DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 384 859 CS 012 208

AUTHOR Miller, Harry B., Comp.
TITLE A Handbook for Reading Consultants, Reading 508.
PUB DATE 95
NOTE 88p.; Curriculum and Supervision of Reading Class Project, Northeast Louisiana University. Section dividers are printed on colored stock.
PUB TYPE Guides - Classroom Use - Teaching Guides (For Teacher) (052) -- Collected Works - General (020)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC04 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Class Activities; *Content Area Reading; Elementary Education; Lesson Plans; *Reading Comprehension; *Reading Readiness; Reading Teachers; *Vocabulary Development; Word Lists; *Word Recognition

ABSTRACT

Prepared by teachers in a summer course, this handbook presents brief descriptions of various aspects of reading instruction and related lesson plans and class activities. Beginning with brief biographies of 5 leaders in reading education (both living and deceased), the handbook consists of sections that discuss reading readiness; word recognition; vocabulary; comprehension; content subject areas; and issues in reading. A reading teacher evaluation form; a 12-item annotated list of assessment tests; a reading improvement form; illustrations of multiple causes and effects, comparing and contrasting, making predictions, drawing conclusions, main idea and details, story map, and organizing ideas; and the Dolch basic sight word list are attached. (RS)

Compiled by Dr. Harry B. Miller

FOREWORD

The Handbook for Reading Consultants was prepared by the students of the graduate class, Curriculum and Supervision of Reading, at Northeast Louisiana University during the summer session, 1995 as a contribution toward the improvement of literacy throughout our state.

Special recognition is offered to the efforts of all the students who prepared the manuscripts included. To Bonnie DeHaven and Jayme Stokes who provided the editorial review there is a special appreciation.

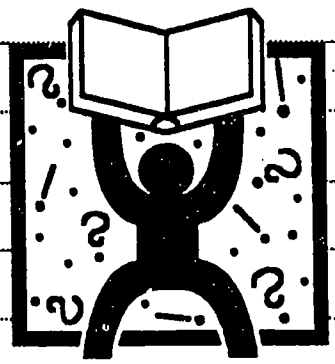
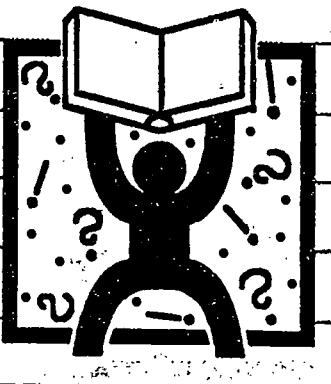


TABLE OF CONTENTS

LEADERS IN READING



EMMETT BETTS

Emmett Albert Betts was born February 1, 1903, in Elkhart, Iowa. Betts served as vocational director of the senior high school in Orient, Iowa while completing his B.S. at Des Moines University. While earning his masters degree at the University of Iowa, he was also superintendent of schools for Northboro, Iowa. It was during this time that he published Literature Improvement. He developed the concepts of independent, instructional, frustrational and listening comprehension levels relevant to an informal reading inventory.

Betts earned his Ph. D. from the University of Iowa in 1931. He then moved to Shaker Heights, Ohio where he was principal and school psychologist. It was here that he developed the Betts Ready to Read Tests.

From here Betts moved to Oswego, New York where he was director of the State Normal School from 1934-37. It was during this time that he authored Prevention and Correction of Reading Difficulties.

Betts spent the next nine years as Research Professor and Director of The Reading Clinic at Penn State. It was also during this time that he wrote Visual Problems of School Children and the Index to Professional Publications on Reading and Related Topics. Betts next took a position at Temple University where he served as Professor of Psychology and Director of the Reading Clinic.

Betts became director of The Betts Reading Clinic at Haverford, Pennsylvania. While there, he co-authored the Betts-Killgallon Basic Spellers and the Betts-Green Daily

Drills in Language Skills. He wrote the Handbook on Corrective Reading, served as

editor for the *American Adventure Series*, and contributed to numerous educational publications.

In 1961, Dr. Betts transferred to the University of Miami, Coral Gables, Florida. He served as Research Professor and authored How to Teach Reading and Foundations of Reading Instruction. He also co-authored the Betts Basic Readers.

Dr. Betts' hobbies include aviation, parachute jumping, and amateur radio.

Angela S. Guin

JEANNE STERNLICHT CHALL

Jeanne Chall has been a major contributor to American education. She was born January 1, 1921 in Shendishov, Poland. She received a B.B.A. from City College in New York in 1941. In 1947, she earned a Master's of Arts degree from Ohio State University and a PhD (education) in 1952. She has held teaching positions at City College in New York and Harvard University. She served on the committee of Project Literacy of the U. S. Office of Education from 1963-68 and the council on Title III, Higher Education Act, and State Department of Education 1968-71. She has served as a consultant on Sesame Street, Children's TV Workshop, 1968. She published and co-authored the Dale-Chall Formula for predicting and readability and the Roswell-Chall Diagnostic Reading Test. She also wrote the very influential book, Learning to Read: The Great Debate.

Dr. Chall has done a great deal of research on children at risk dating back to 1950 where she worked with hundreds of culturally disadvantaged children with reading difficulties while serving as a member of the faculty of the Reading Center at the City College Educational Clinic until 1965. Her research is discussed in her books Stages of Reading Development and The Reading Crisis.

EDWARD WILLIAM DOLCH

Edward William Dolch was born in St. Louis, Missouri, on August 4, 1889. In January, 1915, Mr. Dolch married Marguerite Pierce in St. Louis. To this union, five children were born, Marguerite, Eleanor, Catherine, Edward, and John.

Mr. Dolch began his undergraduate work at Washington University, St. Louis, in 1915. His Master's Degree was completed at the University of Wisconsin in 1918. Mr. Dolch received his doctoral degree in psychology from the University of Illinois in 1925. His doctoral dissertation was on Reading and Word Meaning.

Other books written by Mr. Dolch were:

Psychology and Teaching Reading, 1931, 1951

Manual for Remedial Reading, 1939, 1945

Teaching of Primary Reading, 1941, 1950

Better Spelling, 1942

Helping Handicapped Children in School, 1948

Methods in Reading, 1955

Mr. Dolch is well known for the Dolch Basic Sight Vocabulary, 220 most commonly used words, that is still used in education today.(See Appendix)

ROGER FARR

Roger Farr received his degrees from the University of New York at Brockport, the State University of New York College at Buffalo, and from the New York College at Buffalo. He started out his career as a junior and senior high school English teacher in Akron, Ohio. Since that time, Dr. Farr has come a long way in education and has contributed much to education. Presently, he is Professor of Education at Indiana University, Bloomington. He is also Director of the Center for Reading and Language studies at Indiana University. Dr. Farr is a former president of the Internation Reading Association. He is the author, co-author, and editor of numerous publications, as well as a frequent contributor to professional journals. Dr. Farr is an author of the Metropolitan Achievement Test.

Dr. Farr has also received numerous awards. He was elected to the International Reading Association Hall of Fame in 1986. The International Reading Association chose him as Outstanding Teacher of Education in 1988. In 1993, the State University of New York at Buffalo gave Dr. Farr the Outstanding Alumnus Award.

Bonnie DeHaven

JIM TRELEASE

Jim Trelease brought the value of reading aloud to our national attention in 1979 when he published the Read-Aloud Handbook. Trelease compiled one of the most useful sourcebooks available to parents and educators alike. He detailed the fall of literacy rates in America, gave many reasonable suppositions and then presented concrete measures to reverse these trends. The second half of the book is an anthology of tried and tested successful read-aloud selections. Trelease has been studying reading for twenty years and reading aloud to school age children.

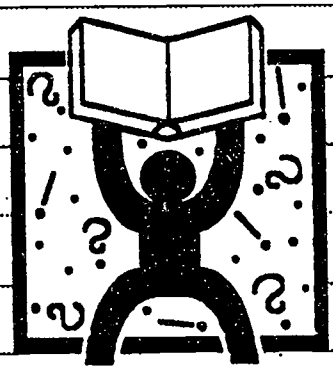
Trelease's interest in reading to children grew out of his experiences of being read to as a child by his own father, and then as a father himself and as a frequent school volunteer. Observing the connection between children who are read to and those who love to read themselves, he began to unearth vast amounts of research on the subject. Three editions of the Read-Aloud Handbook have followed. The 1982 edition spent seventeen weeks on the N.Y. Times best seller list and was published in Britain, Australia, and Japan. More than one million copies have been sold. The fourth edition was printed in July of 1995.

A former newspaper writer, Trelease spends his time addressing groups on children, literature and television. He still visits his hometown school in Springfield, Massachusetts. He and his wife are the parents of two grown children. His current book, Hey Listen to This! Stories to

Read Aloud was published in 1992. An additional volume of read aloud selections is due out in 1996.

Jayme Stokes

READING READINESS



READING READINESS

When is a child ready to read? A child's readiness to learn to read is based upon many factors. Teachers should be familiar with the basic prerequisites of reading readiness. We need to be certain our students have a strong beginning in this area of learning.

One of the basic prerequisites to reading readiness includes awareness of print. For very young children, K. Goodman wrote about four kinds of experiences with print that makes them aware of how reading is used on a daily basis: environmental reading, informational reading, occupational reading and reading as a leisure activity.

Environmental reading is reading a child does simply by interacting with the print all around him or her everyday. This world of print for the young child includes traffic signs, logos of restaurants and stores, packages of food and toys. By encountering print this way, children begin to realize print has a specific function in their everyday life.

Children also become aware of informational reading by watching others read different sources such as newspapers, cookbooks, and maps for information. They also observe teachers, lawyers, mechanics and many other workers refer to print as part of their job. This is know as

occupational reading.

Reading as a leisure activity is very important for children preparing to learn to read. They need to observe people reading for pleasure and relaxation. Many times adults choose to read aloud to children in order to make reading a leisure activity for both adult and child.

Through these important experiences with print, children learn that print always has meaning, whether we understand it or not (Searfoss, Readence 1989).

Concepts about book print are basic prerequisites to reading. Children should be aware of different parts of books and how they are used. It cannot be assumed children already know them. "Mechanical and form concepts" are also know as the "building blocks" of books. These include title, pages, lines, sentences, punctuation marks, and paragraphs. Children should be aware of the fact that letters have names and are connected to sounds. "Orientation and directionality concepts" are related to how print is arranged in books. Children must learn that all books have a beginning, middle and end. Pages begin at the top and go to the bottom. Lines are read from left to right. "Uses of book-print concepts" are established when children realize different books have different uses; we read some books for pleasure and some to gather necessary information.

Sense of story is a crucial prerequisite of beginning

reading instruction. Children in formal reading instruction who have a strong sense of story will have an advantage over those who do not. After hearing a story, children may be asked questions about the events that happened in the story (plot), people and animals (characters), when and where the story takes place (time and setting). Being able to view the story as a whole, while understanding each element is very important to success in learning to read.

Another basic prerequisite which actually serves two roles is oral language. First of all, oral language is necessary when learning to read because it serves as a foundation on which the actual learning is based. Also, oral language connects the language and children's experiences they have had prior to entering school and those experiences they will have in formal reading instruction.

There are three key processes which interact. The rationale for oral language instruction is founded on them (Searfoss, Readence 1989). First, the experiences children bring with them to school should be valued and used to help develop their language skills. Real experiences the child has in school should enable the child to identify with each experience. This allows children to use language to discuss and describe experiences.

Another key process involves using oral language instruction throughout the entire school day. Many teachers may get so "caught up" in the basics of reading and math,

they believe they do not have time for "fun" subjects such as social studies, science and art. These subjects too may be considered basic since they help children to become effective users of language. Students are learning to communicate during these lessons just as they are during reading instruction.

The final key process of oral language is that it naturally lead children into using reading and writing. When using activities designed to develop oral activities, teachers should include some reading and writing. Writing becomes a way for children to naturally extend their oral language activities. They want to write their own stories and read them to one another and the teacher. Through practice, children will realize the connection from oral language to reading and writing and how we use them to communicate.

References

Klein, M.L., Peterson, S., & Simington, L.(1991). Teaching reading in the elementary grades. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Searfoss, L.W., & Readence, J.E. (1989). Helping children learn to read. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Taschow, H.G. (1985). The cultivation of reading. New York: Teachers College Press.

Miller, H., Thompson, C., & Holloway, D. (1985). Teacher's kaleidoscope of reading activities.

Melissa Talley

Activities for Reading Readiness

Auditory Discrimination--"Listen, Listen"

Objective: The student will be able to discriminate sounds.

Time Needed: 15 minutes

Materials Needed: 4-5 pieces red construction paper
4-5 pieces green construction paper
paper cutter

List of Word Pairs for Discrimination Practice

fat - fat	sat - sad	what - wham
glass - glad	man - mad	rat - ran
time - tide	pal - pat	set - set
shall - should	tub - tug	net - ned
bed - bed	sam - sam	pat - pat

Preparation: Cut the red and green construction paper into pieces, 3" x 5". Type a list of word pairs.

