issues choked the nation: The 1991 Gulf War killed 293 Americans ("Statisical Summary," n.d., para. 2). Henretta et al., (1997) noted that at home in 1995, 168 died in the Oklahoma City Bombing of the Murrah Federal Building. The 1990s was the era of job shifting as "lifetime careers with a single employer were increasingly rare" (p. 1031). Overall, "the poor got poorer" (p. 1031). The 1980s' optimism fading fast, adults faced new worries that their leaders were not

addressing problems with "inner cities, unemployment, the environment, and AIDS" (p. 1028).

Teens in this decade felt powerless (Mintz, 2004). The Oklahoma City bombing would be only

the beginning of terror to come.

In 2001, the United States changed forever. On September 11, Middle Eastern terrorists

hijacked airplanes and drove them into the World Trade Center in New York (U. S. Department

of State, "Bridge to the," 2005, November, para. 65) killing 3,000 citizens (para. 66). Five years

later, the nation shrouds itself in shock, fear, disbelief, and grief (para. 67). The hunt for al-

Qaida, the source of the 9-11 attacks, soon expanded into a search for other enemies. On March

19, 2003, the U. S. declared war on Iraq (para. 76) in order to locate weapons of mass destruction

(para. 72), but those weapons were never found (para. 78). As in the 1960s, America became

more concerned with other nation's promised lands than with its own.

3.3.1.2 Examples of guidance Since becoming part of the mainstream of society and partaking

of Eisenhower's "good life" has not always been easy, throughout the decades, guides have

emerged who have offered hope to citizens and shown the way to the promised land.

Several leaders of the 1900 to 1919 era helped to bring citizens into the mainstream of

society and thereby improve quality of life. In his 1917 Second Inaugural Speech, Woodrow

Wilson looked back on his first four years as president as a time of "set[ing] [the] house in

order":

> Perhaps no equal period in our history has been so fruitful of important reforms in our
>
> economic and industrial life or so full of significant changes in the spirit and purpose of
>
> our political action. We have sought very thoughtfully to set our house in order, correct
>
> the grosser error and abuses of our industrial life, liberate and quicken the processes of

our national genius and energy, and lift our politics to a broader view of the people's

essential interests. (American Presidency, 1993-2005, para. 1)

Although he did not specifically mention them in his address, Wilson could have been referring to the eleven states that granted women the right to vote (Henretta, et al, 1997), the 1914 emergence of feminism, the 1916 National Women's Party, the new identity that immigrant teens were finding for themselves (Mintz, 2004), and perhaps the 1903 Black Women's Club movement led by Ida Wells or the Migration Movement led by Benjamin Singleton, A. A. Bradley, and Richard H. Cain (West, 1999). World War I prompted Wilson to call for the unity of the country:

> We are a composite and cosmopolitan people. We are the blood of all the nations that are
>
> at war. The current of our thoughts as well as the currents of our trade run quick at all
>
> seasons back and forth between us and them . . . .(The American Presidency, 1993-2005,
>
> para. 4) We shall be the more American if we but remain true to the principles in which
>
> we have been bred (para. 10). [L]et us dedicate ourselves to the great task to which we
>
> must now set our hand. For myself, I beg your tolerance, your countenance, and your
>
> united aid. (para. 16)

In the 1920s, new leaders emerged that guided citizens in their quest for acceptance and strength. Henretta et al., (1997) reported that Presidents Warren Harding and Calvin Coolidge promised a return to "'normalcy'" (p. 741), a term that can be interpreted as peace of mind following World War I. For many, *normal* life meant enjoying leisure activities –baseball games, car rides, and fights to name a few. Congress pledged in excess of one million dollars for "well-baby clinics, education programs, and visiting nurse projects" (p. 743). The work-week became shorter, and new products such as sewing machines, washing machines, irons, and vacuum

cleaners promised to improve quality of life. Mintz (2004) added that peace of mind also meant improved quality of life for teenagers as families became "more democratic, affectionate, and child centered" (p. 215). Also in this decade as Myers (1999) explained, Carter G. Woodson, African American teacher and the second black man to obtain a Ph.D. from Harvard, continued to find ways to "dispel the racist myth of African American history" ("Woodson, Carter Godwin, p. 2021). In 1926, he created Negro History Week, which later became black History Month. In the previous decade, he started the *Journal of Negro History*, and the Association for the Study of Negro Life and History.

From the ashes of the 1930s' poverty, arose the Roosevelts. Franklin D. Roosevelt, president from 1933 to 1945, had a vision of hope and an ability to see what changes America needed to make, and the capacity to enact those changes. As his 1937 Second Inaugural Address indicated, most of the 1930s was a time of seeing needs and finding ways to meet them: "We [in 1933] dedicated ourselves to the fulfillment of a vision—to speed the time when there would be for all the people that security and peace essential to the pursuit of happiness" (Theodore Roosevelt Association, n.d., para. 1). During Roosevelt's terms of office, many answers to society's troubles emerged. Henretta et al, (1997) reported that farmers received cash, the Federal Emergency Relief Administration "kept people from starving until other recovery measures took hold" (p. 800), and the Civilian Conservation Corps gave conservation-related jobs to a quarter million young men. Tuttle (1999) noted that in 1934, the Brotherhood of Sleeping Car Porters, "the first successful African American trade union," achieved success when the passing of the Railway Labor Act permitted porters to sleep more than three hours per night ("Brotherhood of," p. 314). Henretta et al., added that in the Second New Deal of 1935 to 1938, FDR created the Wagner Act that "outlawed many unfair labor practices" (p. 803), the Social Security Act of

1935 that provided "aid to [the] blind, deaf, and disabled and to dependent children," and the Works Progress Administration (WPA) that built roads, buildings, parks, airports, and bridges (p. 804). The New Deal "would channel significant amounts of relief money toward blacks outside the South" (p. 783).

In the 1940s, President Harry Truman and patriotism resulting from World War II helped to bring citizens into the mainstream of society. Henretta et al., (1997) indicated that Truman's 1945 Fair Deal promised all Americans a right to a job, a place to live, medical care, and a decent education. This plan included setting a minimum wage and offering social security and low-income housing. The 1944 GI Bill "provided education, job training, medical care, pensions, and mortgage loans to men and women who had served" (p. 841). Strength and national unity became palpable through display of patriotism. In 1946, a National Civil Rights Commission promoting increased government involvement in civil rights was established. These developments followed the 1941 Fair Employment Practices Committee declaring "no discrimination in the employment of workers in defense industries or government because of race, creed, color, or national origin" (p. 840). In 1948, the U. S. desegregated its armed forces.

In the 1950s, the Civil Rights Movement was beginning. Lynching decreased in part because African Americans were migrating to the North and West (Sellman, 1999, "Antilynching Movement,"). Badger (1999) noted that the Montgomery Bus Boycot of 1955 protested the "mistreatment of blacks on city buses" (p. 1096). In 1957, Martin Luther King, Jr. established the Southern Christian Leadership Conference "aimed [at] challeng[ing] racial segregation" (p. 1098).

Moving people into the mainstream of society was the expressed purpose of some of President John F. Kennedy's and Lyndon Johnson's programs. Henretta et al. (1997) related that

Kennedy's New Frontier Campaign drew attention to "health care for the elderly [and] urban renewal" (p. 926). The Area Redevelopment Act drew attention to impoverished areas. The War on Poverty did lower the unemployment rate for the average family, and this included the average African American family. The 1963 Equal Pay Act drew attention to the capabilities of women. Although Lyndon Johnson's Great Society program did not achieve its full potential, it did establish the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, Headstart that formed in 1964, and Upward Bound, a program that "gave low-income teenagers skills and motivation to go to college" (p. 945). Through these avenues, low-income children could utilize more of their potential.

The 1970s relatively devoid of any guidance gave way to the 1980s and the direction of President Ronald Reagan. After the 1960s and 1970s, America needed hope, guidance, and renewal of spirit, and much like Franklin Roosevelt, Reagan delivered. In his January 11, 1989, Farewell Address to the Nation, he noted that he was, indeed, proud of his ability to help with the "recovery of our morale" and the economy (para. 9). His "'unflagging optimism'" (U. S. Department of State, "The New Conservatism," 2005, November, para. 20) was in itself a form of relief.

Bringing people into the mainstream occurred in three significant ways in the 1990s. President George H. W. Bush enacted the Americans with Disabilities Act of 1990, as he noted in his August 20, 1992, speech to the Republican National Convention (para. 34). President William Clinton's January 20, 1997, Second Inaugural Address, called for a new hope and a new day: "The preeminent mission of our new government is to give all Americans an opportunity, not a guarantee but a real opportunity, to build better lives (para. 8). The promise we sought in a new land, we will find again in a land of new promise" (para. 15). Hudson (1999) related that in

1995, civil rights leaders Louis Farrakhan and Benjamin Chavis led 900,000 African American men in the Million Man March. Farrakhan asked these men "to assume responsibility for themselves, their families, their communities, and America as a whole" (p. 1312).

3.3.1.3 IRA In shaping teachers, the International Reading Association has proven to be a good student of U. S. history. As it has filled gaps in the U. S. public education system, the Association has, however unwittingly, followed historical examples of leadership and thereby given teachers promise of a true promised land wherein the word *challenge* becomes a positive concept. Bringing teachers into the mainstream of their profession began with a Wilsonian plan to "set [the] house in order" and "correct the grosser errors and abuses of our industrial life" (American Presidency, 1993-2005, para. 1). Lack of attention to professional development within the schools and lack of substantive professional development outside the school day constitute "gross errors" in the U. S. educational arena. When teachers have a free time period, they are expected to monitor hallways, restrooms, cafeterias, study halls, and detention and suspension rooms, rather than taking that opportunity to learn. During the day, opportunities for teachers to learn and grow are, for the most part, nonexistent. After school, the monitoring continues on bus lines and at dances. Wasted time for teachers drains energy. Just as anyone who does not like the cafeteria food can choose to pack a lunch, IRA members can pack their own professional development such as IRA journals to read in their free moments. *The Reading Teacher*, for example, is known for its practical classroom ideas.

During after-school hours, teachers must earn Act 48 credits in order to keep their teaching certificates. The questionable quality of some programs that qualify for credit is another "gross error." For example, I have attended in which a retired librarian recited a children's story to a

group of professionals. Another event I attended included, a tour of a small remodeled public library and its Winnie the Pooh showcase. Instead of attending many small less than useful events, teachers may want to invest in the annual IRA convention. On any given convention day, teachers can find substantive clock-hour sessions offering strategies for increasing comprehension and vocabulary on the elementary and secondary level.

Since the No Child Left Behind law was passed in 2001, U. S. teachers have felt themselves being pushed into a war where control over teaching and learning is less possible than ever before. Following World War I, U. S. Presidents Warren Harding and Calvin Coolidge promised a return to "'normalcy'" (Henretta et al., 1997, p. 741), a restoration of peace of mind. In much the same spirit, Hartman and Sears (2006) noted that IRA leadership has since 1982 encouraged members to take an active part in advocacy. Especially since the 1990s, members have been invited "to be part of the advocacy network" to encourage members to lend a hand in "mak[ing] change in the policy arena . . . as well as the classroom" (p. 221). Working with others toward a common goal empowers teachers and gives them the peace of mind that comes with doing everything one can do.

With standards to maintain, adequate yearly progress to monitor, and teachers to put on notice because they have not met goals, the body of the U. S. public school system has no time to consider that limbs may be missing. Especially since schools have had to become obsessed with meeting standards, it has no arm with which to reach out to teachers, no eyes to see what teachers need and more importantly, what students need. The job is left to associations like IRA whose work has never been more urgent. In 1937, President Theodore Roosevelt looked out upon a nation of distressed Americans and pledged to "dedicate [himself] to the fulfillment of a vision— to speed the time when there would be for all people that security and peace essential to the

pursuit of happiness" (Theodore Roosevelt Association, n.d. para. 1). Much like Roosevelt, IRA has throughout its 51-year history succeeded in seeing teacher and student needs and finding ways to fill them. Realizing that teachers have few free minutes, the Association created Teachers Choices, an online list of children's books that other teachers recommend. ReadWriteThink, another online resource, helps teachers with creation of lesson plans. Recognizing the isolation that teachers often feel, the Association created Literacy Study Groups and provides guidance on how to use the materials successfully.

Echoes of Harry Truman; Martin Luther King, Jr; and George H. W. Bush can be heard in IRA's programs and resources. Just as in 1946, Truman established a Civil Rights Commission promoting increased government involvement (Henretta et al., 1997), the Association has shown commitment to students with disabilities and to minority students' needs. Two of the Association's position statements in particular illustrate this commitment: *Minorities in Special Education* and *Second Language Instruction*. Of the twenty-six Special Interest Groups available in 2007, three serve as examples: Reading and the Deaf/Hard of Hearing Student, Disabled Reader, and Concerned Educators of Black Students (IRA, 1996-2007b). Since minorities are still overrepresented in special education classes in the U. S. and since standardized tests that put minority students at a disadvantage are still commonly used, perhaps schools can learn from informed teachers who are members of the Association.

The Association does for teachers and students what Lyndon Johnson tried to do in his Great Society program. Increasing student potential was the point of Headstart created in 1964 to assist disadvantaged children and the Upward Bound program directed toward disadvantaged teens (Henretta et al., 1997). To be able to increase student potential, teachers must be well informed. While their teacher-education programs may have been adequate for graduation purposes,

learning does not stop at graduation. As society changes, teachers will need a way to keep up with the times. This is the purpose of the convention, regional conferences, books, and articles that IRA makes available to members and the public.

3.3.2 United States' educational history 1900 to 2006

Throughout U. S. history, citizens have expected the public school system to be a promised land. However, on the journey toward promise, one will find challenging obstacles.

3.3.2.1 Absence of promised land Between 1900 and 1919, half of the student population [did not] achieve eighth-grade status (Tyack & Cuban, 1995), and many of those who were enrolled were "left behind each year" (p. 70). For example, in 1910, only 35% of seventeen year olds were in high school (Conant, 1959). Seller (1978) showed that "by 1917, women constituted a clear majority of all high school students" (p. 2). In 1900, the notion of kindergarten was already thirty years old, but only 7% of children in the U. S. were enrolled in it (Tyack & Cuban).

