LEARNING TO TEACH READING:
A COMPARISON OF REGULAR & SPECIAL EDUCATION PRESERVICE PROGRAMS

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ABSTRACT

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The ability to read is a necessary skill that is held in high regard in schools across the nation. Reading is a complex process; therefore, the instruction of reading is a complex process. Both regular educators and special educators have the important task of teaching reading to the students in their classrooms. Because of the educational requirements set forth in the No Child Left Behind Act, it is necessary that both regular educators and special educators work closely together to increase the reading performance of all students. For both groups of teachers to accomplish this task, it is necessary that they receive appropriate and similar pre-service education in the area of reading instruction.

The purpose of this study was to analyze textbooks used to teach both regular and special educators in pre-service programs about reading and instructional strategies to teach reading to students. The analysis of content information was used to determine similarities and differences in the strategies being taught to regular and special educators in pre-service programs through textbooks.

The method of data collection was content analysis. Ten textbooks, five regular education textbooks and five special education textbooks, used in pre-service education programs were read and analyzed. Data were organized according to type (regular education or special education) of textbook, as well as for the group as a whole. Patterns, similarities, and differences were recorded for each group and then compared. It was determined that regular education and special education pre-service teachers are not receiving the same core reading instruction knowledge through the textbooks used in pre-service courses.
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CHAPTER I. INTRODUCTION

“If you can read this, thank a teacher,” Anonymous.

Reading is an essential skill necessary for a successful life. Although some people can make it through life not being able to read, it is a rare occurrence. Reading enhances the quality of life. It is not enough to use basic phonics skills to be able to decode words on a page in a fluent manner; it is necessary that we become able to comprehend the words that we read. We need to be able to make meaning of the words we read and use that meaning for enjoyment and to function efficiently in everyday life.

Many of us do not remember, or have fuzzy memories of, learning how to read, who taught us how to read, or even the methods that were used to teach us how to read. Reading becomes such an automatic part of who we are and how we function every day that we tend to forget what a complex process reading is. Not only is reading a complex undertaking for learners, without a complete and thorough understanding of how the entire reading process works it can be a difficult process to teach to others.

Most often reading is viewed as a process composed of individual parts that interlock and work together: alphabet, fluency, and comprehension (NICHD, 2000). Among reading researchers and theorists, it has been a debate for years if reading can really be called reading unless all of these elements are present (Schnarr, 2005). Swanson (1999) argues that the purpose and meaning (or comprehension) of a text are the most important components of reading. Therefore, he states that when instructing children who are learning to read, phonics and fluency should be introduced and are important, but the purpose and meaning of a text should be emphasized. There is a great deal of research on the reading process and how phonics, fluency, and reading comprehension interact to create the overall reading experience. Basic phonics skills
and fluency are almost always a prerequisite for reading comprehension. If phonics skills and fluency are lacking, then reading comprehension almost always suffers.

There are several theories about reading and how reading should be taught to children. Three main theories for reading are Schema Theory, Mental Model Theory, and Proposition Theory (Casper, Catton, Westfall, & College, 1998). Also, there are several approaches to reading instruction that are important: top-down, bottom-up, and balanced approach. Since all teachers are teachers of reading, they require a strong foundation in the area of reading from their pre-service programs (Savage & Mooney, 1979). Based on the theories of reading and the approaches towards reading instruction there are a variety of reading strategies that are being taught to both regular education and special education pre-service teachers.

Statement of the Problem

The pre-service education of both regular and special education teachers is critical. Due to the regulations set forth in the No Child Left Behind Act, co-teaching and immersion are instructional settings that are gaining popularity in schools today (U.S. Dept. of Ed, 2002). These two types of classroom settings require regular educators and special educators to work together to ensure all students are proficient in reading. Because regular education teachers and special education teachers are now working closely together, it is important that they have a similar core knowledge base of reading theories, approaches towards the instruction of reading, and strategies to instruct reading.

Research Questions

The following question was addressed in this study: What are the similarities and differences in the theories and strategies that regular education and special education pre-service teachers are being taught from these textbooks?
Rationale

The demand for literacy skills is steadily increasing in today’s society (Snow, 2002). This change is affecting the demands that are being placed on students before, during, and after school. Not only is the demand for literacy skills changing, but the population of students in the classroom is changing. The number of students who require special education services is rapidly increasing (Carlisle & Rice, 2002). Of the students who are identified with learning disabilities, one of the most significant problems they experience is reading difficulty (Swanson, 1999).

Because of the growing population of students who require special education, the legislation governing education is changing. The No Child Left Behind Act is one law that is currently influencing the classroom environment, in particular, the reading classroom (U.S. Dept. of Ed, 2006). Due to the No Child Left Behind Act, there are more regular education teachers and special education teachers working together in the same classrooms with the same students with the overall goal of helping all students become proficient readers. Because regular education teachers and special education teachers are now working so closely together in the classroom, it is important that they have a common understanding of how the reading process works and how to teach reading.

Having a common understanding of reading instruction would allow regular educators and special educators to easily collaborate in the classroom. However, currently both groups of teachers have different educational coursework to complete during their pre-service education. An analysis of the textbooks used to teach reading instruction to these two groups of pre-service teachers was necessary to determine the similarities and differences between the reading instruction methods being taught. The results allow us to make future plans and adjustments to pre-service education and/or our instruction methods in the reading classroom.
Definition of Terms

The following is a list of terms that may be important in understanding the current investigation.

1. *Reading* is a process of getting meaning from print, using knowledge about the written alphabet, and about the sound structure of oral language for purposes of achieving understanding (Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998).

2. *Pre-service teachers* are individuals in teacher preparation/education programs lasting four to five years.

3. *No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB)* is legislation introduced by President George W. Bush in 2001 and signed into law in 2002. The goal of this legislation is to increase accountability for schools, especially primary and secondary schools. Reading performance is one specific area that the Act targets.

4. *Alphabets* is the broad category that encompasses phonemic awareness and phonics.

5. *Phonemic awareness* is manipulating phonemes in spoken syllables and words (NICHD, 2000).

6. *Phonics* is how to use letter-sound relations to read or spell words (NICHD, 2000).

7. *Fluency* is the ability for a reader to read orally with speed and accuracy (NICHD, 2000).

8. *Reading comprehension* is intentional thinking during which meaning is constructed through interactions between text and reader (NICHD, 2000).

9. *Transaction* is the interaction that occurs between the reader and the text as the reader reads the text.

10. *Phonemes* are the smallest units of phonics that are able to convey a distinction in meaning.
11. *Decoding* is the ability to make meaning of written text.

12. *Digraphs* in the English language are two letter combinations such as ch, sh, and th (Schnarr, 2005).

13. *Efferent reading* is a purpose for reading in which the reader is reading for detail (Rosenblatt, 2005).

14. *Aesthetic reading* is a purpose for reading in which the reader is reading for meaning through sensations, images, feelings, and ideas (Rosenblatt, 2005).

15. *Special education* is classroom, smallgroup, or individualized instruction involving techniques, exercises, and subject matter designed for students with mild to moderate disabilities and whose learning needs cannot be met by a standard school curriculum (Sisk, 2006).

16. *Consistency* is the presence of a common definition and similar representation of a theory or strategy that is evident in a majority of a particular group of textbooks.

17. *Scripted lessons* are lessons that tell the teacher exactly what to say to students word for word when teaching a lesson as well as what student responses should be excepted.

**Limitations**

There were a few limitations to this study. The first was due to the small sample size of textbooks selected for analysis. Also, the amount of time available to do this study limited the amount of material that was able to be analyzed. This study analyzed textbooks used to teach reading instruction; it did not analyze class syllabi or how the textbooks were actually used in the pre-service program. This study did not account for pre-service programs teaching special educators through the use of regular education textbooks. Overall, a larger sample size, different
textbooks for analysis, more time, analysis of class syllabi, and accounting for special education pre-service programs using regular education textbooks may have yielded different results.
CHAPTER II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Reading is a crucial skill that all students need to learn. Reading is a complex process that is easier to learn for some students than others. However, no matter what difficulty level students face when learning to read, it is their right to experience quality reading instruction. Each of the elements discussed in this chapter have an effect on reading instruction. This chapter will discuss theories of reading, the No Child Left Behind Act, and the three important aspects of reading instruction as defined by the National Reading Panel (2000): alphabetics, fluency, and reading comprehension. Each of these elements will be addressed in order to help answer the research question: What are the similarities and differences in the theories and strategies that regular education and special education pre-service teachers are being taught from textbooks?