Activity Directions:

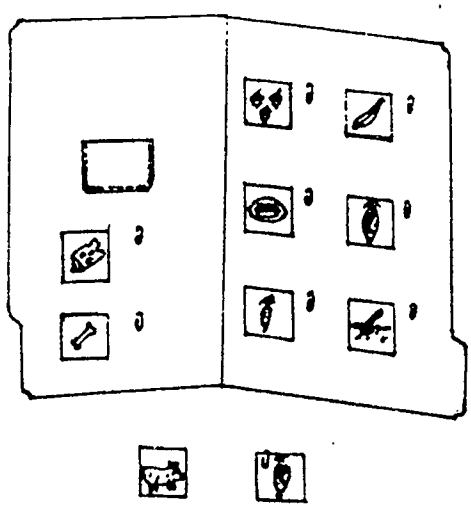
1. Give each student two 3" x 5" pieces of construction paper, one red and one green.
2. Explain to your students that when you read the same word pairs they are to hold up the green card. When the word pairs are different they are to hold up the red card.
3. Once your students understand the procedure, stand behind them when you pronounce the word pairs.

Evaluation: When you randomly select five of the word pairs, your student will be able to identify words that are the same and those that are different without error.

Classifying Relationships--"Match Game"

Directions:

1. Color all the pieces.
2. Cut out the pieces.
3. Paste the food pictures down in the folder.
4. Put the animal pictures in the pocket.
5. Slit the folder and slide paper clips by the food pictures.
6. The children will match the pictures.



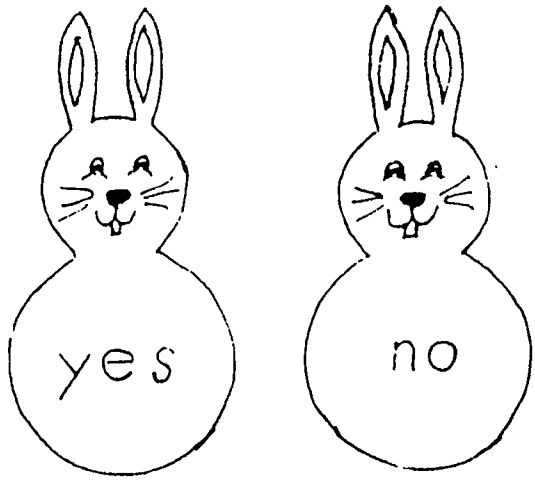
Rhyming Words--"Bunny, Bunny, Do They Rhyme?"

Directions:

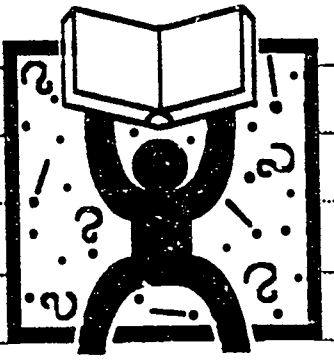
1. Duplicate enough bunnies so that every child will have two. (yes and no)
2. Duplicate them on construction paper. Use yellow for the "yes" bunnies and white or pink for the "no" bunnies.
3. Distribute the bunnies to the students.
4. Explain to the children that they are to listen very carefully to the pair of words called out. If the words rhyme (have the same middle and ending sound) they should hold up the "yes" bunny. If the pair does not rhyme, they should hold up the "no" bunny.
5. The teacher could add some fun by repeating the phrase, "Bunny, Bunny, do they rhyme?" before saying the pair of words.

Word List

bean	queen	chin	fin
deer	keep	peep	goat
corn	horn	wagon	witch
hat	bat	dog	hog
pie	my	sing	king



WORD RECOGNITION



WORD RECOGNITION

Effective teachers recognize the place of word recognition (identification) strategies in helping children learn to read for meaning. Word identification is a process to facilitate reading. Comprehension is facilitated when words are appropriately identified and the author's message is decoded as printed (Hayes, 1991). Word identification is also more simply known as decoding (Heilman, Blair, Rupley, 1990). The teacher's role is to prepare students to use the most effective strategy suitable for each situation (Hayes, 1991).

When teaching word identification skills, there are two significant points to consider. First, word identification instruction is not reading; it is providing tools to help understand the meaning of written language. Secondly, students develop flexibility in identifying words so that they can use all available cue systems to determine meaning. They need to develop independent and fluent mastery in the areas of whole-word recognition, phonics, structural analysis, and contextual analysis to focus on the meaning of what they read rather than just word pronunciation (Heilman, Blair, Rupley, 1990).

The normal student's experience with reading results in a constantly growing stock of words recognized as wholes. These structure words must be learned to the point where recognizing them is automatic (Heilman, Blair, Rupley, 1990). When a child knows 200 different basic sight words, he/she knows approximately two-thirds of all the words he/she encounters.

Basic sight words are high utility words recognized by the reader. Sight words in general are any words known instantly by a reader, not just the high utility ones. Fluent readers have similar basic sight vocabularies, but their overall sight vocabularies may

differ strikingly (Ekwall, Shanker, 1985).

The most popular list of high-frequency sight words is the 220 word Dolch list developed by Edward Dolch more than 40 years ago. Palmer recently tested whether the Dolch list applies to today's reading materials. Her findings agree with previous studies which concluded that the Dolch list remains relevant. The Dolch words constituted 60% of the vocabulary in four of five basal series passages analyzed (Heilman, Blair, Rupley, 1990). Other basic sight word lists are available. They are the Dolch Basic Sight Word Test, Harris-Jacobson List, the Fry List, and the Ekwall Basic Sight Word List. Any of these lists would be appropriate for testing basic sight word knowledge.

No other aspect of the literacy curriculum has received as much critical attention as phonics instruction (Heilman, Blair, Rupley, 1990). Phonics instruction consists of teaching letter-sound relationships so that the learner can decode new words in print.

Phonics instruction begins when an adult talks with an infant, thus providing the child with a model. A child who associates sounds with objects and does not confuse words that are very similar is mastering auditory discrimination, which is important for phonics analysis in the reading process.

While a variety of specific techniques can help students learn the relationships between letters and speech sounds, teachers should remember that an important goal of phonics instruction is the approximate, not exact, pronunciation of words (Heilman, Blair, Rupley, 1990).

Currently, much commercially produced material is available to help with word identification instruction. Unfortunately, excessive concentration on phonics accounts

for the abundance. Far too much time is being spent on phonics rather than balancing the programs (Durkin, 1976).

Structural analysis refers to dealing with the meaningful parts of words. It is a word identification technique for breaking a word into its pronunciation units (Ekwall, Shanker, 1985). It helps students identify words whose visual patterns change as a result of adding: inflectional endings, prefixes, suffixes, and root-to-root compounds. In applying structural analysis skills to solve unknown words, children do better if they recognize parts of words that they have studied. Instruction should build on what students have already mastered in reading (Heilman, Blair, Rupley, 1990).

Context clues are clues to the meaning or pronunciation of an unknown word from the surrounding words and or sentences. The reader uses the sense of a sentence or passage to figure out the unknown word (Ekwall, Shanker, 1985). Students can use contextual clues only when they can recognize or sound out most of the words in a sentence. The use of context not only reflects the natural reading process, but also allows students to focus on meaning to aid them in determining whether the words make sense in context (Heilman, Blair, Rupley, 1990). Classroom attention should be on connected text, especially at the primary grade level. When children are given frequent opportunities to deal with connected text, they differentiate between words they know and do not know (Durkin, 1976).

Whether students are developing sight vocabularies, using phonics, or structural analysis, they must have interesting, varied, and realistic practice with words in context (Heilman, Blair, Rupley, 1990).

Realizing that there are many strategies for identifying words, the teacher's role is to

prepare students to use the strategy most suitable for each situation (Hayes, 1991). A balanced program (e.g. whole-word recognition, phonics, structural analysis, contextual analysis, and others) for word identification appears to function best in the classroom (Durkin, 1976).

REFERENCES

Durkin, D. (1976). *Strategies for Identifying Words*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc.

Ekwall, E. & Shanker, J. (1985). *Teaching Reading in the Elementary School*. Ohio: Bell & Howell Co.

Heilman, A., Blair, T., & Rupley, W. (1994). *Principles and Practices of Teaching Reading*. New York: Macmillan College Publishing Co.

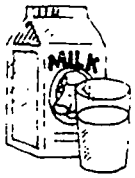
Hayes, B. (1991). *Effective Strategies for Teaching Reading*. MA: Allyn and Bacon.

Angela S. Guin

Sight Words

1. Picture Dictionary
Level: Primary
Directions: Cut a number of small pictures from workbooks, magazines, and the like. Have one picture devoted to each letter of the alphabet. Let students paste pictures whose names begin with each letter on the appropriate pages. Print a naming word beneath each picture.


a man

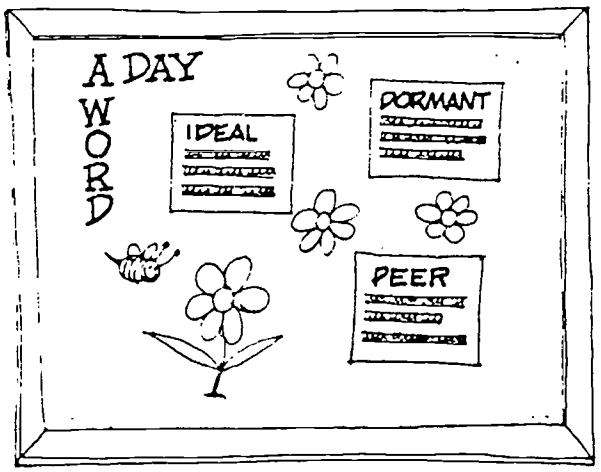


some milk


a mule

2. Chalkboard Folders
Level: Primary and Intermediate
Directions: Cut out a 6 x 8 inch piece of black contact paper. Attach it to the front of a letter-sized manila folder. Tape shut the 2 sides of the folder. Write sight words (or other vocabulary words) on index cards. Drop them in the folder. Students can pull a card, write the word on the folder with chalk, and trace over it with their finger until the word "disappears." Students can also write a word then trace its configuration.

3. A Word A Day
Level: Appropriate for any level
Directions: Devote a section of the bulletin board to featuring a new word every day. Let the students discover these words. Let them vote on the word to put on the board. Prepare a word card with the word, pronunciation, and definition. Mount the card on the bulletin board and have the class discuss it. At the end of the week, review the five words that have been presented. Reward students who use any of these words in speaking or writing. Keep the words in a file for easy reference and review



Phonics

1. Identifying Objects

Level: Primary

Directions: Gather five objects and place them in a small basket or box. Be sure that 2 or 3 of the objects begin with the same sound. Prepare a basket or box for every 3 children. Place students in groups of 3 and have them group together the objects that begin with like sounds.

2. Chain Letters

Level: Primary and Intermediate

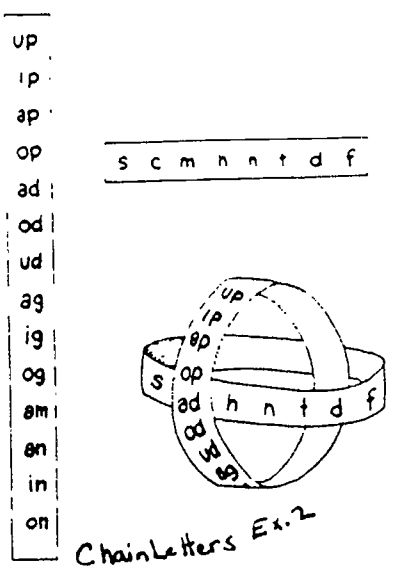
Directions: Each child can observe this "chain" individually, and create a variety of combinations between the consonant letters and the phonograms. Two strips of tagboard, 3 1/2 x 9 inches, should be made. On one strip print phonograms, on the other print initial consonants. Make loops with each strip and link them together so that the letters face the reader. Move either circle so that different combinations of words and sounds can be made.

Structural Analysis

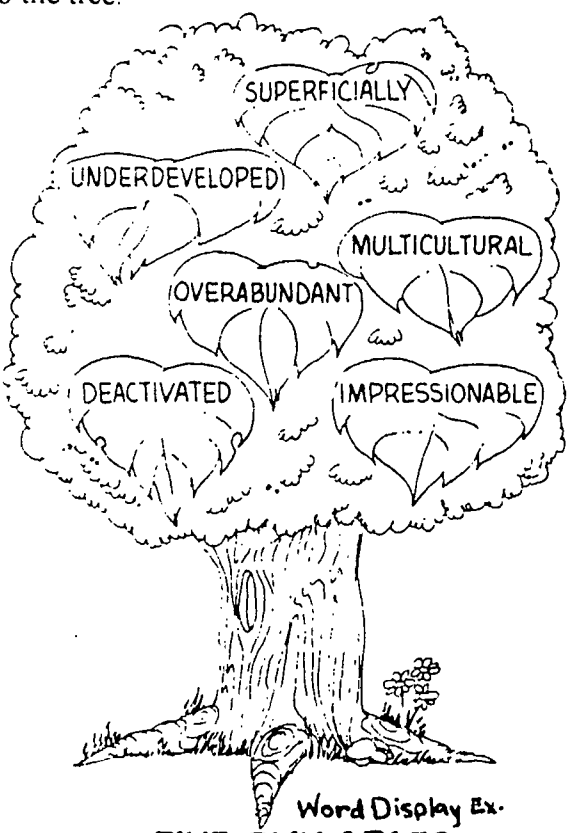
1. Word Display (prefixes and suffixes)

Level: Intermediate

Directions: Use the bulletin board pictured below to feature five syllable words. Let the students use dictionaries to come with these words. They will usually have a prefix and or a suffix. Discuss each word when adding it to the tree.