At the turn of the century, Clifford (1978) indicated that America realized "that public education was a necessary social investment, that popular aspirations and national and social well-being demanded that it also be universal" (p. 166). Education for the masses was the defining issue in American education during the two decades. Edward Thorndike (1914a), one of the most influential educators since 1900, captured the surprise of the new era: "Even today such an ideal for the education of three quarters of a million children in New York City's schools seems a little absurd" (p. 33). Why bother wasting time to train Jews and Negroes the same way; after all, almost no one in the masses "could, even with the most advantageous training, discover

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new truth" (p. 37): How fruitless and ridiculous it would be to pass along what one knows to just anyone who happens to be seated in a chair.

In the 1920s, many of the struggles from 1900 to 1919 persisted. John Dewey, an educational reformer who believed in the potential of all students (Cremin, 1968) was still struggling to be heard. Mass education continued to present problems. Textbooks became the object of censorship (Clifford, 1978). The 1925 Scopes Trial was a struggle of historic proportions. High school biology teacher John Scopes was "charged with illegally teaching the theory of evolution" ("State v. John Scopes," n.d., para. 2). This was one example of the "chaos" of the decade (para.1).

The 1920s saw heated debate about testing students (Cremin, 1968), and new national concern about mental deficiency developed (Cohen, 1983). The United States Office of Technology Assessment (n.d.) reported the following:

> Some believed the emphasis on intelligence testing was bordering on the obsessive and extreme. Chief among these critics were Progressive educators who . . . were among the earliest and strongest supporters of testing. In the 1920s, [Walter] Lippman wrote a series of articles for the *New Republic* in which he witnessed the danger of using intelligence tests for purposes other than that for which they were created. He warned that intelligence testing was leading to an "intellectual caste system in which the task of education had given way to the doctrine of predestination and infant damnation." (as cited in Caruano, n.d., p. 12)

Between 1930 and 1939, a poverty-stricken era, only half of those between the ages of fourteen and sixteen were attending school (Clifford, 1978). Teachers were losing their jobs: In New York City alone, 7,000 teachers were unemployed (Roosevelt, 1932, May 22, para. 6). In

1933, U. S. unemployment was 25%, but for the rest of the decade, it hovered between 15 and 20%. Teachers who still had work endured reduced wages. Inside the classroom, other troubles existed: Lack of funds permitted textbooks to remain in disrepair, and censorship of textbooks continued (Clifford). More significantly, Tyack and Cuban (1995) reported that in 1938, programs for the disabled were for "less than 1% of all pupils" (p. 25).

As late as 1948, the U. S. still had "over 75,000 one-room schools" (Williams & Laurits, 1954, p. 39). More than three million of those aged fourteen and over were not attending school at all (Cook, 1977). By 1947, over eight million of the same age group had only a fifth grade education at best. By 1940, students were sent on to the next grade "until they entered trade or commercial courses and dropped out of school to work" (Clifford, 1978, p. 174). Also in 1940, "30% of city dwellers had completed high school compared with only 12% of farmers" (Tyack & Cuban, 1995).

Getting and imparting an education was often a struggle due to economic conditions and lack of opportunity. In poverty-stricken areas such as the South, the Dust Bowl, and Appalachia, access to quality education was restricted. Teachers also had their own struggles. Half of African American teachers had gone no further than the high school level (Tyack & Cuban, 1995, p. 23). Some believed that teachers in general had "been so held down and oppressed by nonsensical rules that they . . . lost their spirit" (Irwin, 1954, p. 187). Most significantly, the physical disrepair of both one-room and city schools posed safety problems (Weinstein, 1954).

In 1950, the school year was 158 days long (Tyack & Cuban, 1995). For the first few years of the decade, almost half of elementary teachers had no college degree (Williams & Laurits, 1954). In 1950, eight percent of those eligible were enrolled in high school. In 1959, the figure rose to 35% (Conant, 1959). In this era of re-examination of education, school criticism began

(Cohen & Barnes, 1999). Scott and Hill (1954) noted that the criticism had several causes: fear, memories of hard times, devaluation of the dollar, military spending, and "social unrest" (p. 399). The launching of the Soviet satellite Sputnik sent Americans into a panic (Cremin, 1968). Could the U. S. compete with the scientific advances of other nations? World War II shook Americans' steady faith in peace, (Scott & Hill) and fear often leads to aggression. In the 1950s, many Americans could remember the devastation of the Depression and turned careful attention to whether or not the schools were solid (Scott & Hill). Some thought that teachers were becoming lazy (Tyack & Cuban) and students were wasting time in school (Wood, 1954; Schreiner, 1954). Anderson (1954) captured some of the frustration of the times: Schools were accused of ignoring the basics, becoming too easy, becoming too permissive, offering insignificant courses, "leading the young toward 'socialism,'" failing to get students ready for college, and poorly preparing students for the job market (p. 272).

Several types of student disenchantment plagued the 1960s. Student unrest was, no doubt, influenced by teacher unrest, as Melbo and Martin (1967) explained: Morale of teachers could be improved if their pay is raised, if we let them teach, if we "treat . . . [them] as experts and free them to innovate, experiment, and modify programs within their classrooms" (p. 337). Administration's lack of attention to teacher capability and teachers' own lack of faith in their own abilities combined to produce a black cloud over the classroom. Educational equality came to the forefront. The white community was joining the nonwhite community in the battle (Engs, 1987). As Tyack & Cuban (1995) noted, ethnic and other groups were taking a stand: "Blacks, Hispanics, women, the handicapped, and other groups too long ignored in educational policy demanded a say in shaping secondary education" (p. 53). After all, Cook (1977) indicated, not

much had changed for Black students since the Brown v. Board of Education since "only sixteen percent of the black students were attending desegregated schools" (p. 79).

Clearly, America did not understand the "educationally retarded and disadvantaged" (Barbe, 1967, p. 97). But who were they? Barbe defined them as students with low IQ and those who were "less interested and motivated who were doing work below grade level" (p. 99) or those who were culturally deprived. Some signs of their presence included "negative attitudes toward school, inability to achieve. . . success in academic work, irregular attendance, [and] lack of motivation" (p. 101). Melbo and Martin (1967) believed that these students felt like "inferior aliens" (p. 346). The drop-out problem was a nationwide concern of the 1960s (Schreiber, 1967).

The 1970s was a period of turmoil for teachers and students. Since people were trusting the government less and less because of the Watergate scandal, that lack of trust began to filter into other areas such as education. Tyack and Cuban (1995) reported that "confidence in public schools" certainly reflected the times (p. 30). Schools were called "mediocre," while teachers were blamed for letting students down (p. 53).

On the way to school and inside the schools, there were other struggles. Districts trying to achieve integration bused students to different neighborhoods, a situation that turned quickly into violence ("American Cultural 1970-1979," n.d., para. 12). Dillon (1976) reported that teachers were not quite sure what they were supposed to be doing during staff development and did not want to attend. As Tyack and Cuban (1995) noted, curriculum standards became a concern in 1976. Only "ten percent of children were covered by federally funded programs for children with special needs" (p. 25). Parish and Arends (1983) reported that teachers wanted to cling to their old ways: Any new programs that did not fit their past experience were met with resistance. School reform was not working.

Teachers in the 1980s had many reasons to be anxious. Duke (1986) indicated that anxiety over job security was only part of the cause. How to deal with troubled students was another disturbing issue: "Trying to help troubled students can expose teachers to an emotional roller coaster" (p. 30). The nature of education was changing. Tyack and Cuban (1995) explained that suddenly competing with Japan became an issue. After the appearance of *A Nation at Risk* in the mid 1980s, teachers felt "a decreased reliance on their professional judgment in instructional matters, increased time demands, more staff reassigments, greater pressure, more paperwork, and heightened concern about liability. . ., but not better results for students as result of all the stress" (p. 79). In 1989, pressure increased when President Bush initiated national standards. Teachers had a feeling of being "caught in the middle" (p. 81). Teaching to the test became popular. The public's low opinion of teachers became disturbing. Clearly a disconnect between children and school was occurring.

In the last decade of the twentieth century, struggles came in two forms: teacher anxiety and a general state of disrepair that encompassed characteristics of urban schools, neglect of minority students, and school violence. The public feared that school improvement was not working (Tyack & Cuban, 1995). American students, some feared, were not measuring up to students in other nations (Cohen & Barnes, 1999). Public anxiety filtered down to teachers who already had reason to worry. Theobald and Mills (1995) explained:

> A struggle has ensued as a result of . . . growing polarization over the question of accountability. That struggle shows up in battles between teachers and administrators, between rival factions of teachers, between teacher and school boards, between superintendents and school boards, between groups of community members and school boards, and so on. During the 1990s the question of accountability seems to have brought

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an intensity to these struggles that is unequaled in the history of education in this country.

(para. 5)

When the government "continues to standardize learning and to specify the subjects and methods of public education," teachers feel the pressure (Moffet, 1994, para. 44).

In the 1990s certain levels of disrepair existed. Urban schools needed serious improvement (Tyack & Cuban, 1995). Across America, African American boys were left behind in the educational system. Biggs (1992) argued that they did not do well in school and did not have the opportunity to be connected to success. Teachers generally failed to realize that someone's differences are not necessarily "deficits" (p. 14).

As the twenty-first century begins, U. S. education has come no closer to the promised land. Students have "grown-up problems," (Rooney, 2005, p. 85) and high schools are still "broken" (Perkins-Gough, 2005, p. 88). Homeless students may not have association with a particular school and may have poor attendance. With homelessness often comes abuse, mental illness, and learning issues (Holloway, 2003). "Broken" may also apply to the disconnect between students and school: "'By high school, as many as 40 or 60 percent of all students—urban, suburban, and rural—are chronically disengaged from school'" (Klem & Connell as cited in Blum, 2005, p. 16). In the period that is sometimes referred to as the "'blurring of the 2000s,'" at-risk students are everywhere, not just in city schools (Scherer, 2005, "Our Cities, Ourselves,", p. 7).

3.3.2.2 Examples of guidance As with U. S. history, leaders throughout U. S. educational history from 1900 through 2006 have emerged to assist teachers and students in becoming part of the mainstream of educational society. Like their historical and sometimes presidential counterparts, these figures have offered hope of a promised land.

Cook (1977) reported that prior to World War I, " a spirit of reform flourished and affected almost every aspect of American life" (p. 10). Tyack and Cuban (1995) reported that Teddy Roosevelt's creation of the Panama Canal inspired Administrative Progressives to "develop a blueprint for educational progress" (p. 17). From 1900 to 1950, Administrative Progressives "shaped the agenda and implementation of school reform more powerfully. . . than any other group has done before or since" (p. 17). Levin (1991) reported that the Progressive Education Movement in full force during the first two decades of the century consisted of two branches: John Dewey's "child centered wing" and "mass education wing (sometimes called administrative)" often associated with Edward Thorndike (p. 71). Dewey believed in "creative self-expression" (Cremin, 1968, p. 183) while Thorndike and his followers at Columbia University believed in the "'science' of education" (Levin, p. 71).

Lagemann (1989) noted that Dewey hoped to "change American society through educational reform" (p. 205). One way to begin this process was through the continued use of the Laboratory School, established in 1896 at the University of Chicago. The purpose of such a school was to "'exhibit, test, verify, and criticize theoretical statements and principles . . . , and to add to the sum of facts and principles in its special line'" (p. 197). Dewey argued that scientists cannot operate without labs, so the same is true of educators. Progressive educators attempted to make schools "as pleasurable and failure-free as possible" (Clifford, 1978, p. 182). As Tyler (1987/1986) noted, Dewey's 1913 "Monograph on Interest and Effort in Education" was one of the five greatest curriculum events of the twentieth century: In it, he announced that students who are interested in a topic tend to learn more than their peers. Using this new information about students promised to lead to better practice in the classroom (Clifford).

In contrast, representatives from the scientific management period, at its height from 1900 to 1925 (Getzels, 1978), changed the educational world in other ways. Lagemann (1989) indicated that in 1909, five years after Dewey left the University of Chicago, Charles Judd took over the education program there. Dewey had hopes of changing society while Judd successfully changed the face of education. Judd's goal was to "change education through professionalization" (p. 205). Judd separated education courses at the University of Chicago from the philosophy department: Suddenly education took up residence as a science, and courses such as history of education disappeared from the curricula. But Judd could not promote the new science of education alone: By rallying colleagues, he formed the Judd Group of whom William S. Gray, the first president of the International Reading Association, was a member. The Judd Group lent itself well to the "increasing bureaucracy in schools and universities" (p. 209).

Other experts became highly influential. School administrators began to implement Francis Taylor's scientific management for industry. Efficiency was the name of the game. Suddenly,

> teachers were regarded as workers to be supervised by specialists who made sure that goals were being attained, that teachers were performing as prescribed, and that the public who paid for the schools were getting their money's worth. The task was to get teachers to follow the one best method, a method that scientific management of education would prescribe. (Eisner, 1983, p. 7)

As Clifford (1978) noted, nearing the end of the second decade of the century, "more than half of America's elementary-school teachers had two years or less of academic and professional training beyond high school. In this context, textbooks often functioned as undeniable crutches" (p. 158).

But why was efficiency needed? Eisner (1983) shared that Edward Thorndike believed that "creat[ing] a better, more predictable world" was the goal. For the next seventy years, Thorndike's scientific management would be an example for the world to follow (p. 6). Thorndike was a firm believer in control and in testing. Getzels (1978) noted that since children were commonly regarded as "'empty organisms'" whom teachers had to fill (p. 489), two things needed to be controlled: teachers and students. Teachers would need to determine what had to be learned; therefore, classrooms needed to be set up in such a way as to permit this control.

In the 1920s, Administrative Progressive reform was still going strong (Tyack & Cuban, 1995). In 1922, Dewey argued that "even the most limited member of the citizenry had potentialities that could be enhanced by a genuine education for individuality" (Cremin, 1968, p. 191)—a notion that failed to survive in the mass-education movement. Dewey, however, was not completely lost in the shuffle. Others would develop reforms based on his advice. Helen Parkhurst, for example, developed the Dalton Plan (Tyack & Cuban) that operated on the theory that "any student could learn if given enough time" (p. 95).