Theories and Models of Reading

Theories of Reading

English can be a difficult language to learn to read because spoken English has about 5,000 different possible syllables, while written English uses an alphabetic system that represents the parts in each syllable rather than the syllable being represented as a whole unit (Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998). Learning to read is a developmental process characterized as a series of stages through which children pass (sometimes sequentially and sometimes not); the rate of development is generally related to chronological age and mental age (Swanson, 1999). Learning to read begins very early in a child’s life. As a child’s brain is developing and making new connections and understandings with his/her world, he/she is gathering information and learning very basic skills that will support his/her ability to read in the future (Paris, Oka, & DeBritto, 1983).
Many children enter school already having acquired various skills that enable them to understand oral language in a variety of contexts and often times these skills are later equated to reading achievement (Diakidoy, Stylianou, Karefillidou, & Papageorgiou, 2005). Based on varying views about the process of reading and what occurs during the process of reading, Casper, Catton, Westfall, and College (1998) suggest three main theories for reading: Schema Theory, Mental Model Theory, and Proposition Theory. These three theories are each uniquely different, but at times they work together as the process of reading occurs.

Schema Theory

The Schema Theory explains how the reader makes connections to the text. This theory is not a new one. According to Harris and Sipay (1990), Bartlett was the first to use the term in its present meaning. Each schema symbolizes an entire file of knowledge that summarizes what an individual knows about a concept and how the pieces within the concept relate to each other (Harris & Sipay). Schema is developed by extracting the common characteristics of events and experiences and creating a mental file that represents this general knowledge (Harris & Sipay). In the schema theory, the individual takes the world knowledge he/she has and organizes it into categories and systems so that he/she can easily refer to them or retrieve at a later time (Padro, 2004). This storage of information takes place in the long-term memory. When an individual reads, he/she pulls information from the long-term memory into the short term memory so he/she can make active connections with the text.

Mental Model Theory

Next, the Mental Model Theory was first suggested by Craik (Johnson-Laird & Byrne, 2000). Craik believed that to anticipate future events, small models of reality were constructed in the mind (Johnson-Laird & Byrne). Perception, imagination, and comprehension can all
contribute to the development of mental models. Most often mental models represent visual images, however it is possible for mental models to represent abstract ideas that cannot be visualized. In relationship to reading, the mental model theory can be described as a personal movie created and viewed in the mind of the reader (Casper, Catton, Westfall, & College, 1998). Creation of this mental movie or picture is based on the text. The mental image is constantly changing as new concepts or ideas are introduced in the text. This model most often occurs when the reader is reading fiction.

Proposition Theory

Finally, the Proposition Theory describes the way in which the reader categorizes the main ideas and other relevant information from the text as he/she reads (Casper, Catton, Westfall, & College, 1998). According to Harris and Sipay (1990), when a person reads he/she sorts the text into idea units such as clauses and sentences. Next, each of these idea units is processed and evaluated for importance. Importance is based on: (a) the conceptual and structural schemata that the text is being compared to, (b) already processed information, (c) a pre-reading analysis of task demands, and (d) the reader’s interests (Harris & Sipay). The idea units that meet or exceed this criteria then receive more attention as the person is reading. The main ideas and other information are usually categorized in a hierarchical fashion, giving priority to the most important information. At some point during the reading of the text, the reader selects the idea unit or proposition that best represents the most important information in the text or pulls together the remaining less important information in the text (Harris & Sipay).
Models of Reading

Bottom-Up Model

Not only are there several theories of reading, there are several approaches to the instruction of reading. One such theory looks at reading as a skills-based process. In this process reading is based on visual perception, letters, letter shapes, word patterns, and sound patterns. This process can be called bottom-up approach or part to whole approach (Dombey, 1999).

Boothe, Walter, and Stringer (1999), define the bottom-up approach as a model that emphasizes the written or printed text, is driven by a process that results in meaning, and proceeds from part to whole. Advocates of the bottom-up approach believe that the reader needs to be able to identify letter features, link these features to recognize letters, combine letters to recognize spelling patterns, link spelling patterns to recognize words, and then proceed to sentence, paragraph, and text level processing (Boothe, Walter, & Stringer).

According to Dechant (1991), the bottom-up model is based on the principle that text is hierarchically organized. The levels of organization are grapho-phonetic, phonemic, syllabic, morphemic, word, and sentence. The reader first processes the smallest linguistic unit and gradually combines the units to understand and comprehend higher units (Dechant).

The phonic approach to reading is one widely accepted program that incorporates bottom-up principles (Boothe, Walter, & Stringer, 1999). Boothe, Walter, and Stringer define the phonic approach to reading as an approach that teaches the relation of letters they represent to teach reading. The phonics approach is based on two assumptions: (a) most languages have specific sound to letter correlations (b) once the relationship of letters to sounds is learned, printed words can be pronounced by blending the sounds together (Boothe, Walther, & Stringer).
Often phonics is seen as the foundation for reading. It is a skill that is usually deemed necessary for successful reading (NICHD, 2000).

**Top-Down Model**

Another reading theory looks at reading as an overall process of reading and not the individual pieces or skills. This process can be called top-down approach or whole to part approach (Dombey, 1999). Boothe, Walter, and Waters (1999) define the top-down approach as a model that emphasizes what the reader brings to the text, reading is driven by meaning, and proceeds from whole to part. The top-down model works on the assumption that processing of the text begins in the mind of the reader with meaning-driven processes or an assumption about the meaning of the text (Boothe, Walter, and Waters). According to Gove (1983), the following are components of the top-down model: (a) readers can comprehend a passage even if they do not recognize every word (b) readers should use grammatical cues to identify unrecognized words (c) reading for meaning is the primary goal of reading rather than the mastery of letters, letter/sound relationships, and words (d) reading requires the use of meaning activities rather than the mastery of word-recognition skills (e) the primary goal of instructions should be the reading of sentences, paragraphs, and whole passages (f) the most important aspect about reading is the amount and kind of information gained through reading.

Whole language is an educational philosophy that is a widely accepted belief about reading that is based on some of the top-down components (Boothe, Walter, & Waters 1999). Weaver (1990), states that the whole language philosophy is a belief system about the nature of learning and how it can be fostered in the classroom. Language is kept whole, not broken into skills; instead the skills and strategies are developed in context of whole, authentic literacy experiences that are integrated with the learning that takes place in the classroom as well as
within the entire life of the student. According to Weaver, the following are components of the whole language philosophy: (a) students learn to gradually read and write as they learn to talk without a great deal of direct instruction (b) learning is emphasized more than teaching because it is assumed that students will learn to read with the teacher as a facilitator (c) children read text every day that is not artificial or simplified (d) reading, writing, and oral language are intertwining processes that permeate everything students do (e) there is no division between first learning to read and later learning to read.

Interactive Model

According to Dombey (1999), when the bottom-up and top-down models are combined and both skills and the big picture are taught at the same time it is called an interactive approach. Boothe and Walter (1999) define the interactive approach as a reading model that recognizes the interaction of bottom-up and top-down processes simultaneously throughout the reading process. According to McCormick (1988), this model of reading is the most promising approach today because it tries to take into account the strong points of both the bottom-up and top-down models. Rumelhart (1985), states that reading is a perceptual and cognitive process. A skilled reader uses sensory, syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic information to bridge together both the cognitive and perceptual processes. These various pieces of information work together and interact in many complex ways during the overall process of reading (Rumelhart).

The interactive model of reading is often equated with a balanced approach towards reading (Rumelhart, 1985). According to Rumelhart a balanced approach towards reading is one in which skills can be taught both separately and within the context of reading. He also states that a balanced approach towards reading is one in which language and literature-rich activities associated with whole language activities aimed at enhancing memory, and love of language
with explicit teaching skills as needed to develop the fluency that is necessary of proficient readers.