Chain Letters Ex. 2



Word Display Ex.

FIVE SYLLABLES

27

2. Giving the Students a Hand (compounds)

Level: Intermediate

Directions: Give students the following quiz to increase their vocabulary. Students can make up quizzes like this using other words such as: pan, car, rain, snow

Contextual Analysis

1. Playing With Words

Level: Intermediate and Upper

Directions: Explore the meaning of words through illustrations. Encourage students to discover new ways to represent the meaning of their favorite words.

2. Show and Tell -- Alive and Well

Level: Appropriate for any level

Directions: Each Monday give students a word to explore. On Friday they are to bring an object to class that represents their word. They are to present their object and discuss their word during show and tell time.

Giving the Students a Hand

Angela S. Guin

Give students this quiz to increase their vocabulary. They will have fun figuring out the words to answer each question.

1. What you learn after you learn to print: Hand _____
2. A good-looking person is: Hand _____
3. Someone who is good at repairs around the house is: Hand _____
4. Something you did yourself is: Hand _____
5. When someone talks about you behind your back, you say they are _____hand_____
6. Clothes you get from your older brother or sister are: Hand _____ or _____hand
7. A very generous person is called _____hand_____
8. When you hear about an event from someone who was there, the account is _____hand
9. A person who works on a farm is a _____hand
10. The square of material you use to blow your nose on is a: Hand _____
11. A purse is also a: Hand _____
12. What the police put on prisoners: Hand _____
13. Where you would look for information about the basic rules of behavior: Hand _____
14. Embroidery, needlepoint, and knitting are all: Hand _____
15. Someone who cannot see normally has a: Hand _____
16. If you stick your fingers in a bag of candy and pull out as much as you can hold, how much do you have? Hand _____
17. What might you do if someone gives you what you most want in the world? Hand _____

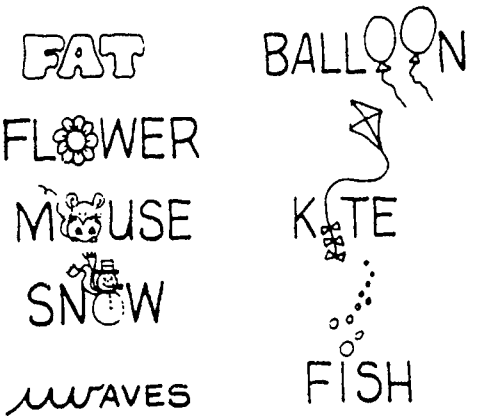
Students can make up quizzes like this using other words such as *pan* or *car*.

Answers

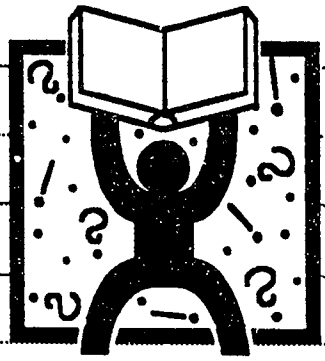
1. handwriting
2. handsome
3. handyman
4. handmade
5. underhanded
6. hand-me-downs or second hand
7. open-handed
8. firsthand
9. heldhand
10. handkerchief
11. handbag
12. handcuffs
13. handbook
14. handicrafts handiwork
15. handicap
16. handful
17. handsprings

Playing with Words

There are many interesting ways to represent words. Here we are exploring the meaning of the word through illustration. Encourage students to discover new ways to represent the meaning of their favorite words.



VOCABULARY



VOCABULARY

The difference between classrooms where children experiment and play with words and classrooms in which words are maintained in lists are significant. Teachers in the former take advantage of the natural spontaneity of children. They know that part of the joy of teaching is the uncertainty of what children will say or do. They create classroom environments in which opportunities to experiment with words abound. Every time a decision is made by a student-writer as to which word is best in a piece of writing; vocabulary learning takes place. Mark Twain said that the difference between the right word and the almost-right word is the difference between lightning and the lightning bug. Children experiment with words whenever they hear unfamiliar words read aloud in literature or whenever they encounter new words while reading. They develop an ear for language and an eye for the images created by language. (Vacca, Vacca and Gove, 1995).

Nevertheless, the problems teachers face daily in developing vocabulary knowledge and concepts in their classrooms are real. In a nutshell, the practical problems and challenge is one of teaching vocabulary words well enough to enhance children's comprehension of written language (Beck and McKeown, 1983). If children are not readily familiar

with most words they meet in print, they will most certainly have trouble understanding what they read (Vacca, Vacca and Gove, 1995).

Knowledge of vocabulary, along with basic comprehension strategies, is the key to understanding both the spoken and written language. A language user who recognizes and produces a diverse number of words orally has a greater chance of becoming a successful reader. The young child who opens a book and finds it filled with known words and familiar meanings is free to concentrate on combining unique strings of words in order to arrive at the meaning intended by an author (Johnson and Pearson, 1984).

The basic vocabulary of a child begins when he learns his first three or four thousand words. In our study of vocabulary of inner-city children, we found that three-fourths of them had a vocabulary of fifteen hundred words by January and February of their first year of school. We noted that most of these words (a) can be sensed, (b) are necessary to speak almost any sentence, (c) are in the everyday vocabulary of most people, (d) are ones which have been experienced and internalized and will never be forgotten (Dale and O'Rourke, 1971).

How did the children learn these words? First, they heard them from parents, older children, and playmates, on television and radio, on the playground, and at the store. Second, they

experienced them - they said things, they smelled things, they drank things. Their vocabulary was circumscribed only by their experiences and the available models. If these children had grown up in a wealthy suburb, with more opportunity to attend nursery and kindergarten, their vocabulary would reflect their wider variety of experience (Dale and O'Rourke, 1971).

Beginning in the early grade, the teacher can introduce the student to vocabulary study habits that should increase transfer potential. For example, children can begin early to develop a mental filing system, a variety of ways to classify. They can learn to group words under general topics, first by a gross filing system, later through a finer system of discrimination (Dale and O'Rourke 1971).

The development of vocabulary must be seen as a part of the major communication program of the school. All education is vocabulary development, hence conceptual development; we are studying words and symbols all the time (Dale and O'Rourke, 1971).

A systematic program of vocabulary development will be influenced by age, by sex, by income, by native ability, and by social status. Examples of that are a ninth grade girl does not talk about a dolly, a fourth grader does not know second semester, a disadvantaged child does not know a la carte, and boys usually are unfamiliar with colors like

champagne beige, flamingo pink, or holly green. Geographical factors also effect vocabulary. There are regional words such as those words found in the Northern and Southern areas of our land. Minorities have dialects specific to them. Rural and urban terms vary significantly. Since words are given to experiences, it is obvious that students need rich experiences to develop their vocabulary (Dale and O'Rourke, 1971).

The consistent finding that vocabulary scores are highly correlated with scores on tests of reading comprehension highlights the importance of including systematic vocabulary instruction in the reading program (Harris and Sipay, 1984).

Vocabulary development in school must be a planned program. The research in the field indicates that this is a sound principle. Incidental teaching, alone, tends to become accidental teaching (Dale and O'Rourke, 1971).

Consolidation of vocabulary skills is an important part of reading. In the reading process, the student brings to and gets ideas from the printed page. He associates sound, symbol, and meaning. In reading, symbols convey meanings that are synthesized into related ideas. These symbols are words. They are perceived, understood, reacted to, and combined with previously known ideas. The reading process leads from the known to the unknown (Dale and O'Rourke, 1971).

A planned vocabulary program provides the student with

ample opportunity to build new concepts upon old ones. Early in his education, the student must be encouraged to see relationships and make associations (Dale and O'Rourke, 1971).

It is our job as teachers to emphasize ways to increase children's sensitivity to new words and their enjoyment in word learning. What instructional opportunities can be provided to influence the depth and breadth of children's vocabulary knowledge? What are the instructional implications of vocabulary for reading comprehension? How do students develop the interest and motivation to want to learn new words? How can students grow in independence in vocabulary learning? To answer these questions, we must first recognize that vocabulary development is not accidental. It must be orchestrated carefully not only during reading time, but also throughout the entire day (Vacca, Vacca and Gove, 1995).

CHILDREN'S BOOKS TO DEMONSTRATE WORD ORIGINS (Pilon, 1978).

Adelson, Leone. Dandelions Don't Bite: The Story of Words. New York: Pantheon Books, 1972.

Ames, Winthrop. ed. What Shall We Name The Baby? New York: Pocket Books, 1974.

Boyer, Sophia A., and Lubell, Winifred. Gifts from the Greeks: Alpha to Omega. Chicago: Rand McNally, 1970.

Epstein, Beryl, and Epstein, Sam. What's Behind the Word? Scholastic Book Service, 1964.

Ferguson, Charles W. The Abecedarian Book. Boston: Little, Brown and Co., 1961.

Fletcher, Christine. 100 Keys: Names Across the Land. Nashville: Abingdon Press, 1973.

Kohn, Bernice. What a Funny Thing to Say! New York: Dial Press, 1974.

Lambert, Eloise. Our Language: The Story of the Words We Use. New York: Lothrop, Lee and Shepard, 1960.

Lambert, Eloise, and Pei, Mario. Our Names. New York: Lothrop, Lee and Shepard, 1960.

Mathews, Mitford M. American Words. Cleveland: World Pub. 1959.

McCormack, Jo Ann. The Story of Our Language. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E Merrill, 1967.

Miller, Albert G. Where Did That Word Come From? Glendale, CA: Bowmar, 1974

Steward, George R. Names on the Land. Boston: Noughton Mifflin, 1958.

CHILDREN'S BOOKS WHICH INCLUDE ACTIVITIES TO DEMONSTRATE THE NEED FOR PUNCTUATION(Pilon,1978).

Brewton, Sara, Brewton, John E., and Blackburn, G. Meredith III. My Tang's Tungled and Other Ridiculous Situations. New York: T. Y Crowell, 1973, pp. 5, 6, 8, 10.

Gardner, Martin. Punctuation Pointers. New York: Scholastic Book Services, 1968, pp. 55-57.

Nurnberg, Maxwell. Fun with Words. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1970, pp. 32-40.

Potter, Charles Francis. More Tongue and a Rigmarole. Cleveland: World, 1964.

Withers, Carl. A Treasury of Games. New York: Grosset and Dunlap, 1964, pp. 125-126.

ADDITIONAL CHILDREN'S BOOKS FOR ENJOYMENT OF LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT(Pilon, 1978).

Hanlon, Emily. How a Horse Grew Hoarse on the Site Where He Sighted A Bare Bear: A Tale of Homonyms. New York: Delacorte, 1976.

Hefter, Richard. The Strawberry Word Book. New York: Larousse, 1974.

Hunt, Bernice Kohn. Your Ant Is a Which: Fun with Homophones. New York: Harcourt, Brace, Jovanovich, 1975.

Keller, Charles. Going Bananas. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1975.

Keller, Charles, and Baker, Richard. The Star-Spangled Banana and Other Revolutionary Riddles. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1975.

Tremain, Ruthuen. Fooling Around with Words. New York: Greenwillow Books, 1976.

REFERENCES

Harris, Albert J., & Sipay, Edward R. (1984). Readings of Reading Instruction. New York: Longman Inc.

-----. Dale, Edgar, & O'Rourke, Joseph, "The Need for a Planned Vocabulary Program", pp. 226, 229.

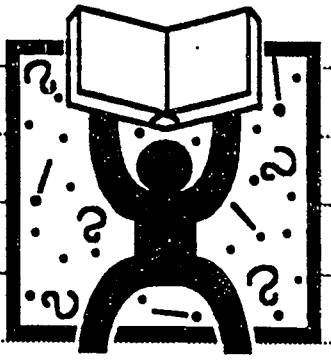
-----. Pilon, Barbara, "Reading to Learn about the Nature of Language", pp.

Johnson, Dale D. & Pearson, P. David (1984). Teaching Reading Vocabulary. Fort Worth: Holt, Rinihart and Winstin.

Vacca, Jo Anne L., Vacca, Richard T., & Gove, Mary K. (1995). Reading and Learning to Read. New York: Harper Collins College.

Margaret Fortenberry

COMPREHENSION



READING COMPREHENSION

What is reading comprehension? In doing my research, I found several different definitions. The one I chose to use was one given by Lapp and Flood. In the broadest sense, reading comprehension is the acquisition of information from printed material (Lapp and Flood, 1986). If you cannot process what you read then neither comprehension nor reading has taken place. Reading is comprehension (Lapp and Flood, 1986).

There are many types of reading comprehension. To prepare an all-inclusive list of reading comprehension skills requires a complete understanding of the reading-thinking process used by human beings (Mangrum II and Forgan, 1979). It seems that most authorities agree that the following seven basic comprehension skills are necessary to reading comprehension

Locating Details
Identifying Main Ideas
Sequencing Events
Reaching Conclusions
Drawing Inferences
Making Evaluations
Following Directions

Each type of comprehension requires the reader to reorganize the thoughts intended by the writer (Miller, 1989). Writers structure texts for their given purposes, readers must interpret what they read, and must arrive at their own

construction of what the text means (McNeil, 1992). It is no wonder that reading comprehension is viewed as being somewhat complicated.