> Others would overshadow Dewey: Judd and Thorndike dominated the two largest graduate schools of education in the [U.S.] throughout the formative decades of the 1920s and 1930s, when the basic structures of a mass 'meritocratic' education system, built around the professionalized university and the bureaucratic school, were fully elaborated and confirmed. (Lagemann, 1989, p. 212)

In the 1930s, an association, rather than a single individual, called for a promised land for teachers and students. Tyack and Cuban (1995) reported that the Progressive Association's Eight-Year Study conducted between 1933 and 1941 was a "major attempt to reform secondary education" (p. 98). Teachers had the opportunity to work together, instead of in their usual

isolation. Students could experience courses that "crossed departmental boundaries," and they could devote more time to the arts, get involved in community projects and the school environments, and help to plan activities (p. 99). Tyler (1987/1986) explained that the study also informed colleges and universities that "they could find among high school graduates who had not met specific subject requirements many who would succeed in college work" (p. 38). In addition, the study developed something called an "in-service workshop" (p. 38). Tyack and Cuban noted that the study faded away in part as a result of World War II and the Cold War that "caused a concern for more authoritarianism in schools" (p. 100).

While in the 1930s, a study attempted to make sense of U. S. education, in the 1940s, school district reorganization assumed that role. New reforms became practical in the 1940s. Weinstein (1954) related that in 1948, the National Commission on School District Reorganization produced a plan to eliminate the one-room schoolhouses and increase educational opportunity: "The country's 115,000 school districts [could] be merged into 5,000. Not only could thousands of inefficient and overlapping districts be eliminated—at a huge saving—but educational opportunity could be equalized by wiping out most of our educational slums" (p. 79). Through this plan, districts with more funding could save the day for the less fortunate.

In the 1950s, teachers must have felt some relief when James Conant's (1959) study reported that the definition of the high school must change. What he proposed was a "prescription for good schools" (Tyack & Cuban, 1995, p. 61) in which Conant noted "a graduating class of at least 100" would be needed in order for a school to be effective (p. 14). Smaller high schools needed to become a thing of the past since they did not provide enough opportunities for efficiency. He proposed reducing "the total number of high schools . . . from 21,000 to approximately 9,000" in order to improve education (p. 81). His research would soon cause new

features to appear in the new high school: Summer school would be offered, and the day would have seven or eight "periods" of approximately 45 minutes each.

Educational reform of the 1960s had two origins: the government and publishers of educational materials. Tyack and Cuban (1995) indicated that some of the fervor derived from Lyndon B. Johnson's Great Society War on Poverty that indicated that the "'answer to all our national problems comes down to a single word education'" (p. 2). With his Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, Johnson hoped that schools would prevent poverty. A National Teacher Corps was formed to train teachers to help educationally deprived students (Cook, 1977). The Adult Basic Education Act of 1966 "recommended that . . . more emphasis be placed on reaching persons 16 through 25 in urban areas" (p. 86). Project 100,000 "assist[ed] in upgrading the educational level of the disadvantaged" although this project pertained to the military (p. 94). In the 1960s, the government began to allocate resources for programs for adult education. Cohen and Barnes (1999) reported that James Coleman produced a government-sponsored 1966 Equality of Educational Opportunity Survey that is "usually seen as the first major effort of a scientific sort" to study the effects of schooling (p. 22).

In 1965, Lyndon B. Johnson urged the field of education to pay attention to research, and for the first time, it listened (Getzels, 1978). The schools were full of attempts to change this and attempts to change that. Dillon (1976) reported that school districts began to push professional development to try to alleviate some of the disenchantment. Walberg and Haertel (1992) expressed that the issues of the day included new systems of instruction such as Bolvin and Glaser's 1968 Individually Prescribed Instruction (IPI) and Keller's 1968 Personalized System of Instruction. During this decade, cognitive theory "began to overshadow not only the factor-analytic theories of the 1940s but also behavioral theories of learning. The processing of

information became the focus for understanding complex behaviors. The cognitive perspective featured the 'active learner' concept. . . " (p. 12).

Attempts to change attitudes became popular. Alleviating boredom was a cause for action (Spiegler, 1967); raising self-esteem, another. Educational materials featuring integration of the races were popular at this time. Changing teacher attitudes about the "educationally retarded and disadvantaged" was revolutionary indeed (Davis as cited in Barbe, 1967, p. 114). Spiegler (1967) shared that suddenly, teachers became aware that part of their job involved seeing and assisting these students who were, in fact, capable of doing more than anyone knew. Suddenly, educators were realizing that dismissing students based on their IQ scores was no longer acceptable: The "once-silent voice of the disadvantaged [could then] be heard" (p. 209).

Again in the 1970s, schools and the business community, rather than a particular individual, attempted school reform. As in the 1960s, high schools continued to be the focus of equality in education, and ethnic and other groups continued to insist on being heard (Tyack & Cuban, 1995). Dillon (1976) indicated that staff development began to reflect public criticisms and expectations of schools. Students just were not achieving all that they should have been achieving. Since schools were to become panacea for social problems, teachers needed training in those areas. Lack of discipline was significant enough to warrant staff development in that area. Staff development was becoming more localized: Schools would decide for themselves what they needed to cover, and staff development would become more side to side, rather than top down. Teachers and school administrators would conduct their own sessions, rather than depending on college personnel to fill their supposedly empty vessels.

Finally, reported Tyack and Cuban (1995) the 1970s saw a return to scientific management. *Efficiency* became a watchword: The word "'businesslike' became almost synonymous with

'scientific'" (p. 114). Back to basics began to take hold. Surely the business community could rescue education. This was the decade of mass marketing of educational materials intended as "ready-made . . . solutions" (p. 114). Through the Office of Economic Opportunity, President Richard Nixon went as far as to "sponsor performance contracting experiments in which 31 companies competed for performance contracts in eighteen selected school districts" (p. 119).

Educational reform in the 1980s and 1990s took on more of a faceless voiceless demeanor. As teachers' control was giving way to governmental control, teachers became more invisible (Moffet, 1994, para. 41). Through the fog of lost authority, came ideas of technology as savior (Hancock, 1993/1992). Connectedness, as Biggs (1992) reported, was surely needed.

In the first decade of the twenty-first century, one guide emerged from an unlikely place: Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi, Director of the Quality of Life Research Center and Professor of Psychology and Management at Claremont Graduate University (*Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi*) who had much to say in the name of making education work. In this "testing culture," he reported, educators might do well to rise above test scores and remember that success is more than that (as cited in Scherer, 2002, "Do Students Care," p. 13). Educators need to create their own ways to make sure that no one is left behind. This may involve the creation of "flow": "Flow describes the spontaneous, effortless experience when you have a close match between a high level of challenge and the skills to meet the challenge" (p. 14). "Stimulat[ing] and reinfor[ing] curiosity and build[ing] on the strengths of the child" can lead to community spirit (p. 16); allowing students to take the initiative can have the same effect.

3.3.2.3 IRA Through the din that is U. S. public education, then, certain authoritative voices have provided directions to the land where education can work, and however unwittingly, IRA

has listened. Throughout its history, the Association has—for its members—created educational sounds that can be heard above the din.

While U. S. schools have not been known for the "creative self-expression" (Cremin, 1968, p. 183) that John Dewey championed, IRA has. At a 2004 convention session in Reno, Nevada, IRA publications director Matt Baker invited the thirty or forty attendees to write for Association publications. The hour was devoted to explicit instruction on submission guidelines and procedures. At the same convention, editors of *JAAL* held a session inviting teachers to think about writing for the journal. The fact that only twenty or so attended may reflect teachers' number one priority of obtaining useful, practical classroom ideas from the convention. Since teaching has become an exercise in meeting standards, teachers may have forgotten that they have something to say.

While U. S. schools have not been known for Dewey's 1922 belief that "even the most limited member of the citizenry ha[s] potentialities that could be enhanced by a genuine education for individuality" (Cremin, 1968, p. 191), IRA has. "Most limited member" once meant educationally disadvantaged students. Since the 1980s, teachers—through no fault of their own—have come to share that label. Writing for publication can be achieved only if teachers realize their own potential. However, realizing potential goes beyond writing. Realizing potential can mean learning, for a teacher who has stopped learning is a dangerous entity. To be able to create lifelong learners of students, teachers must be lifelong learners themselves. Realizing potential has much to do with understanding the history of one's profession. IRA's History of Reading Special Interest Group is always looking for new members.

While U. S. schools have not been known for their opportunities for teacher collaboration, IRA leadership has—throughout its history—seen the wisdom of the Eight-Year Study. Through

committees and Special Interest Groups, one can meet people from around the world, compare ideas, and make a contribution. In 2004, members of the Council and Affiliate Committee flew to IRA Headquarters in Newark, Delaware, from their homes in Canada, Nigeria, and Western as well as Eastern United States to work on a plan to increase teacher membership in councils. At the time of this writing, the History of Reading Special Interest Group members led by President Susan Israel are working on a project to increase SIG membership and to bring the message of history of literacy to a wider audience. Many of those SIG members recently wrote chapters for IRA's 2005 book *Shaping the Reading Field*.

While U. S. teachers have only marginally been considered professionals since the mid 1950s, Charles Judd's mission to "change education through professionalism" (Lagemann, 1989, p. 205) is evident in all aspects of the Association. IRA's first president William S. Gray was a member of the Judd Group. In the U. S., teacher professionalization has acquired a twisted meaning. Teachers know that they *have to* earn additional credits. They know that they *have to* stay after school for the occasional staff development session. Districts are not always pleased to permit teachers days off to attend conferences, and Act 48 has become a god to worship, a task master, and something as inevitable as death and taxes. The allure of learning has faded.

While U. S. schools have been shrines to Thorndike's structure at the expense of people's potential, IRA has found a balance between the two. Approximately, 22,000 attended the 2006 the annual convention in Chicago, Illinois. Conventions drawing attendees in such large numbers must be very well planned. The 2006 conference program was more of an inch-thick catalog, rather than a typical booklet. Each year, a team of conference planners at Headquarters works on nothing but the event. In 2006, plans were in the works for conventions through 2014 (IRA,

1996-2006a). The purpose of the convention is to enrich quality of life for teachers and other members so that they may be more prepared to enrich the lives of their students.

While U. S. schools did change following James Conant's (1959) report, they changed only in that smaller higher high schools gave way to larger ones. Higher numbers of students, it was thought, would somehow provide a "prescription for good schools" (Tyack & Cuban, 1995, p. 61). IRA leaders, on the other hand, have realized that "prescriptions for good schools" (p. 61) is a term that needs a more expansive definition. What is important is the quality of teachers and information that students receive, not how many students there are. Informed teachers will, if given the chance, fill gaps in the educational system. In 2006, IRA published twenty-five books, one newspaper, and four major journals through which members can become more informed.

While U. S. schools have not been known for their success with training teachers to help educationally deprived students as Lyndon Johnson's National Teacher Corps attempted to do (Cook, 1977), IRA leaders have seen that wisdom and provide way to obtain that information. Struggling readers is the topic of an IRA Literacy Study Group Module that offers "a discussion guide feature[ing] articles from IRA journals and suggestions for further reading and discussion on literacy interventions, organizing for instruction, motivation, reading for meaning, and improving accuracy and fluency" (IRA, 1996-2006k). In addition to study groups, the Association has since 1998 published at least twelve books devoted to struggling readers (IRA 1996-2004a).

Since the 1970s, U. S. schools have returned to a businesslike atmosphere similar to the scientific management created in the 1910s wherein efficiency is the end-all (Tyack & Cuban, 1995). Unlike the schools that have concentrated only on the ways to increase efficiency, IRA leadership has operated on the assumption that efficiency—while very important—must collide

with substance. Ninety thousand members would not join or re-join an Association that is not efficient. Twenty-two thousand teachers would not take time from their busy lives to attend a convention that was not efficiently managed and then return the next year and the next year. With the Association, efficiency is a means to an end: provide quality professional development for its members.

3.3.3 United States' Reading-instruction history 1900 to 2006

Just as all has not been well with U. S. society and U. S. education, for the last 106 years, all has not been well with U. S. reading instruction. Getting to the promised land has had its challenges—namely identifying what being a reader means, identifying what reading means, and identifying what teaching reading means.

3.3.3.1 Absence of promised land Between 1900 and 2006, identifying what it means to be a reader involved an examination of three components: what the reader brought to the classroom, what happened in the classroom, and what reading can do for an individual in society. Smith (2002) indicated that in 1916, the term *remedial reading* entered the educational forefront. This implied that some readers are lacking prior knowledge of and experience in reading. Between 1925 and 1935, reading readiness became an established concept. A 1927 study by Reed showed "that one in every six children failed at the end of the first semester in first grade, and that one in eight failed at the end of the second semester in first grade" (p. 243). Between 1920 and 1924, schools entertained notions that some readers were really just "retarded" (p. 180). In 1922, Smith continued, W. S. Gray declared that some readers are "'remedial'" in that they lack intelligence,

have little familiarity with reading, seem indifferent to reading, and have inadequate skills (p. 206). A 1920 Buswell and Judd study "suggested that reading skills differ with different purposes and materials" (Russell, 1961, p. 3), so a reader became a person with "interests, social background, physical condition, and emotional maturity" (Smith, p. 225). In the 1930s, as IRA's Emmett Betts (1934) summarized, many believed that children under the age of nine "should not be required to read" (p. 209). Marion Monroe, head psychologist at the Child Guidance Center in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, from 1932 to 1936 and author of several Dick and Jane readers (TagNWag Books, 2000-2006, para. 1-2) arrived at the conclusion that "success or failure in reading depends on whether a student's strength in these factors outweigh his or her weaknesses" (Singer, 1983, p. 335). In the 1930s, some teachers noted that some children toted their reading disabilities along with their books (Monroe, 1937).