There may be varied opinions as to which theory of reading and which methods of reading instruction are the best. There appears to be no right or wrong method when it comes to reading instruction (Snow, 2002). According to Snow, when choosing a method of reading instruction, it is important to take into account some factors that affect students such as age, ability, motivation, background knowledge, and access to reading materials. These are only a few of the factors that should be considered when selecting a teaching method. While it is important to be knowledgeable of outside factors affecting students, it should be noted that teachers are the key influence on helping students to learn literacy (Snow). According to Popplewell and Doty (2001):

Every teacher knows children who succeed in spite of their lack of background knowledge or home support. Some children come to school at risk for failure and manage to succeed. We recognize that children’s home backgrounds can influence failure or success, but we believe that what happens in classrooms minute by minute actually determines how much will be learned. (p. 84)

No Child Left Behind

For 40 years, state and nationwide tests yielded results of stagnant reading scores (Yell, Katsiyannas, & Shiner, 2006). This stagnation led to changes in educational legislation. In January of 2001, President George W. Bush introduced the No Child Left Behind Act (U.S. Dept. of Ed, 2006). NCLB is a revised and updated version of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. In January of 2002, President George W. Bush signed NCLB into law. The main goal of NCLB is to improve the performance of elementary and secondary schools, while at the
same time ensuring that no student is trapped in a failing school (Yell, Katsiyannas, & Shiner). This act is based on: increased accountability, more financial flexibility for the schools, and a stronger emphasis on reading (U.S. Dept. of Ed). And, according to the U.S. Department of Education, the long-term goal of NCLB is to have 100% proficiency in reading and math for all students by 2014.

One large piece of NCLB is Title I (U.S. Dept. of Ed, 2002). Title I gives a large amount of money to states to support schools that have a population of poor students of at least 25%. The money is supposed to be used to fund extra help programs for students who are falling behind (Yell, Katsiyannas, & Shiner, 2006). Currently, all states are receiving NCLB funding (U.S. Dept of Ed.). Therefore, each state is required to administer statewide testing and track the results of the testing. The results must be tracked and broken down by school and subpopulations, such as disabled students, racial minorities, and students learning English as a second language. The purpose of this testing and tracking is to ensure that all sub-groups of students, not just the school as a whole, are moving towards 100% proficiency on grade level.

According to the United States Department of Education (2002), if any school that receives Title I money does not meet the requirements set forth by NCLB of “adequate yearly progress” the school will face consequences. If a school is not making progress after two years then the students have the right to transfer to a better school. If no progress is made after three years then the students are entitled to free tutoring. After four years, the schools go through the process of being dismantled and rebuilt, known as “corrective action.” Because of these consequences, some schools are choosing to forfeit their Title I money so they do not have to follow these requirements (U.S. Dept. of Ed.).
Overall, NCLB is trying to increase student achievement in the areas of reading and math by 2014 (U.S. Dept. of Ed, 2006). Schools are required to track and report their progress. The schools are also required to report the individual results of subpopulations such as students with disabilities, racial minorities, and students who are learning English as a second language. These groups of students are now required to be held to the standards that are set for the grade in which they are enrolled (Yell, Katsiyannas, & Shiner, 2006). This is of importance to regular educators and special educators. These two groups of teachers now need to work more closely together to increase the achievement all students, especially the students who have disabilities, students who are racial minorities, and students who are learning English as a second language; all three of these types of students have been shown to be typically further behind the general school population in levels of academic achievement (Yell, Katsiyannas, & Shiner).

Alphabets

Alphabets is the broad term used by the National Reading Panel (2000) to include phonemic awareness and phonics. Phonemic awareness is the ability to focus on and manipulate phonemes in spoken syllables and words. Phonics is the ability to use letter-sound relationships to read or spell words (NICHD, 2000).

Historical

Phonics

In the 16th century, Martin Luther wanted to teach large masses of people to read so they could read the Bible (Schnarr, 2005). According to Schnarr, Martin Luther and his followers developed a method of teaching people to read the English language. This method became known as phonics. The main components of this phonics program were alphabet training, syllable memorization, and finally decoding of words or sounding them out (Schnarr).
The English language is based on an alphabetic system which creates the necessity of phonics in learning to read. In this alphabetic system, there are letters that represent sounds or groups of sounds which has evolved over the years (Dombey, 1999). For example, pronunciation of certain sounds, letters, and words have changed, but the spelling of these words and sounds has not changed. Phonics is a skill that helps to overcome these changes and equips the reader with strategies to decode the text.

According to Schnarr (2005), the first step of learning phonics was to memorize the alphabet. Through consistent drills and repetition individuals were taught a sound, or sounds, to correspond with every letter of the alphabet (Schnarr). Slowly individuals moved from applying phonics skills to individual words to words in increasingly longer sentences. Schnarr notes that it is important to make the distinction that the readers were focused on decoding the words and sentences, but the meaning of the words and sentences was not addressed through phonics instruction. The point of phonics was decoding and not comprehension. It was believed that comprehension would come with time as long as phonics training successfully continued (Schnarr).

It was not until the 18th century that phonics was introduced to reading instruction in the United States (Morrow & Tracey, 1997). In the 19th century, some changes to the phonics approach occurred. McGuffey’s *Eclectic Reader for Young Children* was introduced (Schnarr, 2005). This Reader introduced the concept of digraphs and made digraphs easier to recognize and decode. Digraphs are two-letter combinations such as ch, sh, and th. Next, the Oswego method of learning was introduced (Morrow & Tracey). This method did away with the repetitiveness of drills and introduced stories using phonics elements. Schnarr writes that eventually a man named F.W. Parker introduced a concept that disregarded phonics and
encouraged children to learn to read through the writing of their own stories. Some people believe that this was the beginning of Whole Word Learning, which is considered to be the opposite of phonics (Schnarr).

According to Schnarr (2005), in the 1920s, the development of whole word learning had become a rival of phonic supporters. The phonic supporters believed in emphasizing the importance of decoding and the whole language supporters believed in emphasizing the importance of meaning (Schnarr). During the 1950s, this rivalry became a political debate that continues today.

Phonemic Awareness

According to the NICHD (2000), phonemic awareness is manipulating phonemes in spoken syllables and words. Snider (2001) has a similar definition of phonemic awareness, stating that phonemic awareness begins with the conscious awareness that sentences are made up of words which leads to an awareness that words are made up of phonemes that roughly correspond to individual letters. In previous years it was believed that intelligence and perceptual ability were the best predictors of reading readiness; however, it has now been shown that phonemic awareness is a better predictor than intelligence and perceptual ability (Snider).

Current

Phonics

Over the years the importance of phonemic awareness and phonics instruction has been debated. Even though the debate still continues, it is now recognized that phonemic awareness and phonics instruction are essential components to reading instruction (Dombey, 1999). Therefore, the debate is no longer whether or not phonics is important, but rather what approaches to phonics instruction are most beneficial (Morrow & Tracey, 1997). A new
approach towards reading instruction includes both phonics and whole language learning and is called the balanced approach (Schnarr, 2005). This approach takes ideas from both sides of the debate, phonics skills and whole reading, and puts them together to create a new method of teaching reading that appears to be more well rounded (Schnarr).

Phonemic Awareness

No matter what approach to alphabetics is taken, phonemic awareness and letter knowledge at the age of entering school are the two best predictors of how well children will learn to read within the first two years of school instruction (NICHD, 2000). Teaching students phonemic awareness, or the ability to manipulate phonemes in words, is highly effective in a variety of teaching environments with a variety of students across grades and ages (NICHD). Teaching children phonemic awareness will significantly improve their ability to read more than any instruction that does not include phonemic awareness (NICHD).

Strategies

Phonics

Morrow and Tracey (1997) explain that phonics instruction is a method for teaching reading that stresses the use of letter-sound relationships for both reading and spelling. Systematic and incidental are the two ways in which phonics can be taught (Morrow & Tracey). Systematic instruction is a way to teach phonics in which the teacher follows specific steps that follow a specific order. Incidental instruction is a way to teach phonics in which the teacher teaches phonics elements as they appear in the text and not necessarily in any particular order. The following five approaches to teaching phonics are described in the NICHD (2000): analogy phonics, analytic phonics, embedded phonics, phonics through spelling, and synthetic phonics.
According to the NICHD (2000), the following descriptions define the five approaches to teaching phonics. Teaching students unfamiliar words by a comparison of two like things or to known words is called analogy phonics. Teaching students to look at, or analyze, letter-sound relations in words already learned to avoid pronouncing sounds in isolation is known as analytic phonics. Embedded phonics is teaching students mostly by incidental learning because the phonics skills are embedded in the text being used. Phonics through spelling is teaching students to break words into phonemes and then choose letters to represent those phonemes. Teaching students systematically to convert letters into sounds and then changing or blending those sounds into words is synthetic phonics.

Research done by the NICHD (2000) demonstrated that children’s success in learning to read was enhanced by phonics instruction and that systematic instruction is significantly more effective than instruction that teaches little or not phonics. Also, synthetic systematic phonics had a positive effect on the reading skills of students with disabilities and without disabilities (NICHD).