There are several factors to be considered in reading comprehension. One of these factors is prior knowledge. Prior knowledge refers to all the knowledge of the world readers have acquired throughout their lives (Devine, 1986). Most everyone will agree that what a reader has previously experienced affects the comprehension of that reader. Some insist that the prior knowledge of readers is the single most important component of the reading process (Devine, 1986). As a teacher, we must remember that each student is unique. We must remember that (1) chronological age, (2) home and family backgorund, (3) social and community background, (4) previous educational experiences, (5) reading, film-viewing, and televiewing habits, (6) hobbies and recreational activities, as well as all the other myriad experiences shape individual readers and make up their prior knowledge (Devine, 1986).

The second factor I would like to mention is word knowledge. General knowledge of the world allows students to make inferences about text readings, but the quality of the inference is directly related to the number of words in the text to which they can attach meanings (Devine, 1986). We can not assume that all students in a given grade have the same vocabulary. Words seldomly come with a meaning attached. Children learn word meanings through experience. Firsthand experiences (visual, auditory, tactile and psychomotor) are essential for word and conceptual development (Devine, 1986). Unfortunately, not all children

have firsthand experiences of the same calibar. Teachers can help build students firsthand experiences, as well as building vicarious experiences. We can obtain this goal by providing as many experiences as we can through field trips, role-playing, hands on activities, and class demonstrations. As teachers, there is one very important thing to remember when making a reading assignment. Before making reading assignments, we need to discover the nature and extent of the reader's prior knowlege of the topics, as well as their vocabulary knowledge (Devine, 1986).

The third factor I would like to examine is memory. Prior knowledge rests on the endurance and availability of memory (Devine, 1986). The three kinds of memory I would like to mention are sensory storage memory, short-term memory, and long-term memory. In the sensory storage memory information is held for less than a second. Divided into iconic memory for visual stimuli and echoic for auditory (Devine, 1986). Echoic is needed to retain individual phonemes in memory and iconic is needed to retain letters and graphemes as decoding begins to take place in reading (Devine, 1986). The second kind of memory is short-term. Short-term memory can be controlled (Devine, 1986). Its use in the reading comprehension process is to develop the ability to follow a thought or a reading. One such example would be the ability of the reader to remember the topic of a paragraph while searching for supporting detail sentences. The final memory, long-term, is the more or less permanent repository of all the data that have somehow moved

to it from short-term memory (Devine, 1986). It is where all of our knowledge is contained. Unlike short-term, which retains only a few items for a few seconds, long-term memory holds masses of information of long periods (perhaps a lifetime!) (Devine, 1986).

When looking at reading comprehension, we must also look at the levels of comprehension. There are three level I would like to address. These three levels are literal, inferential, and critical. The first level to consider is literal. Literal comprehesion or factual knowledge is manifested by the recall of memorized information (Friedman and Rowls, 1980). At this level, the teacher only knows the student can recall information, not comprehend. Comprehension at this level requires no thinking (Miller, 1989). The second level to be considered is inferential. Inferential comprehension requires the reader to go beyond the author's literal statements. The reader must draw inferences from the author's statements (Friedman and Rowls, 1980). Listed below are some areas to be considered under inferential comprehension (Friedman and Rowls, 1980).

1. Interpreting the author's meaning.
2. Integrating new information with old.
3. Drawing inferences.
4. Deriving meaning from figurative language.
5. Weaving together ideas from content.
6. Recognizing the author's purpose, attitude, tone or mood.
7. Identifying the author's style or technique of writing.
8. Following the organization of written material.
9. Predicting outcomes and solutions.
10. Making summaries.
11. Getting the main idea.

It should be remembered that some of these skills require both inductive and deductive reasoning. The final level of reading comprehension is the critical level. At the ciritical level, a reader typically uses some criteria or standards for making judgments about what the author has said (Mangier, Bader, and Walker, 1992). The critical level requires the reader to use more analysis and evaluation. The reader needs to be able to form criteria, make judgments, detect fallacies, and evaluate (Lapp and Flood, 1986). Mangier, Bader, and Walker (1992) give two explanations for why critical reading seems to be regarded as an instructional luxury. One it seems students and teachers are so intent on getting and interpreting the facts they have little time for anything else. Secondly, is the idea that critical reading is reserved for the more sophisticated readers. Mangier, Bader, and Walker do not subscribe to this postion. They endorse the notion that not only should critical reading find its rightful place in the very early grades, but it also deserves attention with all types of learners (Mangier, Bader, and Walker, 1992). In critical reading, the reader must be able to identify who wrote the material and what was the purpose for the writing. Readers need to know when and what they can believe in print (Mangier, Bader, and Walker, 1992). Readers who have examined and made judgments about what they have read, are frequently ready to stress both the good and the bad points in what was read (Mangier, Bader, and Walker, 1992). Miller (1989) tells us that critical reading requires constant thinking on the part of the students, and as teachers, we should teach students to think.

Reading is not a passive process, it demands active participation. The reader has to decode, search his/her memory, and think, think, think while processing a text (Lapp and Flood, 1986). It is our responsibility as teachers to see that we instruct students in all areas of reading comprehension.

REFERENCES

Devine, Thomas G. (1986). *Teaching Reading Comprehension: From Theory to Practice*. Newton, MA: Allyn and Bacon, Inc.

Friedman, M.I., and Rowls, M.D. (1980). *Teaching Reading and Thinking Skills*. New York: Longman, Inc.

Lapp, D. and Flood, J. (1986). *Teaching Students to Read*. New York: MacMillan Publishing Co.

Mangier, J.N., Bader, L.A., and Walker, J.E. (1982). *Elementary Reading*. New York: McGraw Hill Book Co.

Mangrum II, C.T. and Forgan, H.W. (1979). *Developing Competencies in Teaching Reading*. Columbus, OH: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co.

McNeil, John D. (1992). *Reading Comprehension: New Directions for Classroom Practice*. New York: HarperCollins Publishers.

Miller, Harry B. (1989). *Teacher's Programmed Educational Techniques for Teachers of Reading*. Monroe, LA: Harry B. Miller.

Comprehension

Reading for Details - "Chocolate Town, U.S.A."

Objective: To read and look for details in the reading.

Materials Needed: A copy of the below reading and a copy of the questions for each student.

Activity Directions: Read the story, then circle the correct answers to the questions.

Story:

There is a town where the smell of chocolate fills the air. The streets have names like Chocolate Avenue and Cocoa Avenue. The streetlights look like giant chocolate kisses. The town is Hershey, Pennsylvania. It's named for Milton Hershey -- the man who made chocolate popular in America.

Milton Hershey opened a chocolate factory in 1905. At that time, most Americans had never even tasted chocolate. But they loved Hersey bars as soon as they tasted them.

The chocolate factory got bigger and bigger. Soon, most of the people in town were working for Hershey.

Today, millions of people visit Hershey, Pennsylvania, every year. It's known as "Chocolate Town, U.S.A." It is the sweetest place in America!

Questions to Answer:

1. Hershey, Pennsylvania, is named after:
   a. a popular candy bar.
   b. the man who made chocolate popular in America.
   c. a big factory.

2. In 1905, Milton Hershey:
    a. was born.
    b. discovered chocolate.
    c. opened his chocolate factory.

3. After 1905, the factory
    a. moved out of town
    b. used workers from another town.
    c. grew bigger.

4. Most people in Hershey
    a. work in the chocolate factory.
    b. work in coal mines.
    c. work in offices.

5. Another good title for this story is
    a. "The Home of Chocolate."
    b. "Factory Life in Pennsylvania."
    c. "American's Favorite Candy Bar."

Evaluation: After reading the story, the student will be able to answer the five questions, correctly.

Bonnie DeHaven

Comprehension

Inferences - "A Whale of a Fight"

Objective: From a given story, the student will make inferences.

Materials Needed: One copy of the below story and questions for each student.

Activity Directions: Give each student a copy of the story and questions
Tell the students that the story contains five sets of parentheses where sentences are missing.
Find the sentences at the end of the story that give the missing information.
Write the number of each sentence in the parentheses where it belongs.

Evaluation: After reading the story, the student should be able to place the sentences where they belong in the story.

Story:

On July 8, 1875 the Pauline was sailing off Brazil. Suddenly, there was a problem in the water near the ship. ( )

The weather was fine and clear. Wind and sea were normal. I saw black spots on the water. There was a huge jet of wate above it. Then the white water fell with a splash. Another jet of water came up.

As these splashes went on, I got my glasses. ( ) The monster was twisting the whale around very fast. ( ) Then they came to the surface. The fight kept the sea all mixed up. I suddenly heard a loud and very odd noise.

This strange battle went on for 15 minutes. It ended with the tail of the whale straight up in the air. It waved backward and forward and hit the water very hard. ( ) No doubt the serpent had plenty to eat.

Then two of the largest sperm whales I have ever seen moved toward our ship. Their bodies were far out of the water. They made no sound and seemed frozen with fear. Seeing the last fight of the whale was a chilling experience. ( )

(1) Indeed a cold shiver went through my body.
(2) They sank below the water.
(3) Here is how the captain described it.
(4) Through them I saw a huge sea serpent wound twice around a whale.
(5) The whale surely was a huge meal.

Comprehension

Thinking/Drawing Conclusions - "Campbell Soup Game"

Objective: To reason, infer, and draw conclusions.

Materials Needed: Groups of 3 or 4.
Copy of the Problem.
Copy of the Worksheet.

Activity Directions: Give each group a copy of the Campbell Soup Game Problem and the Worksheet.

The task of each team is to solve the following:

Your group is a team of explorers sent from the planet Juno to the Planet Earth in the year 2300 A.D. Your mission is two fold. You are to find out:

1) If earth can support life

2) If life exists or ever has existed on the planet, and if so how advanced it is.

When you arrive on Earth, yo find everything desolate. There are no cities, farms or visible forms of life either animal or plant. In fact, the only thing you find in your explorations is a box buried just beneath the land's surface. Inside the box are five cans of Campbell's soup.

Based on your discovery what would you report back to your superiors relative to the goals of your mission, and what evidence would you use to suppport the specifics of your report?

YOU MUST REPORT AS FULLY AND SPECIFICALLY AS POSSIBLE, AND YOUR REPORT MUST RE-PRESENT THE THINKING OF YOUR ENTIRE TEAM. Use the attached worksheet.

Evaluation: From the given information, the groups should be able to come up with some inferences and some conclusions.

CAMPBELL SOUP GAME: WORKSHEET

1. What is/are the problem(s) to be solved?

2. Describe the conditions which create the problem(s).

3. How will you solve the problem given the information and artifacts available to you?

4. Following your plan for solution (Item 3), what would you be likely to find that would allow you to develop your report?

5. Prepare your report. (What are your conclusions regarding earth's capacity to support life and current or past presence of life on the planet?) You may use the back of this sheet or other paper.

Bonnie DeHaven

IDEAS FOR CONTENT AREA TEACHERS - READING

The following ideas can be used in any class (Science, Social Studies, etc.) where material is read.

1. Teach the students SQ3R.

    a. (S) Survey (skim/scan)
    b. (Q) Question
    c. (R) Read
    d. (R) Review
    e. (R) Recite (write a summary or make notes)

2. Tap students background knowledge; tie the material to past lessons or experiences.

3. Use Idea Maps, Webs, and other Organizers. (see attached examples)

4. Use picture books in all grades (junior high and upper grades) to introduce new material.

5. Use newspapers, ads, etc. for practice in grabbing details.

6. Use photos and have students write the captions. Take your students textbooks and show them the wealth of information in the captions. They have to be taught to pay attention to captions. They tend to disregard them.

7. Teach them about chapter organization. Bold face divisions are places to begin outline.

8. Directed/Guided Reading Activity

    a. Use motivating techniques.
    b. Relate to students past experience.
    c. State purpose.
    d. Present new terms.

9. Make bookmarks. As the students read, they can mark any new information, words they don't know, or you may have the information on bookmark so they have something to follow.

10. Use bulletin boards and timelines. (student created)

11. Use a log. Log in questions about the reading that you need answered.

12. Summarize chapters.

13. Brainstorm before reading to see what the students know about the material you are about to cover.

14. Use an Anticipation Guide. (see attached example)

15. Use a Word Splash. (see attached example)

16. Use "Say Something." (see attached example)

17. Use a Pre-reading Activity to explain a certain concept within the reading. (see attached example)

WORD SPLASH

To make:

1. Select 16-18 interesting ideas from a reading.
2. Try not to use specific things.
3. Write them for the expository text you use, then use them year after year.

To use:

1. Have students look at the words and place them into like/common categories.
2. Students are to read.
3. Students are to redo categories, if necessary.

"SAY SOMETHING"

Procedure:

1. Students decide (working in pairs)
   a. to read aloud or silently
   b. how much to read before responding
   c. when to switch readers

2. Readers stop at the set point.
   Each member of the pair must say something about the text.

3. If students have chosen to read aloud, they may switch readers at this point. Readers agree to a set stopping point and say something about the text or ask questions. Continue until the reading is completed.