Beyond what a reader brings to the classroom, part of the challenge has involved identities of the word *reader* as connected to classroom performance. Between 1900 and 1919, *reader* came to mean someone who should be able to get meaning from what he reads (Resnick & Resnick, 1977). Some give Courtis and Heller's 1921 report *Experiments Developed at Detroit for Making Reading Function* the credit for that realization (Smith, 2002) while others credit E. B. Huey's 1908 work. In the 1940s, Paul McKee (1941) made a significant contribution to the study of comprehension: "Eighty percent of our students are not getting much from their textbooks. They are not at all the demanders of meaning which they should be in order to read effectively" (p. 97). This categorization of at-risk students would lead to more in-school help from Title I, "the federally funded compensatory education program in the U. S., intended to serve children of low socioeconomic backgrounds who may be at risk of school failure, particularly in the elementary grades" (Harris & Hodges, 1995, p. 257). In the 1970s, readers "play[ed] the role of passive

recipient of the knowledge and skills mediated by the teacher" (Pearson, 2002, p. 428). Students in the 2000s are, thanks to No Child Left Behind legislation, "one-size-fits-all" (Villaume & Brabham, 2003, p. 79).

Realizing what reading can do for an individual in society has also been part of the challenge. In the 1940s, students were expected to learn to read so that they could become productive citizens (Smith, 2002). As democratic citizens, students were expected to see different perspectives (Robinson, 2005). Smith noted that reading could help students to have a well-rounded life, and as W. S. Gray noted in 1946 or 1947, "reading does affect accuracy of information as well as morale, beliefs, judgments, and actions" (as cited in Smith, p. 250).

Getting to the promised land where reading education works for students has throughout the past 106 years also meant examining identities of the word *reading*. Smith (2002) noted that before 1910, reading was synonymous with literature appreciation. The span of 1900 to 1919 was the "initial period of emphasis on scientific investigation in reading" (p. 149). Was it more important to read silently or orally? How important was obtaining meaning from what one read? Was reading an exercise in saying words, or was there more to it? If a reader does not understand what he reads, why does that happen? How does anyone tell whether reading is successful? What does *reading disability* mean? Who were remedial readers? How do students read best? Should reading be addressed in other content areas? What do students' interests have to do with their reading success? When should reading cease to be taught? How can we help students to understand what they read? What part does organizing material play in the reading process? What kinds of errors do students make as they try to read? How can the field of psychology add to what the reading community knows? What can be done for readers who struggle? How much attention should adolescent literacy receive? And what part does diversity play in reading

success? From 1900 through 2006, experts would emerge who would find answers to those questions.

If the reading profession examines identities of readers and reading, it must also examine identities of reading instruction. Between 1900 and 2006, examination of the latter has been even more prevalent than the former. Challenges came in four varieties: purpose, public perception, adjustment to new strategies, and unsolved mysteries. Purposes for reading instruction were changing. Between 1900 and 1919, teachers became familiar with new "child-centered theories of pedagogy, which stressed the importance of interest and meaningfulness in learning" (Resnick & Resnick, 1977, p. 381). In the 1930s, they discovered that getting to know students would be a necessary step toward understanding their disabilities (Monroe, 1937). In the 1940s, teachers were to teach students to read so that they could be informed democratic citizens (Robinson, 2005, November). In the 1960s, teachers learned that different kinds of literacy exist (Shanahan & Neuman, 1997). In the 1980s, high-stakes testing became a part of an educational reform movement advocating "more statewide testing and stiffer course-taking requirements for graduation from high school" (Koretz, 2002, March 21, para. 8). Also in the 1980s, reading instruction quickly became "part of a wider political and pedagogical attack on the capacity of teachers and students to engage in critical thought" (Giroux & Freire, 1989, p. ix). In the 1990s, the purpose of reading was to do things the one right way (Pearson, 2002).

Dealing with the public's perception of the teaching of reading has also been a challenge. The 1950s was a turning point in the way that the public viewed teachers of reading. Smith (2002) noted that "for the first time in history, reading instruction in the U. S. schools underwent harsh and severe criticism by laymen and by some instructors in subject fields other than reading" (p. 291). Rudolf Flesch's (1955) *Why Johnny Can't Read and What You Can Do About*

It was largely responsible. Johnny can't read, Flesch accused, because "nobody ever showed him how" (p. 2). Shannon (1989) indicated that to some extent, reading teachers of the 1960s were, as Barton and Wilder's 1964 study shows, "characterized . . . as 'marginal researchers' who relied on research and opinions of a very few people in order to form their positions on reading instruction" (p. 39).

Adjusting to new strategies has often been uncomfortable for reading teachers. In the 1960s, reading instruction began to take new shape. Shanahan and Neuman (1997) noted that "readiness activities" disappeared (p. 27). Teachers were using "informal assessment" (p. 28). Instructional strategies such as SQ3R [survey, question, read, recite, review], advance organizers, and Directed Reading Activity became popular (Singer, 1983). When Ken Goodman's Whole Language Movement started in 1972, (Pearson, 2002) teachers became "facilitators, not tellers. Teachers observed what children did, decided what they needed, and arranged conditions to allow students to discover . . . insights about reading, writing, and learning for themselves" (p. 452). Koretz (2002, March 21) noted that 1972 marked the beginning of the "minimum competency movement" that was a forerunner of the 1990s high-stakes testing. The movement consisted of "a wave of state-level policies imposing generally low-level tests as exit exams—tests [one] has to pass to get out of high school and get a diploma" (para. 4).

Finally, certain mysteries have persisted since the 1920s. What should be done about "retarded readers" (Smith, 2002, p. 180)? In the last half of the 1920s, reading began to be connected with other happenings in the school day. Reading in different curricular areas became a "hot topic" (p. 239). In the 2000s, teachers of history, science, and other content areas have not yet lent their unanimous support to the use of literacy strategies to increase understanding (Jacobs, 2002). Probably the greatest mysteries have dealt with vocabulary and comprehension.

Even in the 2000s, teachers still do not know how to teach vocabulary (Nilsen & Nilsen, 2003). While practitioners in the 1980s were still using comprehension strategies, a 1980s "hot topic" (Pearson, 2002), they still did not have an adequate grasp of the concept of comprehension (Pearson, 1985). In the 2000s, the concept of comprehension is still loosely defined in teachers' and students' experience (Robinson, 2005b). Robinson reported that educators still have not decided whether *comprehension* means being able to retell text or if it has more to do with the readers' previous knowledge that they bring to the topic.

3.3.3.2 Examples of guidance As with U. S. history and U. S. educational history, leaders throughout U. S. reading-instruction history have emerged to assist teachers and students in becoming part of the mainstream. Like their counterparts, these figures have offered hope of a promised land.

The period between 1900 and 1919 was the decade of discovery. Edmund B. Huey's *The Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading* announced that oral reading—"a bad exercise in speaking"—had been crowding out "the act of thought getting and thought manipulating" (Smith, 2002). Huey was one of the first to change the definition of the word *reading*. Educational psychologist Charles Hubbard Judd ("Charles Hubbard Judd," 2006, March 19, para. 1) announced that the "distinction between oral and silent reading is not one which has been clearly recognized in school work. What we want primarily in the reading class is ability to understand the passages" (Judd, 1914, p. 40). The following year, Judd asserted that silent reading was better than oral (Smith, p. 151). W. S. Gray declared that "silent reading is more practical, more efficient, and more effective than the regular regime of oral reading" (Shannon, 1989, p. 22). Judd and Parker, whom John Dewey considered "the father of progressive

education" ("Who Is, n.d., para. 1) agreed that deriving meaning was more important than reciting (Smith). Edward Thorndike "showed the difference between mouthing words and understanding meaning" (Russell, 1961, p. 3).

In the 1920s, Gray, Thorndike, Erdmann and Dodge, and Judd and Buswell contributed much to the reading field. Gray called for teachers to be more careful in their diagnoses and attention to remedial students (Smith, 2002), and he continued to call attention to the need for "special reading clinics" that would start to appear thirty years later. Raymond Dodge, 1916 President of the American Psychological Association, and his German colleague Erdmann "proved that [people] do not ordinarily read by letters but by whole-word units" (Flesch, 1955, p. 50). Thorndike (1927) published his 1921 *Teacher's Word Book*, a guide meant to "help the teacher to decide quickly which treatment is appropriate by telling her just how important any word is" (p. iv). Judd and Buswell's 1922 study announce that a variety of new materials would be needed to account for the fact that "readers vary their silent reading processes according to their purposes and the kind and difficulty of the material" (Singer, 1983, p. 335).

Between 1930 and 1959, expert guidance was somewhat less plentiful. In 1935, W. S. Gray and Bernice Leary "were the first to find that word frequency and sentence length were determinants of text difficulty" (Singer, 1983, p. 337). Ruth Strang's 1946 *Problems in the Improvement of Reading in High Schools and College* "pointed to the need for developmental reading instruction in secondary schools and colleges" (Russell, 1961, p. 4). McKee (1941) instructed teachers to "deliberately teach pupils how to do what they must do in order to dig out and correct understanding of what they read" (p. 99). Researcher Jack Holmes developed the substrata factor theory of reading which "explain[ed] why different methods of reading instruction work" (Singer, p. 336).

Between 1960 and 1979, other significant research emerged. Shanahan and Neuman (1997) indicated that Bond and Dykstra's 1967 First Grade Studies "found that no instructional method was superior to others for students at either high or low levels of readiness" (p. 32). Ken Goodman's 1965 study of oral and reading miscues later morphed into the Whole Language Movement: Goodman "found that children could recognize words in context that they could not in isolation" (p. 34). The Children's Television Workshop echoed W. S. Gray's 1961 philosophy: "'The goal is increased capacity on the part of children to engage independently at a reflective, creative level in pursuit of knowledge and in the solution of difficult problems'" (as cited in Smith, 2002, p. 295). The research of the 1970s was a smorgasbord of new topics. For the first time since the early 1900s, psychologists became interested in reading (Pearson, 2002; Pearson, 1985). Much of the research of the decade was devoted to comprehension. Significant studies included Artley (1977), Laberge and Samuels (1976), Samuels (1979), and Van Dijk and Kintsch (1977).

Shanahan and Neuman (1997) noted that the most significant studies of the 1980s were done by Marie Clay in 1985, Donald Graves in 1981, and Nancy Atwell in 1987. Clay, a past president of IRA and a New Zealand native, created Reading Recovery, a program "that offers daily half-hour one-on-one tutorial sessions for students who are having trouble learning to read after one year of formal instruction" (Sensenbaugh, n.d., para. 4). Since the integration of reading and writing became a standard practice in the 1980s, (Pearson, 2002), Graves' work on the process of writing received acclaim in the reading field (Ing & Wild, n.d., para. 4). Atwell's work declared that "children will read what they are interested in" (Fuhler, 2005, para. 7).

3.3.3.3 IRA Just as IRA leadership has listened to other experts from U. S. history and U. S. educational history, it has listened to those from U. S. reading-instruction history. However unintentionally, the Association has, in this third manner, used models from history to fill in gaps in the U. S. educational system.

While U. S. schools have not been known for heeding Huey, Judd, and Parker's advice about comprehension, IRA has. The educational system continues to operate as if comprehension were well defined, continues to say it addresses comprehension as students who do not understand what they read are still moving from grade to grade. Addressing comprehension is difficult to do when content-area teachers are still resistant to the part they could play in helping students comprehend. Within school systems, not much has changed. Judd's (1914) call to help students "understand the passages" (p. 40) is still relatively unanswered. IRA leadership, on the other hand, has answered. In addition to advertising a reading comprehension Literacy Study Group, IRA's web site lists thirteen books, three *JAAL* articles, seven *RRQ* articles, seven *RT* articles, and four Reading Online articles that members can access quickly (IRA, 1996-2006h). Participating in study groups would permit teachers to discuss these works, and according to the Learning Research and Development Center of the University of Pittsburgh, one can learn 70% of any subject by discussing it with others.

While U. S. public education has neglected reading beyond the elementary level as Ruth Strang announced, IRA leadership has not. In the 1990s and 2000s, the Association improved upon public education by creating a position statement called *Adolescent Literacy* (1999):

> No one is giving adolescent literacy much press. It is certainly not a hot topic in educational policy or a priority in schools. In the United States most Title I budgets are

allocated for early intervention. Little is left over for struggling adolescent readers. Many

people don't recognize reading development as a continuum. (p. 1)

Surely, the brochure continued, "adolescents deserve more than a centralized one-size-fits-all

approach to literacy" (p. 8).

While the U. S. schools have not been known for the success with struggling readers that

Clay, Gray, and McKee championed, IRA has. While schools are passively passing students

from grade to grade despite their ability to make sense of what they are doing in class, the

Association is taking action. In addition to joining its Literacy Study Groups Struggling Readers

Module that "includes a range of materials on teaching and assessing struggling readers, from the

early grades through the adolescent years," members can explore at least four other IRA books

on the topic (IRA, 1996-2006k).

While schools have not succeeded in adequately engaging children as the Children's

Television Workshop modeled, IRA has. In its 2000 position statement called *Making a*

Difference Means Making It Different: Honoring Children's Rights to Excellent Reading

Instruction, IRA asserted "that all children have a right to early reading instruction that meets

individual needs" and "a right to instruction that makes meaningful use of first-language skills"

(para. 1-2). When children's needs are not met, they are not engaged in meaningful activity.

Beyond the position statement, the Association web site lists a total of fifty-three books and

articles devoted to student engagement at the elementary and adolescent level (IRA, 1996-

2004a).

Throughout its history, IRA has been a responsive and generative organization that has used

political themes from history to improve upon public education in the U. S. The clear distinction

between the U. S. educational system and IRA is that the Association actively asks the necessary

questions and answers them, and perhaps most importantly, IRA leadership operates on the assumption that history matters. While it does publish historical works such as *Shaping the Reading Field*, it has—more significantly—kept track of its own reactions, kept track of its initiatives, and has looked around itself—instead of looking only at its daily and yearly progress.

3.4 DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Although it bears some similarity to the other two organizational histories of the International Reading Association: Jerrolds (1977) and Hartman and Sears (2006), my study is quite different. The Jerrolds' text used the great-person approach to highlight the contributions of IRA presidents and other key figures from just before the formation of IRA in 1956 through the mid 1970s. The Hartman and Sears' text --organized by the five missions of the Association—professional development, global development, partnerships, advocacy, and research—covered the period just before the formation of IRA through 2006. My study covers the 1900 to 2006 time period and is organized by three patterns—reaction, initiation, and promise—that use of the grounded-theory method produced.