Phonemic Awareness

Although, phonemic awareness and phonics are important, we are reminded that we should not judge a student’s reading ability solely on his/her use of phonics skills (Dombey, 1999). Research has shown that explicit training of phonemic tasks will help to improve reading achievement (Snider, 2001). It is necessary to learn phonics skills to learn to read; however phonics is not enough to support reading because fluency and reading comprehension are also necessary skills for reading (NICHD, 2000).
Fluency

According to the NICHD (2000), the ability to read orally with accuracy, with speed, and with proper expression is known as fluency. In recent years, interest in reading fluency has grown due to the realization that it greatly impacts reading comprehension (Wolf, 2006). According to Rasinski (2004) reading fluency is an important factor in student reading success.

Historical

In past years, fluency was associated only with oral reading (Pikulski & Chard, 2005). During the 19th century, Cattell was one of the first researchers to contribute to the understanding of fluency. He discovered that we can read a word faster than we can name a picture of that same word (Wolf, 2006). Cattell emphasized that we become automatic when we read. Learning to become an automatic reader or fluent reader takes time and practice. Almost a century later, Cattell’s findings were replicated by Doehring (Wolf & Katzir-Cohen, 2001). Another important fluency researcher was Heuy. He developed the idea of automaticity. His work supported the idea that fluent readers steadily developed a rate of processing that allowed the mind to be freed from the individual details of the process of reading so that more attention could be paid to the meaning (Wolf & Katzir-Cohen, 2001).

Based on previous research, especially that of Heuy, the first psychologists to develop a model of what it means to become an automatic or fluent reader were LaBerge and Samuels (Wolf, 2006). They emphasized that automaticity was based on the ability to rapidly use the skills of letter-sound rules, letter combinations, and the meaning of words and their connections. They also stressed that only when these basic skills were mastered could comprehension occur (Wolf).
Wolf and Katzir-Cohen (2001) report that Carver is another important researcher in the area of fluency. He focused on the link between comprehension and fluency. He emphasized the idea that there are different purposes for reading and that we read at different rates depending on the particular purpose (Wolf & Katzir-Cohen). The reading mode is the rate in which most reading is done and it is the fastest rate at which a reader can understand complete thoughts in each sentence (Wolf & Katzir-Cohen). There are four levels of factors that affect the rate at which a person reads. Some of these factors are: age, teaching variables, aptitude factors, decoding speed, and naming speed.

Current

Current research on reading fluency is mostly consistent with the ideas set forth by LeBerge, Samuels, and Carver (Wolf & Katzir-Cohen, 2001). Fluency is a critical skill in reading and can dramatically affect reading comprehension. Research has shown that fluency has a reciprocal relationship with comprehension (Pikulski & Chard, 2005). Unfortunately, fluency is a skill that has often been over looked in the classroom (NICHD, 2000). Recent research on the importance of fluency has led to increased recognition of fluency in reading instruction (Pikulski & Chard). This is viewed as a good thing since the more opportunities that students have to practice reading the better their reading fluency should be (Wolf & Katzir-Cohen).

Recently, Ehri (2005) has articulated a theory of how readers systematically progress through four stages to develop reading fluency. This is an important model of fluency because it describes a framework for reading instruction to promote and improve fluency. According to Ehri, the four stages are: Pre-Alphabetic, Partial Alphabetic, Fully Alphabetic, and Consolidated Alphabetic.
The following definitions of the four fluency stages are based on the definitions given by Ehri (2005). In the Pre-Alphabetic Stage, readers do not have a grasp on the alphabetic principle, or in other words, they do not understand that sounds are represented by letters and ultimately those letters are grouped to form words. In the Partial Alphabetic Stage, readers have started to grasp the alphabetic principle. Readers in this stage do not have a total understanding of how complex the letter-sound relationship is and can use some, but not all of the letter-sound relationships. In the Fully Alphabetic Stage, readers have become more aware and familiar with letter-sound relationships. Readers in this stage are beginning to be able to decode words that they may have never seen in print. In the Consolidated Alphabetic Stage, readers are able to recognize whole words instantly.

Bear, Invernizzi, Templeton, and Johnston (2004) have developed another model of how students learn words. This form of instruction is word study, which involves using students’ invented spellings as a guide so that teachers can differentiate efficient, effective instruction in phonics, spelling, and vocabulary (Bear, Invernizzi, Templeton, & Johnston). According to Bear, Invernizzi, Templeton, and Johnston, a student develops through the following stages: emergent, letter name-alphabetic, within word pattern, syllables and affixes, and derivational relations.

The following definitions of spelling development stages are based on the definitions given by Bear, Invernizzi, Templeton, and Johnston (2004). The emergent stage of spelling includes the writing of children who may not yet have received formal reading instruction and may not be reading conventionally. The letter name-alphabetic stage is when students are formally taught to read. The within word pattern stage begins when students have a sight word vocabulary of 200 to 400 words and automatic knowledge of letter sounds and short vowel patterns so they can read some new material independently. The syllables and affixes stage
typically occurs in the upper grades when students learn to consider where syllables and meaning units meet. The final stage, derivational relationships, also usually occurs in the upper grades and can continue into adulthood as students examine how words have common derivations and related roots and bases.

**Strategies**

Becoming a fluent reader may be a challenge for some students. However, it is an obstacle that must be overcome for readers to progress from mere decoding to understanding of text meaning (Chard, Vaughn, & Tyler, 2002). The inclusion of silent reading to the previous definition of oral fluency has increased recognition of fluency as an important factor in reading (Pikulski & Chard, 2005). According to the NICHD (2000), the two instructional methods towards reading fluency are guided repeated oral reading and independent silent reading. Guided oral reading is when students orally read passages with systematic and explicit instruction and feedback from the teacher. Independent silent reading is when students read silently with little or no feedback from the teacher (NICHD). Along with repeated readings, Rasinski (2004) suggests using assisted readings because it is important that students hear how fluent reading sounds. Rasinski defines assisted reading as reading a passage aloud to students and then having them follow along silently and finally orally as the passage is read again.

According to Chard, Vaughn and Tyler (2002), silent reading is encouraged to help improve fluency. However, guided repeated oral reading is considered to be a more effective way in which to improve reader fluency (Chard, Vaughn, & Tyler). Guided reading is an essential piece of any program that is dealing with fluency and comprehension. Daily work and instruction dealing with fluency is recommended to help improve the skill for struggling readers (Chard, Vaughn, & Tyler).
Pikulski and Chard (2005) recommend the following nine steps for the use of teachers to help students improve their reading fluency:

1. Build a strong foundation for fluency through phonemic awareness and phonics
2. Work to build and extend vocabulary and oral language skills
3. Provide instruction and practice in the recognition of high-frequency vocabulary
4. Teach common word parts and patterns
5. Teach, model, and provide practice for decoding
6. Use appropriate text to practice reading strategies and build speed
7. Use repeated reading as an intervention for struggling readers
8. Extend fluency through independent reading, and

According to Rasinski (2006), paired reading, echo reading, Reader’s theater, and choral reading are methods that help to improve fluency. Paired reading is when a fluent reader, usually a teacher or a parent, reads with a struggling reader, usually a student or child (Rasinski). It begins with the teacher reading a passage to the student. The student reads parts of the passage that he/she believes that can read be read independently and the teacher assists as needed.

Reader’s theater is when students rehearse a play to later perform for their peers (Rasinski). The students rehearse scripts that they have written themselves based on a story or passage that they have read and eventually they perform their creation. Choral reading is when students read a text in unison (Rasinski). Usually predictable texts are used in this method and it is important to model the process for the students.
Reading Comprehension

According to the NICHD (2000), there are a variety of pieces that contribute to the development of children’s reading skills, but comprehension is a critically important component. Reading comprehension is intentional thinking during which meaning is constructed through interactions between text and reader (NICHD).

Historical

Reading has always been important in the classroom (Robinson, Faraone, Hittleman, & Unruh, 1990). However, the view of reading and the way in which the reading process is defined has changed over time. The definitions of reading comprehension and reading comprehension instruction are vague and are varied throughout the years (Robinson, Faraone, Hittleman, & Unruh).