4. The teacher closes by using a web on the board, transparency, etc.

ANTICIPATION GUIDE

To make:

1. Select 6 - 10 statements (true and false).
2. No questions.
3. Easy statements.
4. No new vocabulary, if possible.
5. Try to use important or interesting information.

To use:

1. Have the students answer statements before reading the selection.
2. Students are to read.
3. Students check to see how they did on their statements.
4. Then ask the following questions to guide additional discussion:

   Did we find the answers to our questions?

   What questions are still unanswered or what information is still unclear?

   What additional information did we learn that we did not anticipate before we began reading?

   What was the most interesting or unusual/surprising information to you?

   What have we learned by reading this chapter/section?

Molly Connally,
Harcourt Brace

PRE-READING ACTIVITY

Example: Sounder Concept: Sharecropper

Teacher furnishes all supplies for activity: paper, markers, etc.

1. Give each student a blank sheet of paper.

2. Instruct the student to fold the paper into fourths.

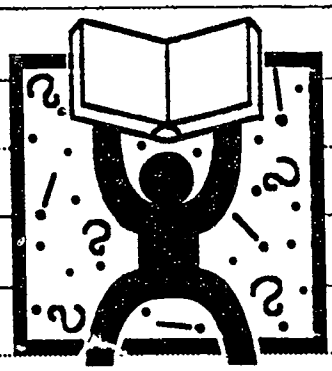
3. Each section represents an acre of land.

4. Students are to draw crops into each acre of land and color.

5. When students have completed their crops, the teacher starts on one side of the class and takes the first paper and cuts off sections from both sides of the paper. By the time you get to the third student, they do not want to give you their papers that they worked hard to complete. Teacher points out that since she furnished the materials, it is her right to take most of their paper.

Carrice Cummins

CONTENT SUBJECT READING



CONTENT AREA READING

Many content area teachers do not consider that they are teaching reading comprehension when they are teaching their subject area. Even though the major thrust is CONTENT, the goal will not be achieved without reading comprehension. The two are interrelated. Reading comprehension skills are not activities that end in themselves. They are means to an end. Finding the main idea of a section is not taught in a content-area class for the sake of having students practice finding the main idea. It is done to help students gain certain concepts in content areas.

Teachers should take a Directed Reading or a Guided Reading approach to content area reading. Reading skills and study skills should be adapted to fit the uniqueness of the subject so that the student's learning will be maximized. It emphasizes knowledge of the reading process in utilizing the needed information in the subject area. It requires students to be active consumers of information and to be actively involved in the process of reading and organizing information. Readers need to know the purpose for the selection and how to best acquire that knowledge. The teacher is to help the students see what they are learning relates to the whole. This forms the foundation for a Directed/Guided Reading.

Guided reading in the content area can enhance the teaching of any content area because it provides interest, direction, and organization to the reading (Rubin, 1992). It is a comprehension

aid. A sample activity may look like this:

1. Use a motivating technique.
2. Relate to a student's past experience.
3. State the purpose of the reading
4. Present new terms/vocabulary.

The second step, relating a past experience is very important. Many times students do not have the necessary background information to understand the reading. The schema theory in reading research deals with this phenomena. Schema theory deals with the relationship between prior knowledge and comprehension. The reader's background knowledge aids serves as a scaffold to aid in encoding information from the text (Rubin, 1992). A person with more background knowledge will comprehend better that one with less.

Preparation of readers for what they will encounter facilitates learning from the text.

The Guided/Directed Reading activities are also important in listening goals. A person who does not do well in listening comprehension will not do well in reading comprehension skills. Good readers tend to be good listeners; poor readers tend to be poor readers (Rubin, 1992). This is especially true at advanced levels. Research going back to 1936 supports this view (Rubin, 1992). Training in listening skills will produce gains in reading comprehension.

Organization and study skills are another important area for the content area teacher. Students who have poor study skills and organizational reading skills tend to be poor comprehenders. Good comprehenders tend to relate their new information with past knowledge and how to discern important information from

insignificant details. Poor comprehenders tend to focus on decoding of single words. They tend to lack the ability to adjust skills for different texts, and seldom self-monitor their understanding of the text.

Study skills must be specifically taught. Research shows that students who have not been taught study skills do not seem to pick them up on their own during elementary and secondary school (Askov, 1980). Study and organization skills in the content areas include skimming/scanning, outlining, notetaking, looking for the main idea, inference, cause-and-effect, study guides, reading maps bar graphs and charts, locating information in a library and using specific reference books. Some evidence exists that teachers themselves have not mastered some of these skills (Askov, 1977). If teachers are not familiar with these skills, they do not teach them or they do a poor job with them (Kamm, 1977).

As a sidebar, the whole language movement has brought to the forefront the theme/unit approach to the content area. The use of real children's literature and trade books is a valuable resource that content area teachers should take advantage of in their class. All subjects can utilize trade books. Historical fiction is an excellent way to introduce an historical time period and to give background information to student's in a non-threatening way. Insight may be gained into the real life of historical figures through biography and historical fiction. Science, math and the arts all have a resource of books to use beyond the textbooks. They tend to build interest in the typically stale topics found in some textbooks. The class may read a novel in concordance

with the subject being studied in the content area classroom.

Content area teachers should also teach memory techniques. Research shows that students who mentally store organized materials retain it longer. Teaching of acronyms, clustering, imaging, and spatial arrangement can help the student retain information more successfully. Students should also be taught test-taking skills. Logical reasoning on true/false questions and the use of the words, always/never/not, are valuable clues for students. They may not have ever reasoned through test organization.

In summary, teachers in content areas need to be teacher of reading. Reading teachers need to go beyond the act of reading itself and teach concepts in context.

REFERENCES

Hayes, Bernard (editor)(1991). Effective Strategies for Teaching Reading. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Rubin, Dorothy (1992). Teaching Reading and Study Skills in the Content Area. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Jayme Stokes

Example of Literature-Based unit on the CIVIL WAR

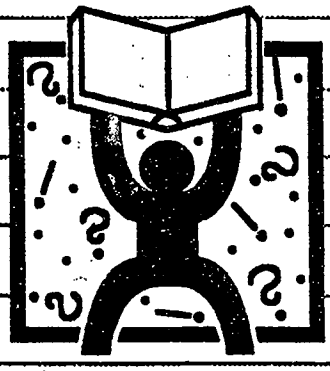
1. Use textbook as an outline and resource.
2. Use Lincoln: a Photobiography by Russell Freedman as a text. Make the study of Lincoln a springboard for the class. Take quotes of Lincoln's in the book and put on the walls. Use these to put the war in reference. (i.e. use quotes in his inaugural address to sum up feelings before the war; use quotes after first battle of Bull Run, Antietam, Gettysburg, use the death of his son and all of the pardons he issued to show his humanity, etc.....) Give the Southern perspectives on Lincoln and what they were fighting for in the Confederacy.
3. Bring in a reinactor to the class.
4. Read portions aloud from Albert Marrin's Unconditional Surrender: The Story of U.S. Grant and Virginia's General: Robert E. Lee and the Civil War. Contrasts the strengths and weaknesses of the two great leaders. Allow the children to make a chart about the two man for the class.
5. Assign each student a battle to research in the library. Place a large map of the United States on the wall and have the children place push pins on where their battles took place. In their short reports, have the children write in RED ink the amount of lives that were lost in that battle. Tell them the numbers who died where more than in all of the other wars combined. Discuss all of the other losses, limbs, amputations, property etc.
6. Do a short history of the American Red Cross and how Clara Barton became the Angel of the Battlefield.
7. Introduce Harriet Tubman and the underground Railroad through the picture book, Aunt Clara and the Sweet Freedom Quilt. Use the book, Christmas in the Big House to show the children the differences in the slave houses and the planter's life. Have the children WRITE on the life of a slave.
8. Read the picture book, Pink and Say by Patricia Polacco on the friendship between a white and black soldier.

THIS IS ONLY A SMALL EXAMPLE OF WHAT CAN BE DONE FOR A HISTORICAL TIME PERIOD.

Other useful materials that I have been read include:
Shades of Gray by Carolyn Reeder, Across Five Aprils By Irene Hunt, Turn Homeward, Hannalee by Patricia Beatty, Brady by Jean Fritz, Reconstruction: America after the Civil War by Howard Mettger, The Boy's War by Jim Murphy, The Last Silk Dress by Ann Rinaldi, Andersonville: A Civil War Tragedy by Linda R. Wade, Bull Run by Paul Fleischman, Young Frederick Douglas by Linda Girard, The Tin Heart by Karen Ackerman
For interesting facts and sidebars written by actual participants, use The Oxford University's History for Young People and Voices series. Both are invaluable resources for history lessons.

Prepared by Jayme Stokes

ISSUES IN READING



NATIONAL ASSESSMENT OF READING

The 1992 reading assessment had the following characteristics:

1. It examines student's abilities to construct, extend, and examine the meaning of what they read through the use of items that elicit a variety of responses to both multiple choice and open-ended tasks.
2. It assesses student performance in different reading situations - reading for literary experience, reading to be informed, and reading to perform a task - by using authentic, "read-life" texts.
3. It includes special studies to examine other aspects of reading, including the reading fluency of students, their reading habits and practices, and the metacognitive strategies they use to comprehend what they read.

"The Nation's Report Card" reports reading achievement in the United States. The National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) provides information about student strengths and weaknesses in reading and a number of other subjects. They compare groups of students by race and ethnicity, gender, type of community and region, as well as data that chart trends in achievement over time. Relationships between student achievement and school-related experiences such as homework and instruction, are also reported.

The National Assessment Governing Board, created by Congress, was given the responsibility of organizing groups to develop a criteria for assessment. The groups formed were the Steering Committee which consisted of members representing 16 national organizations; the Planning Committee made up of 15 members that are experts in reading, and the project staff at the Council of Chief State School Officers.

Grades 4, 8, and 12 were selected to be tested in three different areas - literature, such as, novels, short stories, poems, plays, and essays; information gained from magazines,newspapers,testbooks, encyclopedias and catalogues; documents, such as reading bus/train schedules, directions for games, repairs, classroom and laboratory procedures, tax or insurance forms, recipes, voter registration materials, maps, warranties, and office memos.

The National Assessment of Educational Progress in Reading for 1992 represents a collaborative effort among educational agencies, educators, and those interested in education to provide relevant and valid information about how well American students read and about factors affecting their performance. The assessment is designed to endorse high standards for student achievement and set forth realistic goals for effective reading literacy in the 21st century. The assessment seeks to advance both reading and its assessment, while pointing the way for continued progress in the future.

Adult Literacy in Louisiana

Today, adult literacy is a major concern in society. It was reported in the last decade that a large portion of the country lacks "adequate literacy skills" and many employers report they cannot find workers with the basic literacy skill required in their job. In 1990, the National Governor's Association adopted a set of national educational goals for the 21st century, one of which was: "By the year 2000, every adult American will be literate and will possess the knowledge and skills necessary to compete in a global economy and exercise the rights and responsibilities of citizenship." Previously, when skills of the population were questioned, people immediately looked to public schools and insisted on reforms. However, when most of the people who are lacking in literacy skills have already left school, we must look beyond the school system for answers.

In 1988, after Congress asked the U.S. Department of Education to report on the extent of adult literacy in this country, the Department's National Center for Education Statistics and Division of Adult Education and Literacy awarded a contract to Educational Testing Service to create the National Adult Literacy Survey. In 1992, during the first 8 months, trained staff visited households to interview adults, ages 16 and older, nearly 1,200 adults were surveyed in Louisiana. These people were randomly selected to represent the 3.1 million adults in the state. Each person interviewed spent about an hour doing different literacy tasks and answering questions pertaining to his or her education, work experience and reading practices.

A national panel of experts drafted the following definition of literacy for the young adult survey:

> "Using printed and written information to function in society to achieve one's goals, and to develop one's knowledge and potential."

Jenkins, L.B.(1994).Adult literacy in Louisiana. Kirsch I.S. Education Testing Service.

Melissa Talley

WHOLE LANGUAGE

Whole language is a philosophy. It is a belief that learning should be social and interactive, built on prior knowledge, and spread across the curriculum when possible. A whole language unit, relevant to reading, consists of three basic parts. These are: getting into the literature, going through the literature, and going beyond the literature.

When getting into the chosen literature one should plan prereading activities to motivate the students and build on their prior knowledge. During storytime one should plan different methods of reading the story to keep boredom at bay. Some methods to use are: choral reading, echo reading, radio reading, buddy reading, and reading with an audio or visual tape. If the chosen story is short, it will be read many times using these methods. If the story is a longer one, these methods will be used to get through the chapters.

When going through the literature, one needs to use vocabulary, skills, comprehension, and writing to complement the story.

Going beyond the literature should include enrichment, books for suggested reading, and other related activities to extend and broaden students' knowledge on the subject across the curriculum.