In doing this study, I learned and re-learned valuable lessons about history, composition, education, reading, and the study of organizational histories. I learned that history is not the isolated subject that I had always been led to believe that it was. Like reading and writing, history is the foundation under everything. I was reminded of Doug Hartman's lesson that there is no such thing as THE history: Rather, Jerrolds was conducting one history, we were conducting another, and I conducted yet another. I learned to appreciate the layers of history that

exist. I remember the surprise factor involved in realizing that the history text I had on my shelf was only one small voice. Discovery of Mintz's *Huck's Raft: A History of American Childhood* showed me that history is, despite what I had been taught in high school, a living, breathing being. In addition to discovering the voices of history, I came to appreciate the fact that the mountains of data I brought home from the IRA archives did not tell the entire story of IRA.

In doing this study, I re-learned some lessons about writing. First, we do not always write because we have something to say. Rather, I found myself writing to determine what I had to say. Second, writing well truly has a social component. Without talking with others, I could not have produced this study. First, I talked with IRA staff and members. Doug and I talked many times about the writing we were doing in the previous study. I talked with myself about what I wanted to do with all of the information I had in front of me. Then I listened to the sources I found and talked with myself again to see what I was doing. Finally, talking with my committee members provided varying and most helpful perspectives.

In doing this study, I re-learned valuable lessons about education. First, the concept of prior knowledge can be taken for granted. Students must be given the chance to do whatever is necessary to boost their prior knowledge of a topic. In the case of this study, I spent one year on finding, reading, and dissecting information about the history of the United States, of U. S. education, and of U. S. reading-instruction history. Without a solid grasp of those topics, I could not hope to analyze that data. Over the course of that year, I became so consumed with learning this information that I temporarily lost sight of the fact that I had not yet analyzed the data and that would be another path in my journey. In the daily task of attending to the moment, we may lose sight of the future.

In doing this study, I learned that the past 106 years has not been enough time to conquer some of the criticism of the field. The subject of comprehension is still somewhat of a mystery to teachers and students. The teaching of study skills is still nonexistent in many junior and senior high schools. Children still have difficulty in learning to read, and perhaps most alarmingly, the definition of the word *reading* often seems unclear to the public, to students, and even to teachers.

Finally, I learned more about studying organizational history. From the previous study of the IRA, I was quite familiar with the examination of documents, the importance of learning to listen to people as they told their stories, and the need for careful attention to detail. What I came to understand in my study was that doing organizational history can also lead to solutions for educational reform. The use of grounded- theory method produced three patterns in my study: reaction, initiation, and promise. As I discovered that IRA used leadership models from U. S. history, U. S. educational history, and U. S. reading-instruction history, I realized that the Association provides a model for public education to follow. The clear distinction between the U.S. educational system and IRA is that the Association actively asks the necessary questions and answers them, and perhaps most importantly, IRA leadership operates on the assumption that history matters. The Association keeps track of its own reactions, keeps track of its initiatives, and looks around itself—instead of looking only at its daily and yearly progress. Perhaps U. S. educational reform can work if schools are willing to do the same.

These implications may be useful to teachers and administrators in the following ways: First, history needs to be taught as the living, breathing subject that it is. Students and teachers need to be shown that history matters. Second, students who are expected to write something should be given the opportunity to talk with others about their work. Third, teachers must take

time to discover the amount of prior knowledge that their students have with regard to class material and find ways for them to develop it. Fourth, if we let the present consume us, we may lose sight of the future just as the education profession has, for the most part, lost sight of its past. Fifth, teachers of all content areas need to understand the role that they play in helping students to read well. Sixth, school personnel need to become aware that within the study of successful organizations lies hope for educational reform.

Since 1900, U.S. citizens including teachers have been searching for the promised land and finding instead that all is not well with society, with education, and with reading instruction. Since becoming part of the mainstream of society is not always easily attainable, in each decade, guides have emerged to assist citizens and teachers in becoming part of that mainstream. Following historical example, the association has been able to promote sound literacy practices in the U.S. educational system.

3.5 CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was to determine the nature of the historical role played by the International Reading Association (IRA) from 1900 to 2006. Use of grounded-theory methodology produced three themes: reaction, initiation, and integration of political themes from history. As a result of this qualitative historical study, three conclusions were drawn: first, IRA intentially reacted to internal and external forces. Second, IRA has initiated connections among and beyond it's membership in the way that it structured its many groups. Finally, IRA has

reacted to and been affected by themes that emerged from historical events in the United States, United States' education, and United States' reading instruction.

As Eleanor Roosevelt noted in her 1930 paper *Good Citizenship: The Purpose of Education*, the purpose of education extends beyond the learning of facts (para. 1). As she noted,

There still remains a vast amount to be done before we accomplish our first objective-informed and intelligent citizens, and, secondly, bring about the realization that we are all responsible for the trend of thought and the action of our times. (para. 10) How shall we arrive at this objectives? We think of course of history as a first means of information. (para. 11) A nation must have leaders, [people] who have the power to see a little farther, to imagine a little better life than the present. But if this vision is to be fulfilled, it must also have a vast army of men and women capable of understanding and following these leaders intelligently. (para. 13)

REVIEW OF DISCOURSES

A. United States' History 1900 – 2006

In order to understand the International Reading Association, formed in the 1950s, one must first become familiar with the decades surrounding its birth. Any organization is in part a product of its environment; therefore, history matters. In order to characterize decades and provide balance, one must listen to secondary and primary voices in the historical conversation. A difference exists between hearing about the leadership of the times, for example, and hearing from the leaders themselves. To "know" is a relative term: From secondary sources, one can obtain one perspective; from primary sources, another. The following subsections will review the discourses on 1. 1900 – 1919 2. 1920 – 1929 3. 1930 – 1939 4. 1940 – 1949 5. 1950 – 1959 6. 1960 -1969 7. 1970 – 1979 8. 1980 – 1989 9. 1990 – 1999 and 10. 2000 – 2006.

1. 1900 – 1919

Six secondary sources provide comment on the 1900 to 1919 period. Henretta et al. (1997) took a matter-of-fact stance on the events of the decade: In journalistic fashion, they report the facts, lecture broadly on the nation's struggle and relief of the Progressive Era. Facts such as the

incidence of mining accidents and child labor became support while other sources provided more of an overview of the era.

Mintz (2004) added to the conversation by putting Henretta et al's (1997) facts into the context of the American child's experience. Whereas Henretta et al. cataloged and told, Mintz showed through narration and description. Within the context of children's lives, Mintz looked more deeply at the physical and psychological struggles. Where Henretta cataloged immigration into the United States, Mintz spoke of the loss of self-image and tradition that the immigrants experienced. "Great Migration, The" (1999), West (1999), Tuttle's "Lynching" (1999), and "Birth of a Nation" supplied data about the African American experience.

Allowing only secondary sources to characterize the decades is less appropriate than listening to the exact words of the most respected American leaders of the day. Those words that provide authenticity appeared in such places as presidential inaugural addresses. When Theodore Roosevelt delivered his 1905 inaugural speech, he had already been president for three years, so his comments about the gratitude Americans should feel stand the test of time. But Roosevelt's optimism is overshadowed by the facts Henretta et al. (1997) and Mintz (2004) supplied—hence the need for a balance of both types of sources.

Although Roosevelt was president for the vast majority of the first decade of the twentieth century, Woodrow Wilson was president from 1913 to 1921. Psychological relief for Americans occurred under his watch. His 1917 second inaugural speech was a message of unity. Wilson's address serves as a transition into the next decade.

2. 1920 – 1929

Six secondary sources provided comment on the 1920 to 1929 period. With their facts such as high death rate for children and Ku Klux Klan movement, Henretta et al. (1997) continued their

matter-of-fact stance. Mintz (2004) continued to add to the conversation with his narrative on quality of life for American children. Joining the conversation, the United States Department of State's "War, Prosperity, and Depression" fell somewhere between the stances of Henretta et al. and Mintz: More narration and less cataloging than Henretta yet not as page turning as Mintz. These secondary sources represented a balance of government information and private sector information as relying solely on one or the other for the entire dissertation would be unbalanced. Whaples (2001, para. 6) provided data on reduction in the work week. Myers' "Tulsa Riot of 1921" (1999) and Myers' "Woodson, Carter Godwin," provided data on the African American experience.

One primary source expanded the conversation. In 1925 when he delivered his inaugural address, Calvin Coolidge had already been president for two years. His comments were a reflection of the entirety of his presidency: 1923 to 1929. His optimistic rendition of a nation heading in the "right direction" (para. 22) was, for the most part, accurate as the 1920s were prosperous indeed: Quality of life improved for most until conditions led to the 1929 stock market crash.

3. 1930 – 1939

Five secondary sources helped to sustain the argument that 1930s history matters. Both Henretta et al. (1997) and Mintz (2004) provided evidence of physical and psychological struggle. Henretta et al spoke of breadlines, riots Hoovervilles, and hoboes while Mintz's characterizations of "Depression nomads" (p. 242), empty schools for black children, and the loss of childhood seek to humanize the suffering. Henretta et al. related the relief that Franklin Delano Roosevelt's programs such as the Works Progress Administration brought to Americans and the relief that

Americans found in movies, their own living rooms, and libraries. In a third secondary source, Chafe (1997) illustrated that Eleanor Roosevelt was as much a part of the national relief as her husband was. Tuttle's "Brotherhood of Sleeping Car Porters" (1999) and Sellman (1999) provide data on the African American experience.

Two primary sources added to the conversation. Herbert Hoover's 1931 annual message to congress on the state of the union reassured Americans that better days were coming, and, for the most part, his prediction was correct. In 1933, Franklin D. Roosevelt lifted the nation and transport it to a better place. He, indeed, paved what he called the "road of enduring progress" (Theodore Roosevelt Association, n.d., para. 15).

4. 1940 – 1949

Four secondary sources sustained the argument that 1940s history matters. Mintz (2004) commented on the physical struggle involved in the United States' entry into World War II and the psychological struggle of changes in the family. Henretta et al (1997) detailed the types of relief available: physical relief such as minimum wage resulting from Harry Truman's Fair Deal and psychological relief resulting from increased attention to civil rights. A third secondary source "Casualties in World War II" supplied the number of battle deaths. Sullivan (1999) provided data on the African American experience.

Additionally, two primary sources made the case that 1940s history matters. In his 1947 address before the NAACP, Harry S. Truman told America how to get back on track: become a stronger nation by providing opportunity for all. Eleanor Roosevelt (1963) agreed that the 1940s was a time of great strength. For the most part, Truman and Roosevelt accurately characterized

the strength of the nation, but their hopes for strength and opportunity for all men was only just beginning.

5. 1950- 1959

Four secondary sources provided comment on the 1950s. Henretta et al. (1997) and Mintz (2004) called attention to the misfortune felt by some segments of the population and the minor concerns that faced the nation in such a generally prosperous period in history. Families hid their poverty as best they could, but some suffering such as the 1955 lynching of Emmett Till would not only remain in the public eye but would change the world. Sellman (1999) and Badger (1999) provided data on the African American experience.

Minor nationwide concerns such as the changing nature of teenagers did little to tarnish the image of the "good life" that Eisenhower described in his 1956 speech to the National Republican Convention. In this speech, Eisenhower, president from 1950 to 1959, described a comfortable America. A year later, the launching of the Soviet satellite Sputnik caused the nation to be less comfortable about its educational system.

6. 1960 – 1969

Seven secondary sources sustained the argument that 1960s history matters. "Vietnam War" (n.d.) supplied the number of United States' dead in that event. Henretta et al. (1997) and Mintz (2004) helped to tell the account of psychological struggle in the decade: The nation began to feel distance between the comfort of the 1950s and the turmoil of the 1960s—turmoil caused by sexual, cultural, civil rights', and Vietnam explosions. Henretta et al. noted that in the beginning of strife, John F. Kennedy's 1960 New Frontier Campaign drew attention to civil rights, and in

the middle of strife, Lyndon Johnson's 1965 Voting Rights Act became a turning point in history. Robinson's "Chaney, James Earl" (1999), Robinson's "Detroit Riots of 1967" (1999), Aguiar (1999), and Badger (1999) provided data on the African American experience.

Two primary sources not only gave voice to the 1960s but sought to define the times. Eleanor Roosevelt (1963) lamented the physical and psychological revolutions that changed the demeanor of the young, yet she noted that all hope was not lost, that the war on poverty, for example, was making a difference. Eleanor Roosevelt, certainly champion of equal opportunity and a visionary, had an intellectual companion in Martin Luther King Jr. whose voice could be heard above the tumultuous crowd. In his 1967 speech "the Casualties of the War in Vietnam," he lamented the lack of trust that Americans felt in their government.

7. 1970 – 1979

Four secondary sources provided comment on the 1970s. Henretta et al. (1997) recounted the physical struggles such as Vietnam death counts, the energy crisis, and economic woes while Henretta et al. and Mintz (2004) outlined the psychological struggle of the times. The nation was changing: Some stood in the midst of an identity crisis. Henretta et al. described the few instances of nationwide physical and psychological relief: After a 1972 substantial decrease of troops in Vietnam, cease fire occurred the following year. New opportunities arose for women and minorities. Finkelman (1999) and Tuttle's "Jim Crow" (1999) commented on the African American perspective.

Two primary sources captured the turmoil of the period: The Articles of Impeachment adopted by the Committee on the Judiciary (1974) provided the proof that citizens could no longer put all their trust in their leaders. After he had been in office two years, President Jimmy

Carter addressed the nation on July 15, 1979. The speech described America as a land in search of direction and meaning.

8. 1980 – 1989

Three secondary sources sustained the argument that 1980s history matters. The United States Department of State's "New Conservatism" (2005) recounted the few nationwide physical struggles: job loss (para. 7), farming woes (para. 27), and AIDS (para. 10). Mintz recounted the few nationwide psychological issues associated with family problems (2004), and "New Conservatism" illustrated the mistrust as a result of the Iran-Contra incident. The latter added a few examples of the relief that Reagan brought to the nation. Weiskel (1999) spoke to the African American perspective.

One primary source, President Reagan's 1989 Farewell Address to the Nation, looked back on the strength and general well-being of the decade.