According to Robinson, Faraone, Hittleman, and Unruh (1990), prior to 1826, reading was viewed as a facilitator and caretaker of memory. From 1826-1882, reading was viewed as an expressive art. And finally from 1883-1910, reading was viewed as a receptive process. According to Robinson, et al, before 1910, the term reading comprehension was used broadly and there was not a clear definition between reading comprehension as a product (e.g. imbibing the feelings of the author, acquiring the signification) and reading comprehension as a process (e.g. searching out what is the truth, exercising the reflective power). During the 19th century, the term reading was synonymous with oral reading (Robinson, Faraone, Hittleman, & Unruh). The process of reading was not considered complete unless it ended with expressive reading. The process for reading for children and adults was considered to be the same (Robinson, Faraone, Hittleman, & Unruh). The only differences acknowledged were age, experience, and difficulty of the material being read. During this time period the word “study” meant reading and rereading.
text with close attention. When a child had not mastered the mechanics of a certain text or material the child could be made to study the text under the supervision of a teacher or an older student (Robinson, Faraone, Hittleman, & Unruh).

Robinson, Faraone, Hittleman, and Unruh (1990) defined four early models of reading comprehension instruction dating from prior to 1826 through 1910. The first model is The Memoriter Model: An Early View of the Reading Process (prior to 1826). This model supported memorization in contrast to comprehension. Automatic decoding was the overall goal because it was believed that that would improve reading comprehension (Robinson, Faraone, Hittleman, & Unruh). Therefore, decoding mastery, repetition, memorization, study, and oral reading recitation were a large focus of reading instruction.

According to Robinson, Faraone, Hittleman, and Unruh (1990), the second model of reading comprehension is The Interlocking: A Mid-Nineteenth Century View of Reading (1826-1882). This model defined three stages that worked independently during the reading process. The stages were mechanical, intellectual, and expressive reading. Decoding, reading comprehension, and oral reading were instructional activities that were used together and separately. Each of these activities was seen as beneficial and they were all equally supported (Robinson, Faraone, Hittleman, & Unruh).

The third model of reading comprehension according to Robinson, Faraone, Hittleman, and Unruh (1990), is The Step by Step: A Mid-Nineteenth Century View of Reading (1826-1882). This model also defined three stages of the reading process. The stages were mechanical, intellectual, and expressive. In this model, it was important that each stage be mastered before moving to the next. The final goal was expressive oral reading (Robinson, Faraone, Hittleman, & Unruh).
According to Robinson, Faraone, Hittleman, and Unruh (1990), the fourth model of reading comprehension is The Thought-Getting Model: A View of Reading at the End of the Nineteenth Century (1883-1910). The importance of experience, silent reading, and thinking in reading were valued in this model and thought-getting throughout reading instruction was emphasized (Robinson, Faraone, Hittleman, & Unruh).

Also, in reading comprehension history, Goodman (1967) described reading as a psycholinguistic guessing game. Goodman believed that when a person reads, the person is required to combine cognitive and linguistic abilities to predict words using minimal letter/sound cues. Goodman stated that it was important for teachers to understand the rules of the game so that they can use effective materials and instruction methods that support those rules. Goodman’s psycholinguistic guessing game is one of the foundations for researchers who support whole language (Kozloff, 2002). The basis of whole language is that it is implicit instruction that is less focused on exact learning goals, has less teacher direction, requires students to use and construct knowledge of phonic and spelling rules, specific skill instruction given as needed, and learning in authentic contexts is emphasized (Kozloff).

*Current*

According to Pardo (2004), reading comprehension is the process of simultaneously extracting and constructing meaning through interaction and involvement with written language. Every individual brings a unique perspective to a text because every individual has his/her own unique collection of background and world knowledge (Padro). Good readers use their prior knowledge and experiences to interpret, evaluate, and respond to text (Applegate, Quinn, & Applegate, 2002). Research has demonstrated that the background knowledge of a reader is
essential for reading comprehension and comprehension is diminished by a lack of background knowledge (Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998).

Snow, Burns and Griffin (1998) believe that vocabulary knowledge is related to background knowledge. The more exposure readers have to vocabulary the more likely it is for their individual vocabularies to increase. Vocabulary also plays a large role in comprehension (Snow, Burns, & Griffin). Vocabulary is the knowledge of words and the meaning of those words (Aarnoutse & Leeuwe, 1998). Background knowledge and vocabulary often go hand in hand. Even though building and activating prior knowledge and vocabulary are essential for reading comprehension, not all students have access to resources that allow for the opportunities to build background knowledge and large vocabularies.

Background knowledge and vocabulary are not the only factors that affect comprehension. Pardo (2004) believes that motivation is another factor that influences comprehension. Motivation affects reader engagement with the text (Pardo). A teacher can not control many of the factors that affect reading; however, motivation is one thing that the teacher can easily influence. Research has shown that as students get older, motivation to read decreases (Nelson & Manset-Williamson, 2006). It is important that teachers try to combat this trend because more motivated readers are more likely to read more often and more likely to build better meaning because they are more likely to work harder to apply more strategies (Pardo). Good ways to increase reading motivation is to provide students with interesting texts, allow student choice in reading materials, set authentic purposes for reading, and encourage students to set their own authentic purposes for reading.

Comprehension occurs in the process of transaction. Transaction is the interaction that takes place between the reader and the text (Rosenblatt, 2005). The text and the reader both have
something to offer and together they create a truly unique experience. Rosenblatt believes transaction takes place when the reader, the context and its characteristics, and the features of the text come together. First, the basic level of microstructures (words) are being decoded and represented by mental images. According to Rosenblatt, this should be happening quickly and automatically in the short term-memory. The new mental images retrieve old mental images from the long-term memory to build connections. These connections are changing and adapting as the reader continues to read the text. According to Rosenblatt, a reader leaves transaction with the text with a mental representation of the text.

Currently, a common definition of reading comprehension for teachers is that reading comprehension is a process in which the reader interacts with the text and through a combination of prior knowledge, previous experience, information in the text, and the stance the reader takes towards the text to construct meaning (Pardo, 2004). Snow (2002) identified eight prerequisites for successful reading comprehension: (a) successful initial reading instruction, (b) ability to read words rapidly and accurately, (c) good oral language skills, (d) a well developed store of world knowledge, (e) quality social interaction at home, in the classroom, and in the community, (f) motivation, (g) access to literature, and (h) instruction based on appropriate and well articulated alignment between curriculum and assessment. It is extremely beneficial for students to receive quality reading comprehension instruction. Good instruction is the most powerful means of developing proficient comprehenders and preventing reading comprehension problems (Snow, 2002). Effective teachers provide challenging tasks and set aside large blocks of time for reading and writing (Popplewell & Doty, 2001).
Strategies

There are two different ways to read a text: efferently or aesthetically (Rosenblatt, 2005). The difference between these two types of reading is the purpose for reading. The purpose for efferent reading is to read for detail. The purpose for reading aesthetically is to read for meaning through sensations, images, feelings, and ideas (Rosenblatt).

Robinson, Faraone, Hittleman, and Unruh (1990) found eleven categories of methods for teaching or improving reading comprehension: (a) exercises and drills, (b) teacher-directed skill lessons, (c) rereading, (d) reading practice, (e) study skills, (f) instrument presentations, (g) word study, (h) oral presentations, (i) schema activation, (j) text structure, and (k) monitoring. However, Cunningham and Shagoury (2005) identify five reading comprehension strategies that are a little more precise: (a) creating mental images, (b) asking questions, (c) determining importance, (e) inferring, and (f) synthesizing. Overall, it is important to keep in mind that students need to be taught how to understand the comprehension strategies and skills they are using as they read so that their comprehension can be stimulated (Reid, 1981).

Creating mental images is a comprehension strategy in which the reader creates a mental image, according to Hibbing and Rankin-Erickson (2003). Basically, the reader is creating pictures in his/her mind that represent the text that he/she is reading (Hibbing & Rankin-Erickson). Asking questions is another comprehension strategy (Cunningham & Shagoury, 2005). According to Cunningham and Shagoury, while reading the text, the reader should be actively asking questions about the text during reading to help make authentic meaning. Another comprehension strategy is determining importance (Cunningham & Shagoury). While reading, the reader should constantly and consciously be determining what is important in the text and what is not. Inferring is a comprehension strategy in which the reader uses background
knowledge and experiences to understand what is taking place in the text, even though it is not necessarily stated (Cunningham & Shagoury). Synthesizing is another comprehension strategy and in this strategy, the reader retells the important ideas and main meaning of the text (Cunningham & Shagoury).

The ability to make inferences is an important factor in reading comprehension. According to Padro (2004), one of the most important processes during comprehension is inferencing and it is most likely done automatically. Inferring is one way to create mental images. Throughout the reading process the reader is looking for a chain of related events that helps him to infer meaning.