LIST OF PROFESSIONAL MATERIALS

BOOKS

Fader, Dan, HOOKED ON BOOKS

Chall, Jeanne, LEARNING TO READ, THE GREAT DEBATE

Reasoner, Charles, WHERE THE READERS ARE

Thomas, Ellen, FUSING READING WITH CONTENT

_____, BECOMING A NATION OF READERS

Fry, Edward, READING TEACHERS' BOOK OF LIST

Trelease, James, READ ALOUD HANDBOOK

Austin, Mary and Coleman Morrison, TORCH LIGHTERS

Cullinan, Bernice, READ TO ME: RAISING KIDS WHO LOVE TO READ

Canavan, Diane , USING CHILDREN'S BOOKS IN READING - LANGUAGE ARTS PROGRAMS

Hunt, Gladys, READ FOR YOUR LIFE: TURNING TEENS INTO READERS

Lyons, Carol, PARTNERS IN LEARNING: TEACHERS AND CHILDREN IN READING RECOVERY

****

PERIODICALS

INSTRUCTOR

LOUISIANA SCHOOL DIRECTORY

THE READING TEACHER

THE JOURNAL OF READING

THE KAPPAN

THE MAILBOX

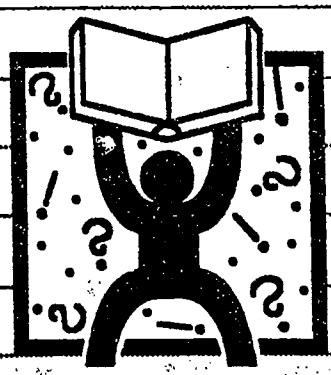
THE CATHOLIC TEACHER

IRA CATALOG OF PUBLICATIONS

EDUCATIONAL FORUM

LANGUAGE ARTS

APPENDIX



READING 508 CURRICULUM AND SUPERVISION OF READING

READING TEACHER EVALUATION

Teacher_____ Coordinator_____

School_____ Grade_____ Date_____

I. Pre-Visit

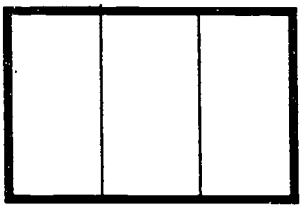
Lesson Plans

Other information you wish to offer

II. Physical Arrangements

Stimulating classroom setting

Near and clean classroom



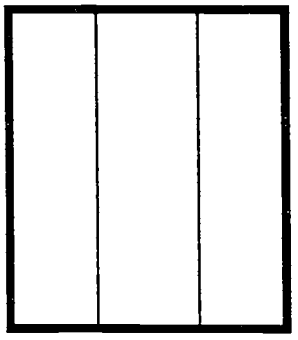
III. Personal Qualities

Rapport with students

Enthusiasm for teaching

Works well with other staff

Professional development



IV. Teaching procedures/strategies

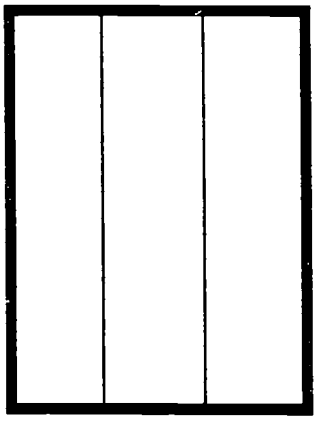
Provides for individual differences

Motivates students

Students active in the learning

Purposeful learning

Provides for independent reading



ADDITIONAL COMMENTS

Reviewed with teacher _____ Date _____

HM 7/95

List of Assessment Tests

1. Dolch Basic Sight Word Test - A list of 220 Basic Sight Words students should have mastered by grade 3; covers 60% of the vocabulary in 4 out of 5 Basal Readers. Other sight word lists available are the Harris-Jacobson List, the Fry List, and the Ekwall Basic Sight Word List.

2. The Quick Check For Basic Sight Word Knowledge - enables the teacher to determine quickly whether a particular student needs to be tested on the entire list of basic sight words. The list contains the 36 most often missed words. If a student misses or hesitates at one or more words, then he should be tested on the longer list.

3. Slosson Oral Reading Test (SORT) - enables the teacher to determine the level at which the child is reading orally.

4. Gates-MacGinitie - helps the teacher determine the appropriate instructional level for individual students; measures vocabulary and comprehension.

5. Informal Reading Inventory - enables the teacher to discover the independent, instructional, frustrational, and listening comprehension level of a student. The teacher gains insight into what strategies the child uses and what should be corrected. There are many commercial versions such as Ekwall Reading Inventory, Allyn and Bacon, and Informal Reading Assessment, Rand McNally.

6. Stanford Diagnostic Reading Test (SDRT) - This test includes subsections of reading skills to help the teacher diagnose in what areas the student needs help.

7. Gilmore Oral Reading Test - a diagnostic oral reading test consisting of 10 graded reading passages; allows the teacher to identify oral reading errors.

8. The El Paso Phonics Survey - an informal testing instrument used to determine whether students know sound-symbol correspondence for the most phonetically regular phonic elements.

9. Quick Survey Word List - helps the teacher determine quickly which students have achieved enough knowledge of word attack skills to avoid further phonics testing.

10. California Achievement Test (CAT) - a popular group standardized achievement test; is available for grades K - 12; tests vocabulary and comprehension in 45-60 minutes; is available from CTB/McGraw-Hill.

11. Iowa Tests of Basic Skills - a standardized reading achievement test that measures vocabulary, comprehension, word attack, and listening skills in approximately 2 hours. It is available from Houghton Mifflin Co.

12. Durrell Analysis of Reading Difficulty - a word analysis test that measures vocabulary, comprehension, word attack, speed, and listening skills. It is available for grades 1 - 6 and takes approximately 40 minutes to administer.

READING IMPROVEMENT FORM

NAME :_____ Subject: _____

Title: _____ Page numbers :_____

New Terms

Graphic Aids

What do I think this story is going to be about?

READ
Summary

READ ALL ABOUT IT!

Complete the newspaper page to tell about your book.

Weather: a good day for reading _____

The Literary Ledger

"Turning pages into ideas" _____

Date: _____

Today's Top Story : _____ *(your name)* **Reviews** _____ *(book title)*

Some of the most interesting things about this book are listed below:

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

Critic's Corner

I thought this book was _____

because _____

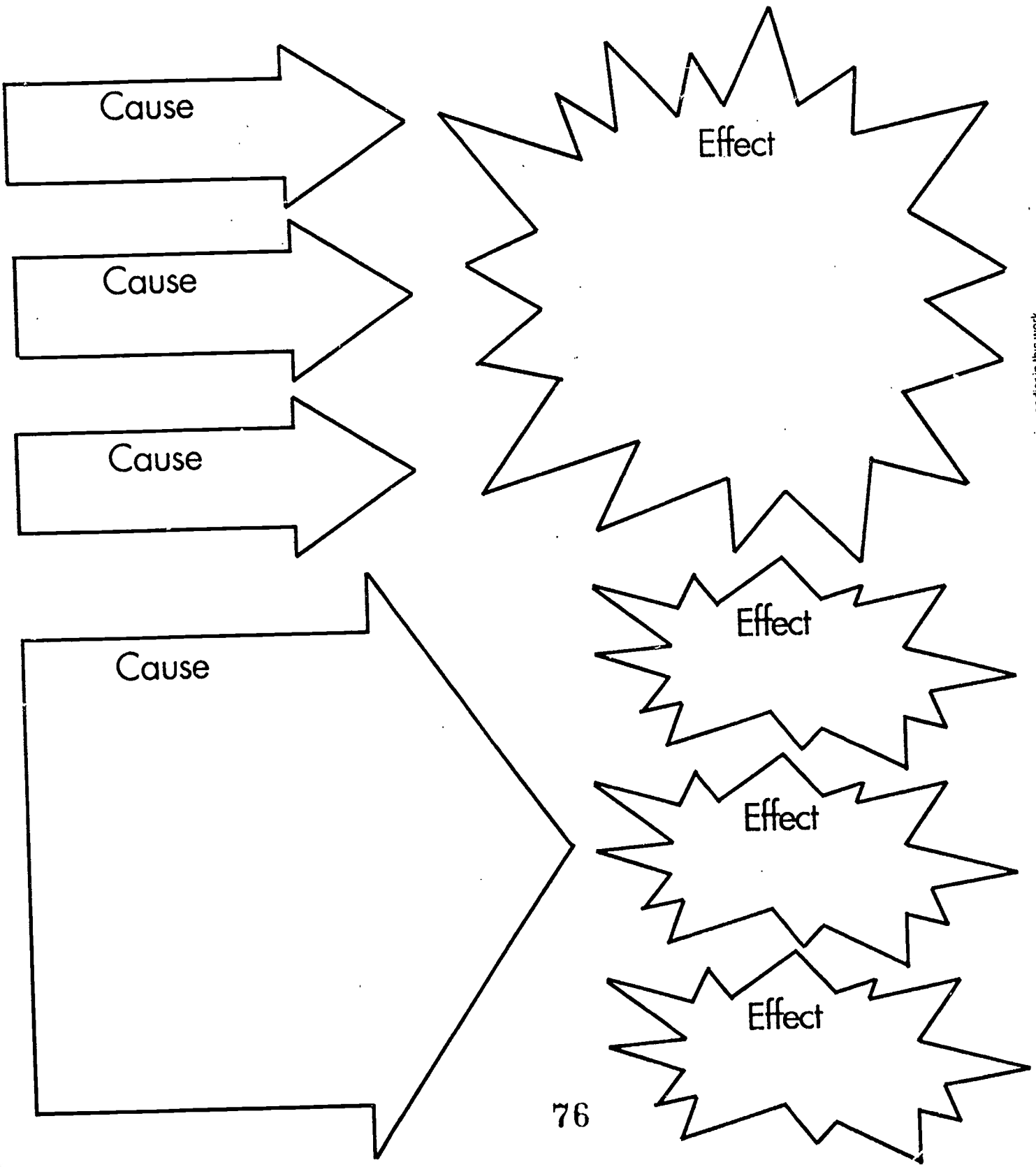
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