9. 1990 – 1999

Five secondary sources sustained the argument that 1990s history matters. Henretta et al. (1997), Mintz (2004), and United States Department of State's "New Conservatism" (2005) commented on the multitude of physical struggles of the era such as war, poverty, and unemployment. Henretta et al. and Mintz outlined the many psychological struggles such as dealing with school shootings and the beginnings of terrorism on United States' soil. "New Conservatism" and Henretta at al. provided brief comment on the small amount of physical relief such as reduced pollution while "New Conservatism" spoke of the miniscule amount of psychological relief of

the era. "Statistical Summary" (n.d.) provided the number of Gulf War deaths of Americans. Hudson (1999) provided data on the African American experience.

Two primary sources spoke to the decade's few achievements. President George H. W. Bush's 1992 speech to the Republican National Convention called for a decade of renewed faith in people (para. 42)--the Americans with Disabilities Act of 1990 having been his greatest example. As the century neared its end, President William Clinton asked America to have hope and prepare for a new beginning, walk forward into a "land of new promise" (para. 15).

10. 2000 – 2006

Two secondary sources sustained the argument that the short and incomplete history of the current decade matters. The United States Department of State's "Bridge to the 21st Century" provided comment on the staggering physical and psychological struggle of this era: the 9-11 incident, the war in Iraq, anthrax, and the confusion surrounding all three. "U. S. Casualties in Iraq" simply provided the number of United States' dead.

One primary source, President George W. Bush's Address to a Joint Session of Congress on Terrorist Attacks" (2001) proved that Clinton's prediction of a "land of new promise" has taken on new proportions. Bush applauded the nation for rallying together in the wake of 9-ll.

B. United States' Educational History 1900 – 2006

In order to understand IRA, one must first become familiar with what has been happening in American educational history throughout the decades through which IRA leaders have lived their lives and made their contributions. As with the study of United States' history, one must listen to

secondary and primary sources in the American educational history conversation. The following

ten sections will review the discourses on 1. 1900 – 1919 2. 1920 – 1929 3. 1930 – 1939 4. 1940

– 1949 5. 1950 – 1959 6. 1960 – 1969 7. 1970 – 1979 8. 1980 – 1989 9. 1990 – 1999 10. 2000 –

2006. Each section will be divided into three subsections: general background information,

struggle, and relief.

1. 1900 – 1919

a. General background information

Eight secondary sources provided general background information about the two-decade era.

Tyack and Cuban (1995) reported on the percentage of children in kindergarten (p. 66) and the

percentage and status of drop-outs. "American Cultural" (n.d.) contributed information about the

beginning of the Montessori method (para. 12); Engs (1987), education for black students;

National Park Service (n.d.), about an early school for black students (para. 2); Conant (1959),

the percentage of teens in high school; Cook (1977), early adult education and immigrant

education; Seller (1978), the gender of those in high school; and Eisner (1983), normal schools.

b. Struggle

One secondary source, Clifford (1978) contributed information about education for the masses

while one primary source, Thorndike (1914), expanded on Clifford in that he showed how mass

education was a frustrating concept at the time.

c. Relief

Eleven secondary sources made the case that relief was abundant during this period. Cook (1977)

provided data on American reform and the formation of a Department of Education; Tyack and

Cuban (1995), the inspiration behind educational reform and the formation of kindergarten;

Levin (1991), the two branches of the Progressive Movement, Thorndike's beliefs, intelligence testing for Army recruits, and secondary school attendance; Lagemann (1989), Dewey's plan for societal change, Dewey's Lab School, and Charles Judd's impact on education; Clifford (1978), progressive philosophy, teacher training, and the beginnings of the testing movement; Tyler (1987/1986), Dewey's philosophy; Getzels (1978), scientific management and Thorndike's beliefs; Eisner (1983), the efficiency movement and Thorndike's beliefs; Seller (1978), the Progressive Era and urban school growth (p. 12); Cremin (1968), Dewey's beliefs; and Cohen, the National Committee for Mental Hygiene.

2. 1920 – 1929

a. General background information

Two secondary sources provided general background information about the decade. Tyack and Cuban (1995) contributed information on the importance of the American school house, the percentage of children in kindergarten, the formation of junior high schools, promotion of students, school retention, graduation rates, and the standardization of schools; Cook, compulsory schooling.

b. Struggle

Five sources helped to sustain the argument that struggle persisted. Clifford (1978)

provided data on textbook censorship; "State v. John Scopes" (n.d.), the famous trial (para. 1, 2); Cremin (1968), the debate about testing; Cohen (1983), the national concern about mental deficiency; and Caruano (n.d.), the testing controversy .

c. Relief

Six secondary sources and one primary source contributed information regarding the relief felt in the 1920s. Tyack and Cuban (1995) provided data on the fact that the Administrative Progressive

reform movement was still going on, the Dalton Plan, and schools for the disabled; Cremin (1968), Dewey's educational philosophy; Lagemann (1989), Judd and Thorndike; Tyler (1987/1986), the National Society of the Study of Education; Getzels (1978), the Human Relations movement; Cohen (1983), the National Committee for Mental Hygiene; Thorndike, Bregman, Tilton, and Woody (1928), adult learning .

3. 1930 – 1939

a. General background information.

Four secondary and one primary source blend together to offer general background information about the 1930s. Clifford (1978) provides information about school attendance (p. 174); Illinois Labor History Society (n.d.), unemployment; "American Cultural" (n.d.), poverty's effect on the schools (para. 15) and the reduction of the school year (para. 6); Tyack & Cuban (1995), the concept of the junior high.

b. Struggle

Three secondary sources showed that troubles existed in the 1930s. Clifford (1978)

provided data on troubles inside the classroom; Tyack and Cuban (1995), programs for the disabled, and Cremin (1968), the testing controversy.

c. Relief

Six secondary sources illustrated that relief came in the 1930s. Getzels (1978) contributed information on the Human Relations movement and group-climate studies; Levin (1991), student segregation and tracking; Cohen (1983), the mental hygiene philosophy; Cook (1977), teacher employment and W. S. Gray's conclusion about education; Tyler (1987/1986), the formation of

the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development and the Eight-Year Study; and Tyack and Cuban (1995), the Eight-Year Study.

4. 1940 – 1949

a. General background information.

Four secondary sources provided background information on the state of education in the 1940s. Williams and Laurits (1954) supplied data about one-room schools; Cook (1977), school retention; Clifford (1978), student promotion; Tyack and Cuban (1995), those attending high schools, the public's perception of teachers, and the nature of drop-outs.

b. Struggle

Three secondary sources helped to sustain the argument that education in the 1940s had its difficulties. Tyack and Cuban (1995) provided data on access to education and teacher-education levels; Irwin (1954), the spirit of teachers; and Weinstein (1954), school safety issues.

c. Relief

Four secondary sources illustrated the educational relief available in the 1940s. Tyack and Cuban (1995) provided data on the Administrative Progressive movement and the demise of the Eight-Year Study; Getzels (1978), the continuation of the Human Relations movement, the group dynamic, and a new perspective on learning; Cohen (1983), the Mental Hygiene Movement; and Weinstein (1954), new school reform.

5. 1950 – 1959

a. General background information.

Two secondary and two primary sources provide general background data concerning the 1950s. Tyack and Cuban (1995) provided information about the number of school days in a year, the

percentage of children in American kindergarten, and the gender of the average teacher; Cook (1977), the formation of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, prison schools, and the Office of Education; Williams and Laurits (1954), the education of the average elementary teacher and the percentage of young people in high school; Conant (1959), the doubling of high school populations, the new purpose of staying in school, the types of high schools available, the percentage of students in high school at the end of the decade, and the trend of suburban students toward a college education.

b. Struggle

Four secondary and six primary sources contributed to the conversation of educational history in the 1950s. Cohen and Barnes (1999) provided information about school criticism; Cremin (1968), the effect of Sputnik on education; Tyack and Cuban (1995), the public's perception of education; Clifford (1978), a new twist on mass education; Scott and Hill (1954), school criticism, its causes, and America's state of mind; Wood (1954), the public's perception of students; Schreiner (1954), teachers' perceptions of education; Anderson (1954), public perception of the schools; Williams and Laurits (1954), increasing students' chances of success; and Smith (1954), the advent of remedial courses in high school and college.

c. Relief

Five secondary sources and one primary source made the case that some educational relief appeared in the 1950s. Getzels (1978) provided data concerning the Human Relations movement, the Cooperative Research Act, and a new discovery about learning; Cohen (1983), the victory of the Mental Hygiene movement; Tyack and Cuban (1995), Conant's plan for high schools and the effect of Sputnik on education; Walberg and Haertel (1992), the Taxonomy of Educational

Objectives and the purpose of teaching machines; Cohen and Barnes (1999), Brown vs. the

Board of Education; Conant (1959), efficiency involved in reorganizing the high school.

6. 1960 – 1969

a. General background information.

Four secondary sources and one primary source provide general background information about

education in the 1960s. Clifford (1978) and Cook (1977) provided data on the number of

Americans who went as far as the seventh or eighth grade; Cook, about education for inmates;

National Center For Education Statistics (n.d.), school enrollments; Tyack and Cuban (1995),

graduation statistics.

b. Struggle

Three secondary sources and three primary sources spoke to the educational difficulties in the

1960s. Engs (1987) provided data concerning educational equality; Tyack and Cuban (1995),

rising concerns of ethnic groups, the drop-out rate for black students, and alienation; Cook

(1977), the condition of education for blacks ; Melbo and Martin (1967), student and teacher

unrest and alienation; Barbe (1967), the "educationally retarded and disadvantaged" (pp. 97, 99,

100, 101, 105) and the drop-out problem; and Schreiber (1967), the drop-out problem.

c. Relief

Six secondary and two primary sources made the case that educational relief existed in the

1960s. Tyack and Cuban (1995) provided data on Lyndon Johnson's Great Society and his

Elementary and Secondary Education Act; Cook (1977), the National Teacher Corps, the Adult

Basic Education Act, Project 100,000, government allocation for resources for adult education;

Cohen and Barnes (1999), the Equality of Educational Opportunity Survey; Walberg and Haertel

(1992), new systems of instruction and cognitive theory; Getzels (1978), Johnson's plea for more research; Dillon (1976), the schools' push for professional development; Spiegler (1967), causes of educational reform and teacher attitude change and its effect; Barbe (1967), changing teacher attitudes.

7. 1970 – 1979

a. General background information.

Three secondary and one primary source establish general background information about education in the 1970s. Cook (1977) provided information regarding drop-outs; The National Center for Education Statistics (n.d.), school enrollment; Tyack and Cuban (1995), the percentage of children in kindergarten; and "American Cultural" (n.d.), mandatory busing (para. 12).

b. Struggle

Three secondary sources and one primary source helped to sustain the argument that the 1970s was a troubled time in American education. Tyack and Cuban (1995) provided information regarding the public's perception of the schools, curriculum standards, and funding for special needs children; "American Cultural" (n.d.), integration (para. 12); Parish and Arends (1983), the fact that school reform was not working; and Dillon (1976), teacher confusion concerning staff development.

c. Relief

One secondary and one primary source established that there was some relief in American education during the 1970s. Tyack and Cuban (1995) provided data on equality in education and

the return to scientific management; Dillon (1976), on student achievement and staff development.

8. 1980 – 1989

a. General background information.

Four secondary sources provide general background information about education in the

1980s. The National Center for Education Statistics (n.d.) provided data on enrollment (para. 4)

and high school drop-out rates (para. 3); "High School Facts" (2005), vocational enrollment

(para. 5), graduation rates (para. 6), and the achievement gap between African American and

white students (para. 3); National School Boards (n.d.), the percentage of African Americans

who had high school diplomas; and Tyack and Cuban (1995), graduation rates.

b. Struggle

Five primary and one secondary source helped to sustain the argument that education in the

1980s had its struggles. Duke (1986) provided data on teacher anxiety and disruptions in the

school day; Eisner (1983), the quality of education; Mackey & Appleman, teenage employment;

Engs (1987), alienation of African American students; Biggs (1987), discrimination as a result of

standardized testing; Tyack and Cuban (1995), United States' desire to keep up with Japan,

teacher pressure teaching to standardized tests, and teachers' perceptions of their chosen field.

c. Relief

One secondary and two primary sources illustrated that education in the 1980s did experience

some relief. "American Cultural" (n.d.) provided data about teacher pay (para. 17); Duke (1986),

the need for support for teachers; Robb (1983), the need for variety to offset student

disengagement.

9. 1990 – 1999

a. General background information.

Three secondary and two primary sources supplied general background information about education in the 1990s. The National Center For Education Statistics (n.d.) provided information regarding enrollment (para. 2) and the drop-out rate (para. 3); "High School Facts" (2005), the decline in vocational education (para. 5) and the achievement gap (para. 3); National School Boards Association (n.d.), the percentage of adults who had a high school diploma; Stedman (1995), the consistency of school achievement over time; Tyack and Cuban (1995), the number of children enrolled in school.

b. Struggle

One secondary and five primary sources made the case that education in the 1990s had its difficulties. "High School Facts" (2005) provided data on school violence; Tyack and Cuban (1995), the public's perception of school improvement and the need for improvements to urban schools; Cohen and Barnes (1999), the achievement gap; Theobald and Mills (1995), accountability (para. 5); Moffett (1994), teacher pressure (para. 44); and Biggs (1992), the achievement gap, teacher misperceptions of student differences, and the potential of African American students.

c. Relief

Three primary sources helped to establish that some measures could be taken to provide educational relief. Hancock (1993/1992) provided information about technology; Biggs (1992), response to racism and connectedness; Moffett (1994), the straightjacket nature of the profession (para. 41).

10. 2000 – 2006

a. General background information.