Summary

Learning to read is a complex process; therefore, reading instruction is a complex endeavor. There are many factors that have an effect on both the process of learning to read and reading instruction. This chapter explains several research-based theories that focus on reading, the importance and impact of the No Child Left Behind Act, as well as the historic and current role that alphabets, fluency, and comprehension play in the reading process. Each of these elements influences reading instruction. The strategies recommended for the instruction of alphabets, fluency, and comprehension are research-based strategies that should be taught to pre-service teachers in both regular and special education.
CHAPTER III. METHODS AND PROCEDURES

The needs of the students in the classroom have been changing. There are now more students than ever who are labeled as students with special needs. This increase in students with special needs has led to new laws such as No Child Left Behind Act, which has impacted the entire education system (U.S. Dept. of Ed., 2006). One of the goals of the No Child Left Behind Act is to increase reading proficiency for all students. Regular education teachers and special education teachers are now collaborating more than ever to accommodate all students in a variety of classroom settings. However, regular education and special education teachers have different pre-service programs and requirements. The goal of this study was to identify the similarities and differences in the methods of reading instruction that are being taught to both regular education and special education pre-service teachers through examining textbooks identified as appropriate for use in undergraduate preparation courses.

Methods

Research Design

Content analysis was used as the research design for this study. White and Marsh (2006) define content analysis as a systematic, rigorous approach to analyzing documents obtained or generated in the course of research and it is a research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from texts to the contexts of their use. Content analysis is an appropriate research method to use when manipulating large quantities of textual information to systematically identify certain characteristics or properties (White & Marsh).

Subjects

A content analysis was performed on textbooks used to teach pre-service teachers about reading instruction. Five textbooks typically used in regular education pre-service courses and
five textbooks typically used in special education pre-service courses were used in the analysis.

The number of textbooks used in this study was determined based on the time allotted for the study and the availability of both the special education and regular education textbooks.

Selection of the books was based on the following criteria:

1. The main topic of the textbook: reading instruction.
2. The intended audience of the textbook: pre-service teachers in regular education or special education.
3. Recommendations from professors in the area of pre-service education from both regular education and special education.
4. Availability of the textbook.

Instrumentation

A content analysis was performed on 10 textbooks (see Appendix A for a list of the textbooks used in this investigation) used in pre-service education programs. A set of criteria was used for the data collection of each textbook individually (See Appendix B for the data collection). Questions were used for the data analysis of all 10 textbooks as a whole (See Appendix C for the data analysis).

Procedures

Specific steps were taken to gather and analyze the relevant data. The first task completed was a literature review. Next, the textbooks to be used in the content analysis had to be identified. Five textbooks used to teach reading instruction to regular education and five textbooks used to teach reading instruction to special education pre-service teachers were chosen based on criteria influenced by the literature review.
After the books were chosen, each book was read and a content analysis was performed on each of the 10 textbooks. The textbooks were analyzed from the perspective of an undergraduate pre-service teacher who has no prior knowledge of how to teach reading. Each textbook was carefully read and the following items were documented for each textbook: theory/theories and models of reading presented, portrayal of alphabetics (phonemic awareness, phonics, vocabulary), instructional strategies for alphabetics, portrayal of fluency, instructional strategies for fluency, portrayal of reading comprehension, and instructional strategies for reading comprehension.

A data collection sheet was used to compile data for each textbook. After an analysis was completed on each of the 10 textbooks, the data were organized into two categories: regular education and special education. The two categories were then compared for similarities and differences. A visual inspection was used to determine the similarities and differences between the material presented in each of the textbooks. A tally was used to record how often a particular theory, definition, or instructional strategy appeared across all 10 textbooks. The number of textbooks in which each theory, definition, or instructional strategy appeared across all five regular education textbooks was recorded. The same method was followed for the special education textbooks. Finally, a percentage was calculated to demonstrate how many times a particular theory, definition, or instructional strategy appeared in the regular education textbooks. A similar percentage was also calculated for the special education textbooks. The final analysis sheet was then used to draw conclusions about the research question.

Data Collection

Ten textbooks were chosen for content analysis. Five textbooks were textbooks that were used in regular education pre-service programs and five textbooks were textbooks that were used
in special education pre-service programs. The textbooks were individually examined to answer the following questions:

1. What theory/theories and models of reading are portrayed?
2. What does the text have to say about alphabolics (phonemic awareness, phonics, and vocabulary)?
3. What instructional strategies are recommended for the teaching of alphabolics (phonemic awareness, phonics, and vocabulary)?
4. What does the text have to say about fluency?
5. What instructional strategies are recommended for the teaching of fluency?
6. What does the text have to say about reading comprehension?
7. What instructional strategies are recommended for the teaching of reading comprehension?

Data Analysis

Ten reading instruction textbooks were read to begin the process of this data analysis. The purpose of this data analysis was to find the similarities and the differences in the way that reading instruction is taught to regular education and special education pre-service teachers through textbooks. After each of the texts were individually analyzed using the above questions the following questions were used to compare the five regular education textbooks to the special education textbooks:

1. What are the similarities between how each group portrays theory/theories of reading? What are the differences?
2. What are the similarities between how each group portrays alphabolics (phonics)? What are the differences?
3. Between the two groups what are the similarities in the recommended instructional strategies for alphabetics (phonics)? What are the differences?

4. What are the similarities between how each group portrays fluency? What are the differences?

5. Between the two groups what are the similarities in the recommended instructional strategies for fluency? What are the differences?

6. What are the similarities between how each group portrays reading comprehension? What are the differences?

7. Between the two groups what are the similarities in the recommended instructional strategies for reading comprehension? What are the differences?

Summary

This investigation evaluated the way that reading instruction was taught to regular education and special education pre-service teachers through textbooks. Ten reading instruction textbooks were chosen for analysis. Five textbooks were used to teach regular education pre-service teachers and five textbooks were used to teach special education pre-service teachers. To begin the analysis, each text was analyzed individually. Next, the information gathered from the initial analysis was broken into two groups: regular education and special education. Finally, the data gathered for each of the two groups were compared to determine the similarities and the differences between the ways in which reading strategies were portrayed.
CHAPTER IV. ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

This investigation examined the content of reading textbooks used in pre-service programs. The textbooks were analyzed from the perspective of an undergraduate pre-service teacher who has no prior knowledge of how to teach reading. Five textbooks used in regular education pre-service programs and five textbooks used in special education pre-service programs were analyzed. The focus was on the inclusion of the following elements: theory/theories and models of reading, alphabetics, fluency, and reading comprehension. The focus was also on the inclusion and consistency of instructional strategies for alphabetics, fluency, and reading comprehension. According to this study consistency is referred to as the presence of a common definition and representation of a theory or strategy that is evident in a majority of a particular group of textbooks. The results of the content analysis are presented in this chapter. Discussion will first focus on the content analysis of theory/theories and models of reading for regular education textbooks and then special education textbooks. Next, the content analysis of alphabetics for regular education textbooks and then special education textbooks will be discussed. Then, the content analysis of fluency for regular education textbooks and then special education textbooks will be discussed. The next focus will be on the content analysis of reading comprehension for regular education textbooks and then special education textbooks. Finally, a holistic evaluation of the content analysis will be presented.

Analysis of Content by Theory/Theories and Models of Reading

The content of all 10 textbooks was analyzed for the inclusion of theory/theories and models of reading (see Appendix B). Each textbook was read and the theory/theories or models that appeared in each textbook were recorded. Then the number of regular education textbooks
that included each theory/theories or models was counted (see Appendix C). The same procedure was followed for the special education textbooks (see Appendix C).

Regular Education Textbooks

All five of the regular education textbooks mentioned the Interactive Theory. Four of the five regular education textbooks included the research done by Piaget and Vygotsky. More specifically, Piaget’s work with cognitive development was mentioned and Vygotsky’s zone of proximal development. Four of the five regular education textbooks also included the Cognitive Theory. Four of the five regular education textbooks stressed the necessity for multiple models of reading instruction to best meet the needs of all students. Four of the five regular education textbooks were in favor of a Balanced Approach to reading instruction. Three of the five textbooks included the idea of bottom-up and top-down reading instruction, the Behaviorist Theory, and Social Interaction or Language Acquisition. Two of the five textbooks included the philosophy of Whole Language and the Engagement Theory. Only one of the five regular education textbooks stressed that it was necessary for reading instruction to be both explicit and systematic and scripted lessons. None of the regular education textbooks mentioned differentiated instruction, the components of language, or the stages of word learning.