Special Feature: Cartoon Commentary

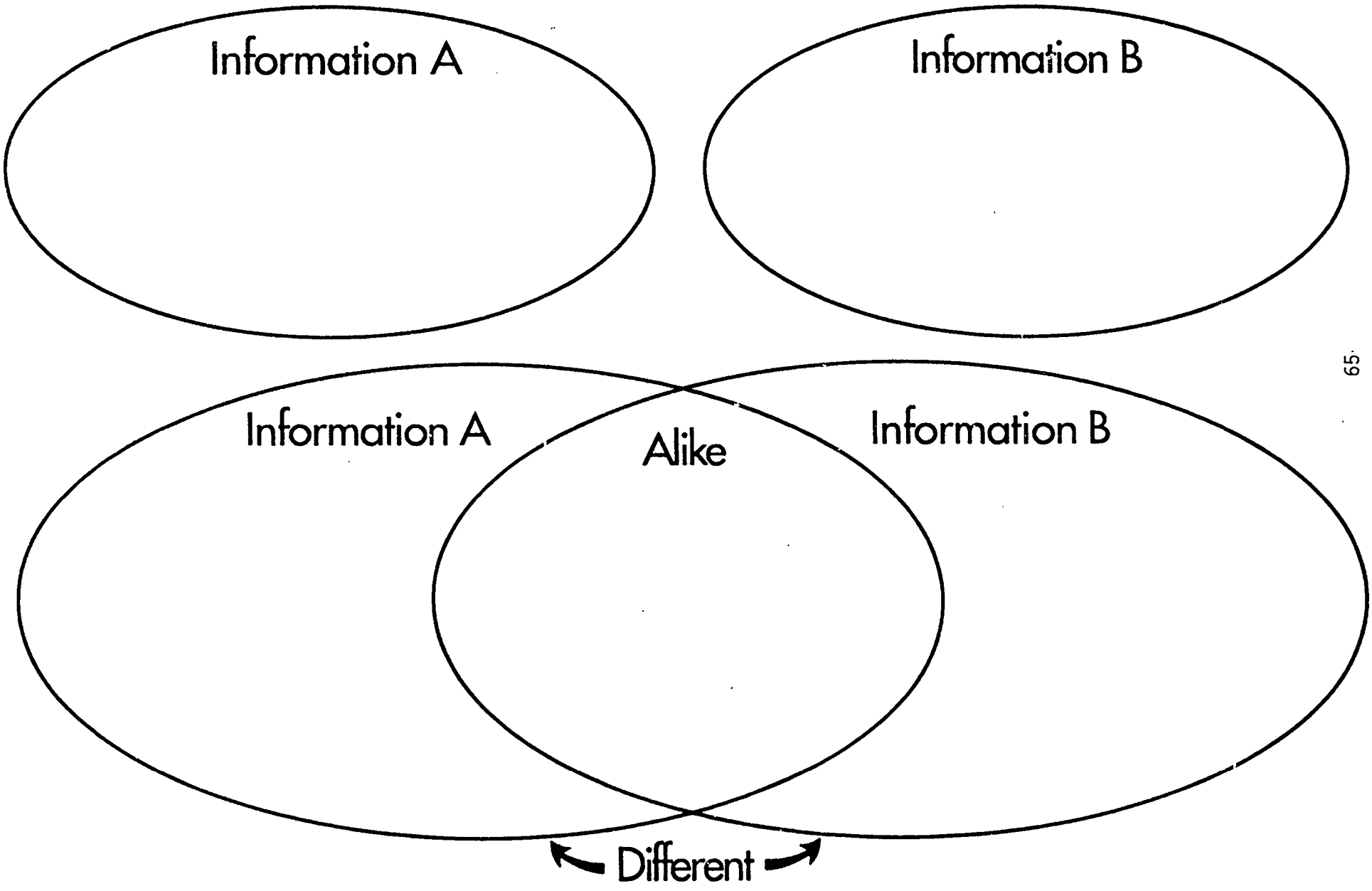
This cartoon shows _____

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

Multiple Causes and Effects

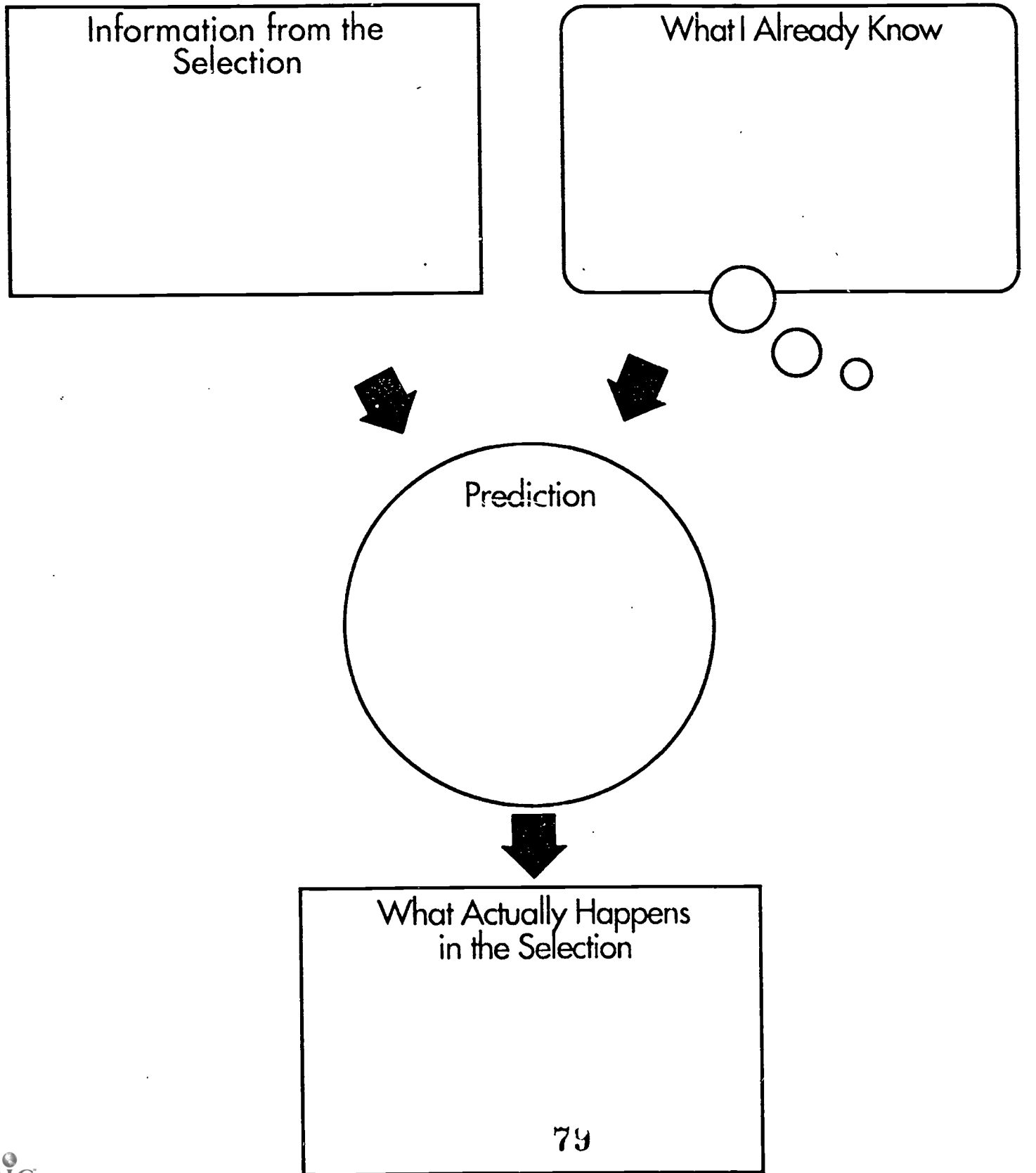


COMPARING AND CONTRASTING

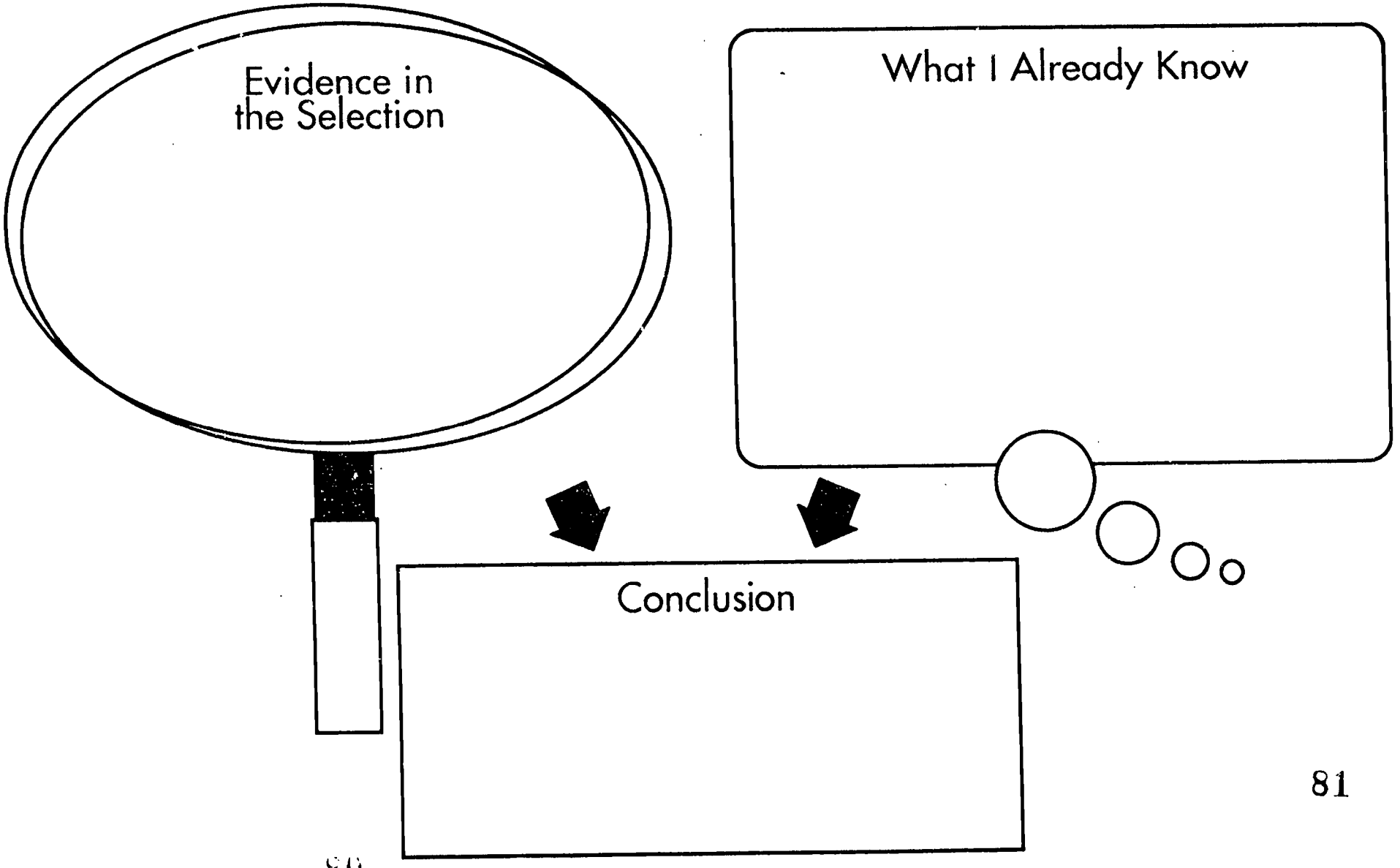


65

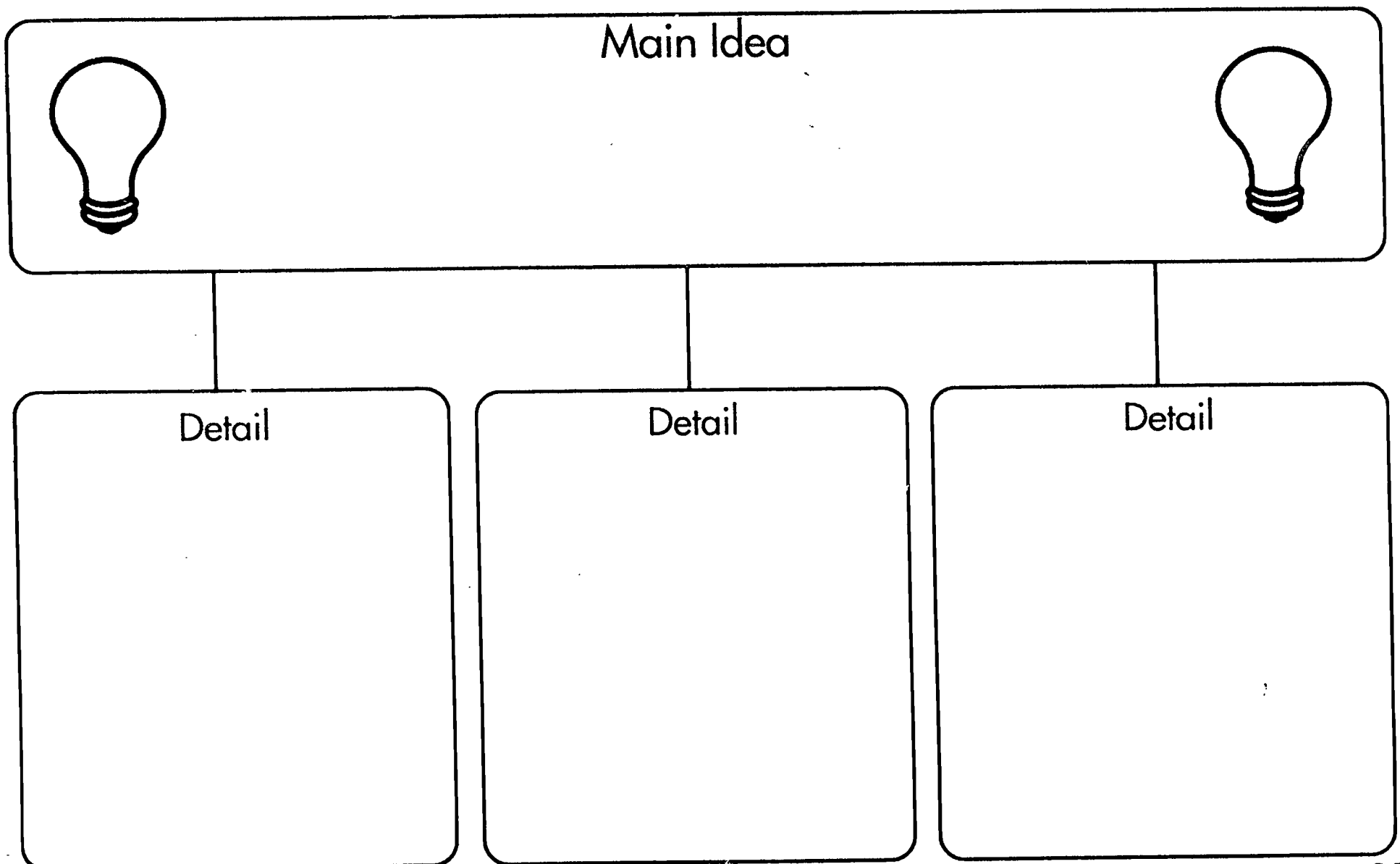
MAKING PREDICTIONS



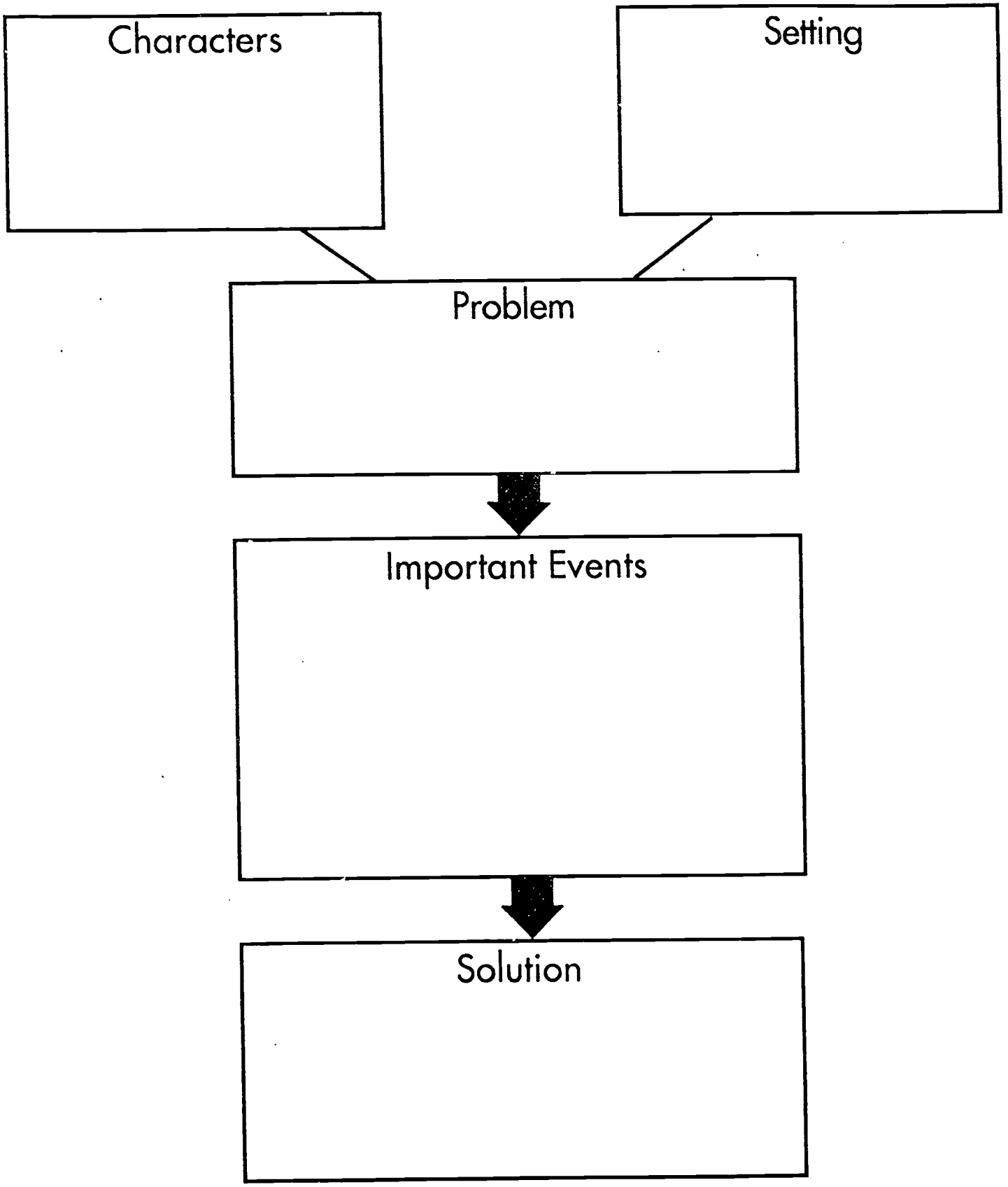
Drawing Conclusions



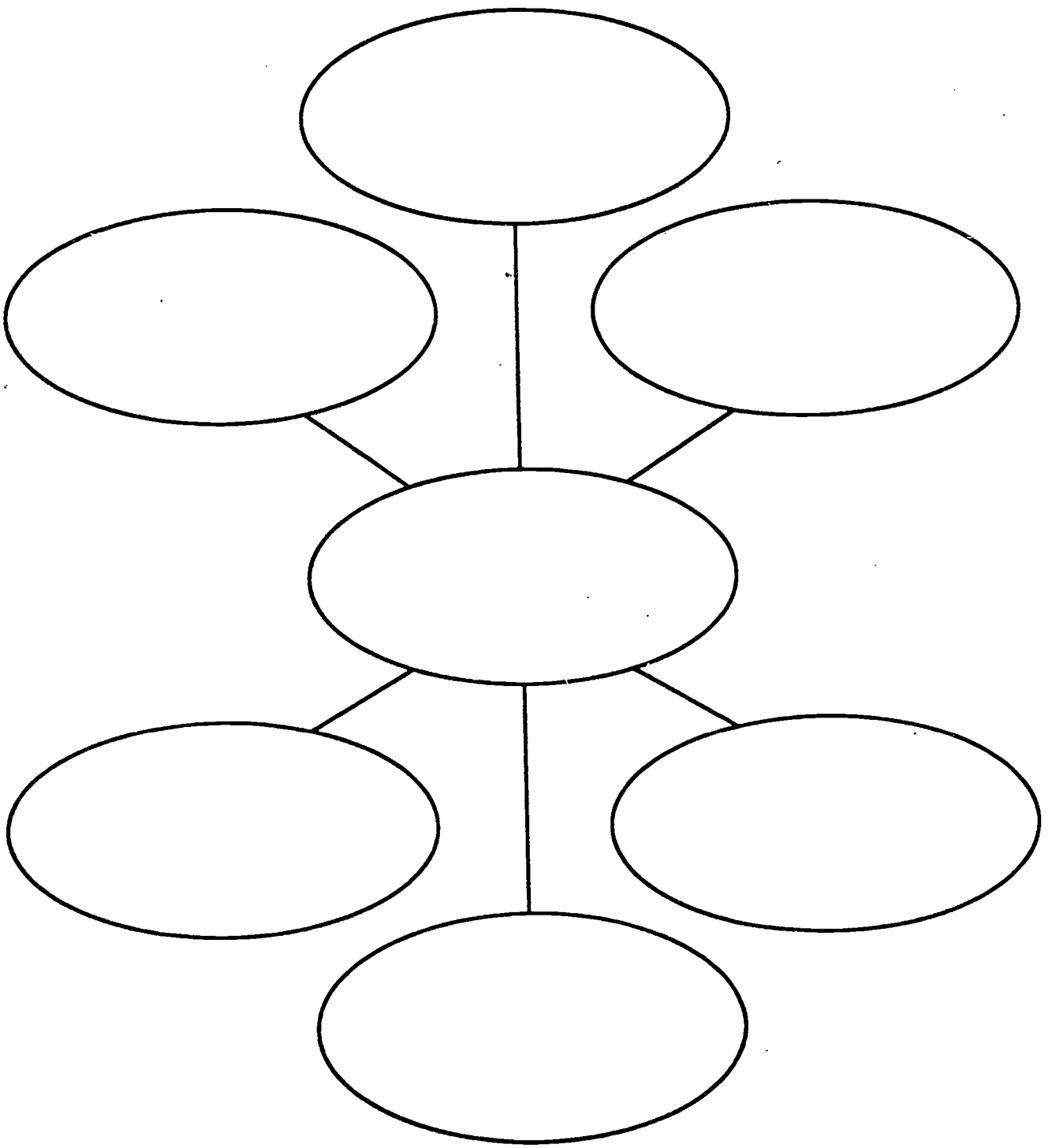
Main Idea and Details



Story Map



ORGANIZING IDEAS

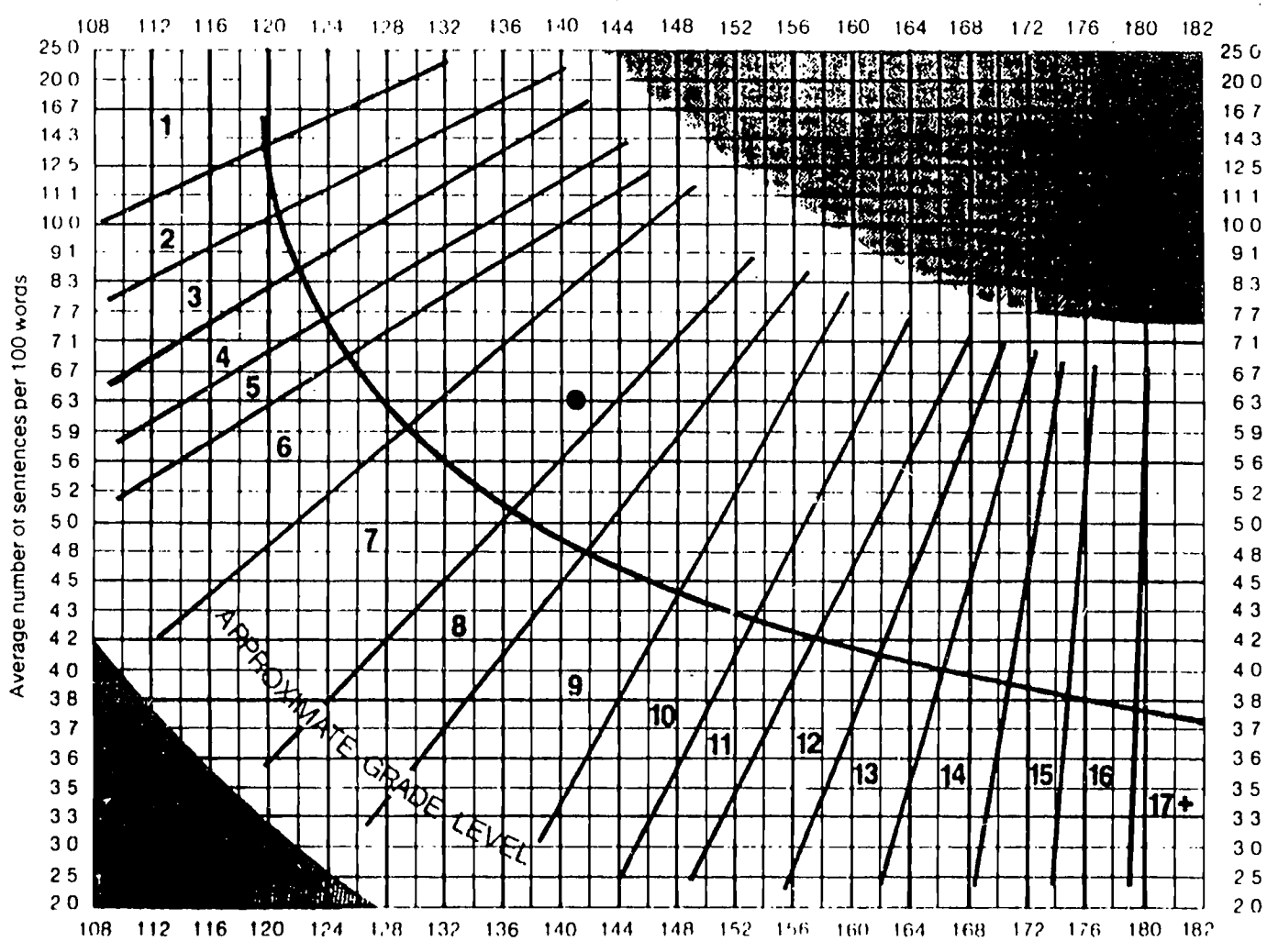


Dolch Basic Sight Word List

Preprimer	Primer	First Grade	Second Grade	Third Grade
1. a	1. all	1. after	1. always	1. about
2. and	2. am	2. again	2. around	2. better
3. away	3. are	3. an	3. because	3. bring
4. big	4. at	4. any	4. been	4. carry
5. blue	5. ate	5. as	5. before	5. clean
6. can	6. be	6. ask	6. best	6. cut
7. come	7. black	7. by	7. both	7. done
8. down	8. brown	8. could	8. buy	8. draw
9. find	9. but	9. every	9. call	9. drink
10. for	10. came	10. fly	10. cold	10. eight
11. funny	11. did	11. from	11. does	11. fall
12. go	12. do	12. give	12. don't	12. far
13. help	13. eat	13. going	13. fast	13. full
14. here	14. four	14. had	14. first	14. got
15. I	15. get	15. has	15. five	15. grow
16. in	16. good	16. her	16. found	16. hold
17. is	17. have	17. him	17. gave	17. hot
18. it	18. he	18. his	18. goes	18. hurt
19. jump	19. into	19. how	19. green	19. if