Two secondary and one primary source provided general background information for the state of education in the 2000s. The National Center for Education Statistics (n.d.) provided information on school enrollment (para. 3); National School Boards Association (n.d.), the percentage of African Americans who have graduated from high school; "High School Facts" (2005), enrollment (para. 2) and graduation rate (para. 6).

b. Struggle

Five primary sources made the case that educational struggle certainly exists in the decade of the 2000s thus far. Rooney (2005) provided data concerning students with adult problems; Perkins-Gough (2005), the state of high schools and lack of student preparedness; Blum (2005), student disengagement; Scherer (2005), at-risk students; and Scherer (2002), student attitudes.

c. Relief

Five primary sources made the case that measures can be taken to provide some educational relief in the 2000s. Scherer (2002) asked that the educational community look past testing and realize that success is more than good test scores, provide suggestions for making sure that no student is left behind, make an attempt at community spirit, allow for student initiative, demonstrate the relevance of material, and make connections. Phillip, Krajewski, Aguirre, and Bailey (2005) suggested creating support programs for freshmen and fostering community spirit. Perkins-Gough (2005) spoke of higher standards and renewed value for the diploma. Blum (2005) encouraged teachers to accentuate the positive, and Chrisman (2005) encouraged teacher collaboration.

C. United States' Reading Research and Instruction 1900 – 2006

In order to understand IRA, one must first become familiar with what has been happening with American reading instruction throughout the decades through which IRA leaders have lived their lives and made their contributions. As with the study of United States' history, one must listen to secondary and primary voices in the reading research and instruction conversation. IRA, an association that promotes reading research and instruction must be seen within the context of its field. The following ten sections will review the discourses on 1. 1900 - 1919 2. 1920 - 1929 3. 1930 - 1939 4. 1940 - 1949 5. 1950 - 1959 6. 1960 - 1969 7. 1970 - 1979 8. 1980 - 1989 9. 1990 - 1999 10. 2000 - 2006. Each section is divided into four subsections as taken from Chapter 6 of this dissertation. Discourses will be reviewed as they pertain to those four subsections—One Student's Journey, Continued Research and Instruction, New Research and Instruction, and the Impact on the Reading Teacher. (While primary and secondary sources provide information that may help the reader to understand each student's hypothetical experience, the concept of using a student's hypothetical experience is not found in any of those sources.)

1. 1900 - 1919

a. One student's journey

Three secondary sources provided general information that the chapter author used to comment on reading instruction as it pertained to student Alice's hypothetical experience with reading education. Flesch (1955) commented on the readers that Alice may have used. "Division 12" is an electronic source that spoke to the identity of Augusta Bronner whom Smith (2002) mentioned. [Most of the electronic sources in Chapter 6 of this dissertation serve that same

purpose of identifying or qualifying a figure from the decade in question.] Smith chronicled the advent of the topics of "deficient reader," comprehension, purpose of reading instruction, vocabulary acquisition, and scientific investigation in reading.

b. Continued research and instruction

Since 1900 to 1919 is the first section of Chapter 6 of this dissertation, no continued research is reported.

c. New research and instruction

This section is a combination of secondary and primary sources. Three electronic sources filled in detail about the identity of particular historical figures that the secondary sources mentioned. "Charles Hubbard Judd" noted that Judd was an educational psychologist (para. 1); "Leta Hollingworth," that she was a student of Edward Thorndike (para. 11); and "Who is Francis Parker," that he was the founder of progressive education (para. 1). Each of the secondary sources—Smith (2002), Singer (1998), Shannon (1989), and Russell (1961)—helped to sustain the argument by adding detail about the period. Smith mentioned word blindness, popular research topics, Judd's assertion that silent reading was considered better than oral reading, standardized testing, reading disability, remedial reading (p. 180), soldiers' reading abilities, reading for meaning, and Francis Parker's theory of expression. Singer (1983) provided information about E. B. Huey, and Russell (1961) explained the significance of Thorndike's new definition of reading. Shannon (1989) detailed the accomplishments of reading pioneers William S. Gray and Ernest Horn.

Two primary sources gave firsthand accounts of the need for silent reading (Judd, 1914) and the definition of reading (Thorndike, 1917).

d. Impact on the reading teacher

Three secondary sources sustained the argument that research and practice in the first two decades of the twentieth century had an effect on the reading teacher. Shannon (1989) reported the general use of basals and the philosophy of William S. Gray; Tierney (2000), reading assessment; and Resnick and Resnick (1977), "child-centered theories" (p. 381).

Two primary sources illustrated that teachers needed guidance. Fulton (1914) offered advice for the teaching of spelling while Thorndike (1914) addressed measurement of school achievement.

2. 1920 – 1929

a. One student's journey

Both Smith (200) and Flesch (1955) provided general information to situate student Erma's hypothetical experience within the context of 1920s reading instruction. Smith noted the advent of *reading class*, the surplus of written communication, basal use, changes in basals, reading readiness, basal authors, book size, classroom materials, and children's interests. Flesch reported characteristics of readers and phonics.

b. Continued research and instruction

Smith (2002), Flesch (1955), Monroe (1937), and Gray (1922) sustained the argument that some research occurring in the 1920s could be characterized as carry-overs from the previous decades. Smith commented on the surplus of research activity, reading disability, attention to remedial students, reading clinics, and comprehension. Flesch also contributed to the data concerning reading disability. Gray provided a definition of "remedial case" (p. 206).

c. New research and instruction

Six secondary sources made the case that research was being conducted that was not a carry-over from past decades. "APA Past Presidents" is an electronic source that established the identity of James McKeen Cattell. Russell (1961) described one study done by Buswell and Judd. Resnick and Resnick (1977) mentioned the goal of reading instruction; Smith (2002), a study of failure rates for first grade and identity of Arthur Gates (p. 209); Flesch, the work of Erdmann and Dodge; and Singer (1983), diagnostic tests. Primary source Goodkuntz et al. (1925) recounted the necessity of reading in the content areas.

d. Impact on the reading teacher

Three secondary sources—Smith (2002), Shannon (1989), and Singer (1983)—and one primary source Thorndike (1927) added to the argument that the reading teacher was affected by research and practice of the 1920s. Smith noted that new materials and new methods came with new purposes for teaching as well as the need for professional development and new professional titles. Singer recapped a 1922 study regarding materials, and Shannon reiterated the importance of basal use. Thorndike described his *Teacher's Word Book* meant as a source of direction for the teaching of vocabulary.

3. 1930 – 1939

a. One student's journey

Two secondary sources situated student Vernie's hypothetical experience within the context of 1930s reading instruction. Shannon (1989) argued that basal use continued. Smith (2002) noted that use of the radio posed a threat to reading.

b. Continued research and instruction

Secondary sources Smith (2002), Pearson (2002), and Shannon (1989) and primary source Dolch (1936) added to the argument that some reading research of the 1930s was a carry-over from the past. Smith mentioned reading interests, habits, materials, and methods; Pearson, methodology; Shannon, basal use; and Dolch, a commonly used list of sight words.

c. New research and instruction

Four secondary sources—Jerrolds (1977), TagNWag Books (2000-2006), Singer (1983), and Flesch (1955)—and three primary sources—Monroe (1937), Almack and Staffelbach (1933), and Betts (1934)—helped to sustain the argument that new reading research and instruction in the 1930s was plentiful. Jerrolds filled in details about the identity of Emmett Betts and Ruth Strang. TagNWag Books provided the qualifications of Marion Monroe (para. 1-2). Singer recounted the beliefs of researchers Monroe, Strang, Bond, Gray and Leary; Flesch, the study by Dolch and Bloomster. Monroe and Betts agreed that reading disability was a multifaceted topic. Betts also recounted the reading community's perception of reading readiness while Almack and Staffelbach (1933) commented on spelling-related research.

d. Impact on the reading teacher

Smith (2002) and Flesch (1955) showed that 1930s research and practice had an effect on 1930s reading teachers. Smith commented on the new college education earned by reading teachers, materials, and methods used, and the fact that reading supervisors were a recent development. Flesch noted the push of phonics into later use.

4. 1940 – 1949

a. One student's journey

Four secondary sources helped to situate student Floyd's hypothetical experience with reading

instruction within the context of 1940s reading education. Smith (2002) and Robinson (2005) rovided comment on the new purposes for reading; Robinson (2005) and Flesch (1955), the new methodology; and Shannon (1989), materials.

b. Continued research and instruction

Smith (2002) commented on the lack of reading research in the 1940s.

c. New research and instruction

Six sources added to the argument that reading research and instruction was not just a carry-over from the past. Jerrolds (1977) established the identity of Helen Robinson, A. J. Harris, Ruth Strang (p. 251), Paul Witty—all IRA figures mentioned by other sources. Harris and Hodges (1995) supplied definitions of *developmental reading* and *remedial reading*. While Jerrolds provided qualification of some IRA figures, Russell (1961), Robinson (2005), and Smith (2002) shared their philosophies and contributions. Russell supplied Strang's plea for developmental reading in high school; Robinson, W. S. Gray's philosophy of reading growth; and Smith, W. S. Gray's view on remedial reading programs and reading purpose as well as Helen Robinson's belief in students' potential. McKee (1941) made his own case for the lack of student preparedness.

d. Impact on the reading teacher

Two secondary and two primary sources made the point that new research brought new concerns for teachers. Smith (2002) supplied comment on the need for additional training for teachers. Robinson (2005) recapped W. S. Gray's philosophy of education which supported McKee's (1941) directive for teachers to do what is necessary to help students to comprehend material. Thorndike and Lorge (1944) described their new version of the *Teacher's Word Book* designed to make teachers more competent (preface).

5. 1950 – 1959

a. One student's journey

Two sources situated student Roger's hypothetical experience with reading instruction within the context of 1950s reading education. Flesh (1955) recapped the reasons children were not reading. Shannon (1989) commented on the classroom texts that were available to students.

b. Continued research and instruction

Smith (2002) noted that most of the research done in the 1950s was not a carry-over from the past.

c. New research and instruction

Five secondary sources and one primary source helped to make the case that most research and practice in the 1950s was not a carry-over. Smith (2002) provided comment on methodology, materials, programs, and clinics. Shannon supplied data regarding materials; Shanahan and Neuman (1997), a particular technique called *cloze* that Harris and Hodges (1995) defined. Singer (1983) recapped Holmes' theory of reading instruction. Traxler (1958) illustrated that paying attention to people's potential was a 1950s theme.

d. Impact on the reading teacher

Smith (2002) and Flesch (1955) argued that the 1950s was a turning point in negative criticism of the teaching profession. Flesch, who was largely responsible for the criticism, provided data on his reasons for dismay.

6. 1960 – 1969

a. One student's journey

Three secondary sources helped to situate student Lou Ann's experience with reading instruction within the context of 1960s reading education. Harris and Hodges (1995) defined the term

standardization of reading. Shannon (1989) provided data on the standardization of reading and the basals used at the time; Shanahan and Neuman (1997), reading choices (p. 27), limited technology, increase in writing instruction, and additional access to professional development for teachers.

b. Continued research and instruction

Eight sources helped to make the point that some of the research of the 1960s was a carry-over from the past. Gates (1967) announced a technological revolution. Jerrolds (1977) filled in detail about the identity of IRA figure Jeanne Chall. "Kenneth Goodman" is an electronic source that filled in detail about IRA figure Goodman's qualifications [no paragraph numbers available]. Artley (1977) expanded on Goodman's philosophy while Shannon (1989) filled in detail about Chall's opinions regarding publisher "'propaganda'" (p. 39). Shanahan and Neuman (1997) added that the cloze procedure continued while Smith (2002) provided information on reading purpose, reading disability, and developmental reading.

c. New research and instruction

Six sources helped to establish that new things were happening in the 1960s. Smith (2002) argued that 1960s research was more abundant than 1950s research, and she shared W. S. Gray's philosophy. Shannon (1989) commented on the fresh start that reading research appeared to experience, the reasons behind it, and the significance of the studies. Pearson (2002) added information about criterion-reference tests and the Right to Read program; Singer (1983), instructional strategies; Shanahan and Neuman (1997), different types of literacy, reading readiness activities, First Grade Studies, times for literacy instruction, and the Children's Television Workshop. Harris and Hodges (1995) provided definitions for terms mentioned in the section.

d. Impact on the reading teacher

Three sources sustained the argument that new research and instruction had an effect on teachers. Shannon (1989) added that reading researchers had minimal respect while Smith noted that reading specialists were in demand. Harris and Hodges (1995) defined the term *reading specialist*.

7. 1970 – 1979

a. One student's journey

Two sources helped to situate student Dixie within the context of her hypothetical educational experience. Pearson (2002) provided comment on the probability of her using phonics, the content of her readers, the difficulty of those readers, and the passive role students played at that time. Shannon (1989) shared Goodman's opinion of basals and the quality of student life in the classroom.

b. Continued research and instruction

This section is ommitted since it does not apply.

c. New research and instruction

Six sources established that significant new studies were occurring—Pearson (2002), Pearson (1985), Shanahan and Neuman (1997), Singer (1989), Artley (1977), and Koretz (2002, para. 4). Six sources filled in qualifying information that elaborated on those studies—AERA (n.d., para. 2), Sledd (2001), IRA (1996 – 2006), *Comprehension Instruction* (2006, para. 1), *History of Reading Recovery* (2002, para. 1, 3), and Harris and Hodges (1995).

d. Impact on the reading teacher

Two sources confirmed that 1970s research and practice had an effect on the reading teacher. Shannon (1989), and Pearson (1985) noted the downgrading of the teaching profession.

8. 1980 – 1989

a. One student's journey

Two sources helped to situate student Heather within the context of her hypothetical journey through reading instruction. Pearson (2002) provided data on the changing nature of basals; Shannon (1989), on the lack of critical literacy skills.

b. Continued research and instruction

Six sources made the case that certain practices and a general lack of awareness of certain topics continued in the 1980s. Shannon (1985) provided data on the continued use of commercial materials; Nagy and Herman (1985), vocabulary; Riley and Shapiro (1989), remediation; Pearson (2002), comprehension; Pearson (1985), comprehension; and Koretz (2002), high-stakes testing (para. 7-8).

c. New research and instruction

Four sources established that new studies were underway—Pearson (2002); Shanahan and Neuman (1997); Pearson (1985); Nagy and Herman (1985) Two sources spoke to the reading-reform movement (Giroux & Freire, 1989) and Shannon (1989). Three sources provided data on new practice—Pearson (2002); Sipe (2001); and Singer (1989). The remaining four sources filled in definitions (Harris & Hodges, 1995) or the work of a particular figure mentioned in the section (Sensenbaugh, n.d., para. 4; Ing & Wild, n.d., para. 4; Fuhler, 2005, para. 7).

d. Impact on the reading teacher

Shannon (1989) established that the reform movement caused a change of reading-teacher identity.