Special Education Textbooks

Three of the five special education textbooks strongly supported teacher use of scripted lessons. The scripted lessons that were included in these textbooks gave step by step instructions for teachers to use when teaching reading skills. In the textbooks the scripted lessons were most often presented in a purposeful order that was supposed to mimic the order that teachers would present the lessons to students. Through the use of these scripted lessons a teacher would have one method of which to use to teach a reading skill. Two of the five special education textbooks
included the idea of bottom-up and top-down reading instruction, Social Interaction or Language Acquisition, Interactive Theory, and the need for explicit and systematic reading instruction. Two of the five special education textbooks also stressed the necessity for multiple models of reading instruction to best meet the needs of all students. Only one of the five special education textbooks included the research done by Piaget and Vygotsky, Engagement Theory, differentiated instruction, the components of language, and the stages of word learning. None of the special education textbooks included the Behaviorist Theory, the philosophy of Whole Language, or the Cognitive Theory.

Analysis of Content by Alphabetics

The content of all 10 textbooks was analyzed for the inclusion of alphabetics as an important element of reading instruction (see Appendix B). In this study, the term alphabetics included phonemic awareness, phonics, and vocabulary. Each textbook was read and the definitions of phonemic awareness, phonics, and vocabulary were recorded. Also, the instructional strategies that were recommended for phonemic awareness, phonics, and vocabulary were recorded. Then the number of regular education textbooks that included similar definitions for phonemic awareness, phonics, and vocabulary were recorded (see Appendix C). Next, the number of regular education textbooks that included similar instructional strategies for phonemic awareness, phonics, and vocabulary were recorded (see Appendix C). For the purpose of this study the instructional strategies were not identified as being solely for phonemic awareness, phonics, or vocabulary due to the fact that many of strategies that were recommended for one element were also recommend for the other two elements. The same procedure was followed for the special education textbooks (see Appendix C).
Regular Education Textbooks

All five of the regular education textbooks had a similar definition for phonics and phonemic awareness. Four of the five regular education textbooks had a similar definition for vocabulary. Three of the five regular education textbooks included the explanation of analytic and synthetic phonics. Two of the five regular education textbooks mentioned the elements of phonics: consonants, vowels, onsets, and rimes. Only one of the regular education textbooks included Ehri’s (2005) stages of reading: prealphabetic, partial alphabetic, full alphabetic, and consolidated alphabetic.

All five of the regular education textbooks recommended instructional strategies for alphabeticics. All five of the regular education textbooks stressed that modeling of reading skills and concepts during instruction is necessary. Four of the five regular education textbooks recommended word study, word sorts, and making words as instructional strategies for alphabeticics. Three of the five regular education textbooks recommended graphic organizers, word play, speaking/writing practice, word walls and language experience as instructional strategies for alphabeticics. Two of the five regular education textbooks recommended dramatizing, predicting vocabulary, vocabulary self-collection, wide reading, morphemic analysis, contextual analysis, environmental print, and word banks as instructional strategies for alphabeticics.

Only one of the five regular education textbooks recommended sesquipedalian words, labeling, read alouds, using a thesaurus, sight words, shared reading experience, using a dictionary, flip books, food relations, cube words, letter actions, tongue twisters, rimes in nursery rhymes, hink pinks, have-a-go, cloze, monitoring, and alphabetic sequence as instructional strategies for alphabeticics. None of the five regular textbooks recommended blending and
segmenting, my turn-your turn-together, multisensory techniques, game adaptations, word hunts, sentence creation, McNinch procedure, DISSECT, IT FITS, four blocks program, S-S-S, or every pupil response as instructional strategies for alphabets.

**Special Education Textbooks**

All five of the special education textbooks had a similar definition for phonics. Three of the five special education textbooks had a similar definition of phonics. Two of the special education textbooks did not clearly define phonics. Two of the five special education textbooks had a similar definition of phonemic awareness. Three of the special education textbooks mentioned the elements of phonics: consonants, vowels, onsets, and rimes. Only one of the special education textbooks included the stages of reading: prealphabetic, partial alphabetic, full alphabetic, and consolidated alphabetic.

Four of the five special education textbooks recommended instructional strategies for alphabets. One of the special education textbooks did not mention alphabets as an element of reading instruction; therefore, it did not recommend instructional strategies for this area. Four of the five special education textbooks stressed that modeling of reading skills and concepts during instruction is necessary. Three of the special education books recommended graphic organizers, contextual analysis, and using the dictionary as instructional strategies for alphabets. Two of the special education books recommended word study, word play, morphemic analysis, word walls, cloze, blending and segmenting, and game adaptations as instructional strategies for alphabets.

Only one of the special education textbooks recommended labeling, word sorts, language experience, making words, word banks, my turn-together-your turn, multisensory techniques, word hunts, sentence creation, McNinch procedure, DISSECT, IT FITS, four blocks program, S-
S-S, and every pupil response as instructional strategies for alphabets. None of the special education textbooks recommended dramatizing, sesquipedalian words, predicting vocabulary, vocabulary self-collection, wide reading, read alouds, speaking/writing practice, using a thesaurus, environmental print, shared reading experiences, flip books, food relations, cube words, letter actions, tongue twisters, rimes in nursery rhymes, hink pinks, have-a-go, and monitoring as instructional strategies for alphabets.

Analysis of Content by Fluency

The content of all 10 textbooks was analyzed for the inclusion of fluency as an important element of reading instruction (see Appendix B). Each textbook was read and the definition of fluency was recorded. Also, the instructional strategies that were recommended for fluency were recorded. Then, the number of regular education textbooks that included similar definitions for fluency was recorded (see Appendix C). Next, the number of regular education textbooks that included similar instructional strategies for fluency was recorded (see Appendix C). The same procedure was followed for the special education textbooks (see Appendix C).

Regular Education Textbooks

All five of the regular education textbooks had a similar definition for fluency. Two of the five regular education textbooks included automaticity and accuracy in the explanation of fluency. Only one of the regular education textbooks included prosody in the explanation of fluency.

All five of the regular education textbooks included recommendations of instructional strategies for reading fluency. Three of the five regular education textbooks recommended choral reading, modeling, repeated reading, and alternate reading as instructional strategies for reading
fluency. Two of the five regular education textbooks recommended paired reading, recorded books, and chunking/phrasing as instructional strategies for reading fluency.

Only one of the regular education textbooks recommended increased reading, reader’s theater, practice, peer tutoring, cross-age reading and sustained silent reading as instructional strategies for reading fluency. None of the regular education textbooks recommended round robins, SAFER, page racers, echo reading, neurological impress, scallop the text, sounding out, sight word reading, read alouds, guided reading, and easy reading as instructional strategies for reading fluency.

**Special Education Textbooks**

Four of the five special education textbooks had a similar definition for fluency. Three of the five special education textbooks included automaticity, accuracy, and prosody in the explanation of fluency. One of the special education textbooks did not address fluency as a component for teaching reading. Therefore, it did not give a definition of reading fluency or recommend instructional strategies for reading fluency.

Four of the five special education textbooks included recommendations of instructional strategies for reading fluency. Three of the five special education textbooks recommended choral reading, modeling, paired reading, repeated reading, and sustained silent reading as instructional strategies for reading fluency. Two of the special education textbooks recommended reader’s theater, echo reading, neurological impress, and guided reading as instructional strategies for reading fluency.

Only one of the five special education textbooks recommended recorded books, alternate reading, increased reading, chunking/phrasing, round robins, SAFER, page races, scallop the text, sounding out, sight word reading, read alouds, and easy reading as instructional strategies
for reading fluency. None of the special education textbooks recommended peer tutoring and cross-age reading as instructional strategies for reading fluency.

Analysis of Content by Reading Comprehension

The content of all 10 textbooks was analyzed for the inclusion of reading comprehension as an important element of reading instruction (see Appendix B). Each textbook was read and the definition of reading comprehension was recorded. Also, the instructional strategies that were recommended for reading comprehension were recorded. Then the number of regular education textbooks that included similar definitions for reading comprehension was recorded (see Appendix C). Next, the number of regular education textbooks that included similar instructional strategies for reading instruction was recorded (see Appendix C). The same procedure was followed for the special education textbooks (see Appendix C).