20. little	20. like	20. just	20. its	20. keep
21. look	21. must	21. know	21. made	21. kind
22. make	22. new	22. let	22. many	22. laugh
23. me	23. no	23. live	23. off	23. light
24. my	24. now	24. may	24. or	24. long
25. not	25. on	25. of	25. pull	25. much
26. one	26. our	26. old	26. read	26. myself
27. play	27. out	27. once	27. right	27. never
28. red	28. please	28. open	28. sing	28. only
29. run	29. pretty	29. over	29. sit	29. own
30. said	30. ran	30. put	30. sleep	30. pick
31. see	31. ride	31. round	31. tell	31. seven
32. the	32. saw	32. some	32. their	32. shall
33. three	33. say	33. stop	33. these	33. show
34. to	34. she	34. take	34. those	34. six
35. two	35. so	35. thank	35. upon	35. small
36. up	36. soon	36. them	36. us	36. start
37. we	37. that	37. then	37. use	37. ten
38. where	38. there	38. think	38. very	38. today
39. yellow	39. they	39. walk	39. wash	39. together
40. you	40. this	40. were	40. which	40. try
	41. too	41. when	41. why	41. warm
	42. under		42. wish	
	43. want		43. work	
	44. was		44. would	
	45. well		45. write	
	46. went		46. your	
	47. what			
	48. white			
	49. who			
	50. will			
	51. with			
	52. yes			

GRAPH FOR ESTIMATING READABILITY — EXTENDED

by Edward Fry Rutgers University Reading Center, New Brunswick N J 08904



The NEW Reading Teacher's Book of Lists (c) 1985 Prentice Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, NJ 07632 By E. Fry, D. Fountoukidis, and J. Polk