9. 1990 – 1999

a. One student's journey

Four sources helped to situate student Jamie within the context of her hypothetical experience with reading. Pearson (2002) provided information on what she may have missed as did IRA's brochure *About Literacy*. Tierney (2000) provided data on testing; Harris and Hodges (1995), a definition.

b. Continued research and instruction

Two sources established that certain practices continued (Pearson, 2002; Sipe, 2001). Three sources commented on education reform—(Pearson, 2002; Tierney, 2000; Koretz, 2002, para. 13).

c. New research and instruction

Five sources commented on 1990s research and practice. Pirofski (1995-2006, para. 18, 19, 22), Shanahan and Neuman (1997), and IRA (2000, para. 1-2) established that diversity was a current topic. Pearson (2002) added that attention to phonemic awareness continued (p. 459); IRA (1997), that phonics had returned. One source established what was not happening in research and practice (IRA, 1999). Two sources provided definitions (Harris & Hodges, 1995) and substantiation that segregation was on the rise (Orfield, 2001, para. 1).

d. Impact on the reading teacher

Tierney (2000) provided information on the changing role of the reading teacher.

10. 2000 – 2006

a. One student's journey

Four sources helped to situate student John within the context of his hypothetical experience with reading. IRA (2000) noted the condition of school libraries. Tierney (2000) spoke of the

prevalence of phonemic awareness and phonics. Beckham-Hungler and Williams (2003) and Jacobs (2002) question how much students were actually learning.

b. Continued research and instruction

Four sources established that confusion from past decades continued in the early 2000s. Nilsen and Nilsen (2003) mentioned vocabulary; Jacobs (2002), reading in the content areas; Robinson 2005a, phonics; and Robinson (2005b), comprehension.

c. New research and instruction

Three sources captured the positive research trends of early 2000's research: Jacobs (2002) suggested using writing-to-learn. Beckham-Hungler and Williams (2003) proposed taking a look at whether good grades equal learning. Sipe (2001) called for more attention to ways to make meaning. Two source established that No Child Left Behind legislation made an impact on research and practice. United States Department of Education, (n.d., para. 1, 2, 3, 4) outlined sanctions accompanying the law while IRA et al. (2004) provided reaction to the law (para. 2).

d. Impact on the reading teacher

Two sources confirmed that NCLB had a significant impact on teachers. Villaume and Brabham (2003) noted the lack of attention to teacher expertise; Tierney (2000), the loss of time for professional development.

D. IRA Key Figures: A Representative Sample

In order to understand IRA, one must become familiar with the philosophies of some of its key figures across time. As with the study of United States' history and with reading-instruction history, one must listen to secondary and primary sources. IRA, an Association with a long

history of qualified experts in reading, must be seen within the context of what those experts believed was important. The following sections will review the discourses on 1) 1950s 2) 1960s 3) 1970s 4) 1980s 5) 1990s 6) 2000 – 2006. Within each decade, several figures will be addressed. Within each subsection, two categories will appear: biographical sketch and advice for educators.

1. 1950s

a. William S. Gray

1) Biographical sketch Three secondary sources provided data on the life of William S. Gray: Jerrolds (1977); Gilstad (1985); and Chall (1958).

2) Advice Although Chall (1984) provided a small amount of data regarding William S. Gray, Gray (1984a, 1984b, 1984c) told his own story of the importance of research.

b. Emmett Betts

1) Biographical sketch Two sources—Jerrolds (1977) and Spache (1964) illustrated the qualifications of Betts.

2) Advice Betts (1946) revealed his own thoughts on the necessity of understanding what teaching reading really means and the importance of individual differences in students.

c. George Spache

1) Biographical sketch Two secondary and one primary source provided Spache's qualifications—Jerrolds (1977), IRA (1996-2006e), and Spache (1964).

2) Advice Spache (1964) told his own story of putting students' interests first.

d. Albert J. Harris

1) Biographical sketch Jerrolds (1977) reported on Harris' qualifications.

2) Advice Three primary sources commented on Harris' philosophy. Harris (1956) commented on individual learning, connections between school subjects, and lack of secondary and college reading skills; Harris (1960a), individual assistance, remedial help, and disability, standardization of classroom practice, and the dangers of student boredom; Harris (1960b), standardized testing and students' need for extra help.

e. Ruth Strang

1) Biographical sketch One primary and two secondary sources illustrated Strang's qualifications—Jerrolds (1977); Spache (1964); and Strang and Bracken (1957).

2) Advice Strang and Bracken (1957) provided data on their own philosophies about the need for teacher realizations about reading, reasons high school students need reading (pp. 71, 74), and the different types of readers a teacher may see in the classroom.

2. 1960s

a. Mary Austin

1) Biographical sketch Three secondary sources and one primary source contributed information pertaining to Austin's qualifications: Jerrolds (1977); IRA (1996-2006e); Spache (1964); and Austin et al. (1961).

2) Advice Austin et al. (1961) revealed her own thoughts on increased attention to teacher training.

b. Jeanne Chall

1) Biographical sketch Two secondary and one primary source provided data regarding Chall's qualifications: Jerrolds (1977); IRA (1996-2006e); and Chall (1958).

2) Advice Chall (1958) told some of her own philosophy about estimating readability.

c. Russell Stauffer

1) Biographical sketch Three secondary sources provided information about Stauffer's qualifications: Jerrolds (1977); IRA (1996-2006e); and "Memorial Tribute" (1994, para. 22, 23).

2) Advice Stauffer (1969) shared his beliefs about appropriate classroom practice while ChristoforoMitchell (2005) elaborated on Stauffer's creation of the DRTA (para. 24).

3. 1970s

a. William K. Durr

1) Biographical sketch Jerrolds (1977) provided data on Durr's qualifications.

2) Advice Durr (1964) revealed his own philosophy of the gifted student.

b. Contance McCullough

1) Biographical sketch Jerrolds (1977) provided data concerning McCullough's qualifications.

2) Advice Two primary sources provided data on McCullough's beliefs. McCullough and Tinker (1962) noted McCullough's ideas on teachers' ability to help students reach their capacity and to deal with similarities and differences in their students. McCullough (1969) revealed her thoughts on teachers' need for learning from student dialect.

c. Dorothy Strickland

1) Biographical sketch NIEER provided biographical information on Strickland (para. 1).

2. Advice Strickland (2000) provided information concerning Strickland's beliefs.

4. 1980s

a. Kenneth Goodman

1) Biographical sketch Two secondary and one primary source spoke to Goodman's

qualifications: "Kenneth S. Goodman" (2004, para. 1) and IRA (1996-2006e) added to Goodman's own vita found at "Kenneth S. Goodman" (n.d., para. 1).

2) Advice One secondary source (Gollasch, 1982) commented on Goodman's philosophy of comprehension and user-friendly classrooms while seven primary sources revealed Goodman's insight on standardized testing (1982i; 1982e) and user-friendly classrooms (1982g; 1982a; 1982j; 1982d; 1982f).

b. Jack Cassidy

1) Biographical sketch In "Dr. Jack Cassidy" (2006), Cassidy provided his own qualifications (para. 2, 8).

2) Advice One primary source illustrated Cassidy's philosophies about family literacy (Cassidy et al., 2004) while one secondary source spoke to his work with the "What's Hot" report (IRA, n.d.).

c. Bernice Cullinan

1) Biographical sketch Two secondary sources captured Cullinan's qualifications: NCTE (n.d., para. 1, 3, 4) and IRA (1996-2006a, para. 1).

2) Advice Through two primary sources, Cullinan shared her own philosophy regarding varied dialects in the classroom (Cullinan, Jaggar, & Strickland, 1974) and Cullinan (1974).

5. 1990s

a. Judith Thelen

1) Biographical sketch Two secondary sources provided Thelen's qualifications: Hartman (2003) and NCTE & IRA (1992, para. 1, 2).

2) Advice NCTE and IRA (1992) reported Thelen's philosophy concerning standards for English Language Arts (para. 2, 3).

b. Marie Clay

1) Biographical sketch Three secondary sources provided biographical information about Clay: Gaffney and Askew (2001-2006, para. 9, 15); Hartman (2003); and IRA and NCTE (1992, para. 22).

2) Advice Two secondary sources illustrated Clay's philosophy of individualized instruction: Gaffney and Askew (2001-2006, para. 10, 17); Vacca (2005).

c. Richard Vacca

1) Biographical sketch One primary and one secondary source provided Vacca's qualifications: Vacca (2005) and Hartman (2003).

2) Advice Vacca (1998) reported his philosophy on adolescent literacy learners (para. 4, 10, 7, 17).

6. 2000 – 2006

a. Carmelita Williams

1) Biographical sketch One source provided some background on Williams ("Testimony of," 2000, para. 1).

2) Advice One source provided some of Williams' beliefs ("Testimony of," 2000, para. 6, 8, 12, 14).

b. Rita Bean

1) Biographical sketch One primary and one secondary source provided biographical information on Bean: Bean (2004) and "Rita M. Bean" (n.d., para. 4, 1, 5).

2) Advice Two primary sources illustrated Bean's views on being a reading specialist: Bean, Cassidy, Grumet, Shelton, & Rhodes Wallis (2002) and Bean, Swan, and Knaub (2003).

c. Douglas K. Hartman

1) Biographical sketch Three secondary sources added to what the chapter author already knew about Hartman: IRA (1996-2006b) and IRA (1996-2006d).

2) Advice One primary source added to what the chapter author already knew of Hartman's philosophy of history of literacy: Stahl and Hartman (2004).

d. Richard Allington

1) Biographical sketch Two secondary sources contributed to biographical information concerning Allington: Jerrolds (1977) and "About Richard L. Allington" (2005, para. 6).

2) Advice Three sources by Allington illustrated his views on what American believes about education (2002b); and what educators need to realize about disadvantaged students in the United States (2002b), (2005, para, 3, 5, 6), and (2002a).

e. Timothy Shanahan

1) Biographical sketch One secondary source provided Shanahan's qualifications: IRA (2006, para. 1, 2, 4).

2) Advice One primary source illustrated Shanahan's view on the National Reading Report: Shanahan (2003, para. 5, 12, 13, 15).

E. Professional Development Through the International Reading Association

In order to understand IRA, one must become familiar with what it offers. As with the study of United States' history, American educational history, reading-instruction history, and the study of IRA key figures, one must listen to secondary and primary sources. The following sections

will review the discourses on interaction from home, interaction within your community, participation in advocacy for reading educators, research grants and awards and World Congress, regional conferences, and annual convention.

1. Interaction from your home

This section includes information about membership, *Reading Today* newspaper, journals, Special Interest Groups, and web sites. IRA's web site (1996-2006h) provided membership information [paragraph numbers not available]; Hartman and Sears (2006), *Reading Today* information; IRA (1996-2006h) [paragraph numbers not available], Hartman and Sears (2006), IRA (1996-2006k) [paragraph numbers not available], Vyas (2004), McLaughlin and DeVoogd (2004), Wade and Fauske (2004), and Carlo et al. (2004), IRA journals; Hartman and Sears (2006) and Biggs (2003-2004), Special Interest Groups; Hartman and Sears (2006), listservs; IRA (1996-2006b) (1996-2006c) (1996-2006d) [paragraph numbers not available], booklists; and IRA and NCTE (2002-2006) [paragraph numbers not available], the ReadWriteThink web site.

2. Interaction within your community

This section includes information about state-level associations, local councils, and literacy study groups. Hartman and Sears (2006), KSRA (2005) [paragraph numbers not available], KSRA (2006) [paragraph numbers not available], and Illinois Reading Council (2004) provided data about state-level associations; Hartman and Sears (2006), local councils; and Hartman and Sears (2006) and IRA (1996-2004) [paragraph numbers not available], literacy study groups.

3. Participation in advocacy for reading educators

Random House College Dictionary (1979) and Hartman and Sears (2006) supplied information about IRA advocacy.

4. Research grants and awards

Hartman and Sears (2006), IRA (1996-2006f, para. 1), IRA (1996-2006g, para. 1), IRA (1996-2006i, para. 1), IRA (1996-2006m, para. 1), and IRA (1996-2006l, para. 1) supplied information about IRA's grants; Hartman and Sears (2006), IRA (1996-2006e, para. 1), IRA (1996-2006j, para. 1, 2), and IRA (1996-2006a, para. 1), IRA awards.

5. World Congress, regional conferences, and annual convention

Hartman and Sears (2006) supplied information about IRA's World Congress; IRA (1996-2006n, para. 1) and IRA (n.d.) [no paragraph number available], regional conferences; and IRA (2006), the annual convention.

F. IRA Possibilities for Growth (Chapter 9)

Understanding an association like IRA also requires taking a look at what might be missing from its offerings. In other words, IRA may be interested in making some changes that could help to carry on the legacy of its key figures, reach and keep members, and enrich current professional development opportunities. This section will be divided into nine sections reflecting the chapter subheadings: studies needed, councils, ways to make members feel more included, workshops, web site, personal connections with schools and their students, connections to other fields, convention, and diversity.

1. Studies needed

Harris (1960) and Goodman (1982) helped to sustain the argument that IRA may want to conduct additional studies aimed at reaching students and teachers.

2. Councils

Allington (2005, para. 5-6) provided an example of a worthwhile project for councils to consider.

3. Ways to make members feel more included

Vacca (2005) and Durr (1964) provided inspiration behind making members feel more included within the Association.

4. Workshops

Austin et al. (1961) illustrated that assisting future teachers with instruction in critical thinking may be necessary.

5. Web site

The author's personal experience alone helped to sustain the argument that IRA's web site could be made more user friendly and could draw attention to additional reading-related topics.

6. Personal connections with schools and their students

Although the majority of information in this section came from the author of this chapter, Shannon (1989) and Vacca (1998, para. 1) illustrated the importance of giving voice to students.

7. Connections to other fields

Betts (1946) helped to make the point that reading should not be seen as its own island, separate from other content areas.

8. Convention

All information in this section came from the chapter author.

9. Diversity

The author's personal observations helped to make the point that IRA could be more diverse.

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