Regular Education Textbooks

All five of the regular education textbooks had a similar definition of reading comprehension and agreed that comprehension is the main purpose or goal of reading. Four of the five regular education textbooks mentioned the importance of the Schema Theory. One of the regular education textbooks included the Situation Model/Mental Model, reasoning and attention, three factors: the reader, the text, the purpose, and the subprocesses of comprehension.

All five of the regular education textbooks included recommendations of instructional strategies for reading comprehension. Four of the five regular education textbooks recommended discussions and graphic organizers as instructional strategies for reading comprehension. Three of the five regular education textbooks recommended prior knowledge, predicting, generating questions, checking/monitoring, repairing, DLTA/DRTA, K-W-L, and QAR as instructional strategies for reading comprehension. Two of the five regular education textbooks recommended
main idea, inferences, summarizing, sequencing, imaging, regulating, read alouds, collaborative response groups, reader’s theater, text structure/story grammar, QtA, modeling/think alouds, and story maps as instructional strategies for reading comprehension.

Only one of the regular education textbooks recommended setting purpose/goals, determining important ideas, following directions, repeated readings, retelling/rewriting, cloze, chunking, experience-text-relationship, choral reading, interactive writing, open-mind portraits, language play, ReQuest, and reciprocal teaching as instructional strategies. None of the regular education textbooks recommended Survey-Question-Recite-Review-Method, games, sentence comprehension-question words, reader’s workshop, ASK IT, or look backs as instructional strategies for reading comprehension.

Special Education Textbooks

Four of the five special education textbooks had a similar definition for reading comprehension. Three of the five special education textbooks agreed that comprehension is the main purpose or goal of reading. Only one of the special education textbooks included the Schema Theory, Situation/Mental Model, and the three factors of reading: the reader, the text, the purpose. None of the special education textbooks included reasoning and attention or the subprocesses of comprehension. One of the special education textbooks did not address reading comprehension as a component for teaching reading. Therefore, it did not give a definition of reading comprehension or recommend and instructional strategies for reading comprehension.

Four of the five special education textbooks included recommendations of instructional strategies for reading comprehension. Four of the five special education textbooks recommended summarizing as instructional strategy for reading comprehension. Three of the five special education textbooks recommended QAR and story maps as instructional strategies for reading
comprehension. Two of the five special education textbooks recommended main ideas, inferences, generating questions, checking/monitoring, DLTA/DRTA, K-W-L, read alouds, graphic organizers, collaborative response groups, ReQuest, reciprocal teaching, and games as instructional strategies for reading comprehension.

Only one of the five special education textbooks recommended prior knowledge, predicting, imaging, discussions, retelling/rewriting, chunking, text structure/story grammar, language play, modeling/think alouds, Survey-Question-Recite-Review-Method, sentence comprehension-question words, reader’s workshop, ASK IT, and look backs as instructional strategies for reading comprehension. None of the special education textbooks recommended setting purpose/goals, determining important details, sequencing, following directions, regulating, repairing, repeated readings, cloze, reader’s theater, experience-text-relationships, choral reading, interactive reading, open-mind portraits, and QtA as instructional strategies for reading comprehension.

Discussion of Results

A collection of 10 textbooks was analyzed in this study to answer the following question: What are the similarities and differences in the theories and strategies that regular education and special education pre-service teachers are being taught from these textbooks? The areas that were addressed during the analysis were theory/theories and models of reading, alphabetic, fluency, and reading comprehension. The consistency of the presence and similar representation of theory/theories and models of reading, alphabetic, fluency, and reading comprehension were analyzed. Also, recommendations of instructional strategies for alphabetic, fluency, and reading comprehension were reviewed. Only one of the textbooks did not address alphabetic, fluency,
and reading comprehension, as well as instructional strategies for each area, as major elements of reading instruction.

**Theories and Models**

In the area of theory/theories and models, there were 16 theories or models that were presented in the textbooks. The regular education textbooks had more consistency in theory/theories and models presented with 9 of the 16 theories or models being present in 60% or more of the regular education textbooks. The special education textbooks had only one concept (support of scripted lessons) that occurred in at least 60% of the special education textbooks. In comparison to the special education textbooks, the Cognitive Theory appeared 80% more often in the regular education textbooks. The Behaviorist Theory and Interactive Theory appeared 60% more often in the regular education textbooks. In comparison to the special education textbooks, the following concepts were presented 40% more often in the regular education textbooks: research by Piaget, research by Vygotsky, the need for multiple models, and whole language. The following concepts appeared 20% more often in the regular education textbooks: social interaction or language acquisition, and the Engagement Theory. The following concepts were presented in the special education books 20% more often than the regular education textbooks: explicit and systematic instruction, differentiated instruction, components of language, and stages of word learning.

**Alphabetics**

In the area of alphabetics portrayal, six concepts were reviewed. The regular education textbooks had more consistency with four of the six concepts being presented in at least 60% of the textbooks, whereas the special education textbooks had three of the six concepts being presented in at least 60% of the textbooks. The regular education textbooks had 100% agreement
on the definition of phonics and phonemic awareness and 80% agreement on the definition of vocabulary. The special education textbooks had 60%, 40% and 100% agreement on the same items respectively.

In the area of alphabets instructional strategies, 47 strategies were reviewed. The regular education textbooks had more consistency with 9 of the 47 strategies being presented in at least 60% of the textbooks, where as special education had 4 of the 47 strategies being presented in at least 60% of the textbooks. The following alphabetic strategies (includes strategies for phonemic awareness, phonics, and vocabulary) were recommended 60% more often in the regular education textbooks: word sorts, speaking/writing practice, and making words. The following alphabetic strategies were recommended 40% more often in the regular education textbooks: dramatizing, word study, predicting vocabulary, vocabulary self-collection, wide reading, environmental print, and language experience. The following alphabetic strategies were recommended 20% more often in the regular education textbooks: word play, sesquipedalian words, read alouds, using a thesaurus, contextual analysis, sight words, shared reading experiences, flip books, food relations, cube words letter actions, tongue twisters, rimes in nursery rhymes, hink pinks, word banks, have-a-go, modeling, and monitoring.

Graphic organizers at 60% and labeling at 20% were alphabetic instructional strategies that were recommended equally in the regular education and special education textbooks. The following strategies were recommended 40% more often in the special education textbooks: using the dictionary, blending and segmenting, and game adaptations. The following alphabetic strategies were recommended 20% more often in the special education textbooks: my turn-together-your turn, cloze, multisensory techniques, word hunts, sentence creation, McNinch procedure, DISSECT, IT FITS, four blocks program, S-S-S, and every pupil response.
Fluency

In the area of fluency portrayal, four concepts were reviewed. The special education textbooks had more consistency with all four of the concepts being presented in at least 60% of the textbooks, whereas the regular education textbooks had one of the four concepts being presented in at least 60% of the textbooks. The regular education textbooks had 100% agreement on the definition fluency, 40% agreement on automaticity and accuracy, and 20% agreement on prosody. One of the special education textbooks did not address fluency as an important element in reading instruction. The special education textbooks had 80% agreement on the definition of fluency, and 60% agreement on automaticity, accuracy, and prosody.

In the area of fluency instructional strategies, 24 strategies were reviewed. The special education textbooks had more consistency with 5 of the 24 fluency strategies being presented in at least 60% of the textbooks, whereas regular education had 4 of the 24 fluency strategies being presented in at least 60% of the textbooks. Choral reading at 60%, modeling at 60%, repeated reading at 60%, and increased reading at 20% were equally recommended in the regular education and special education textbooks. The following fluency strategies were presented 40% more often in the special education textbooks: reader’s theater, sustained silent reading, echo reading, neurological impress, and guided reading. Alternate reading was presented 40% more often in the regular education textbooks. The following fluency strategies were recommended 20% more often in the special education textbooks: paired reading, round robins, SAFER, page races, scallop the text, sounding out, sight word reading, read alouds, and easy reading. The following fluency strategies were recommended 20% more often in regular education textbooks: recorded books, chunking/phrasing, practice, peer tutoring and cross-age reading.
Reading Comprehension

In the area of reading comprehension portrayal, seven concepts were reviewed. The regular education textbooks had more consistency with three of the seven concepts being presented in at least 60% of the textbooks, whereas the special education textbooks had two of the seven concepts being presented in at least 60% of the textbooks. The regular education textbooks had 100% agreement on the definition reading comprehension and the idea that reading comprehension is the main goal or purpose for reading. Eight percent of the regular education textbooks were in agreement about the Schema Theory and 20% agreement about situation model/mental model, reasoning and attention, three factors (the reader, the text, the purpose) and the subprocesses of comprehension. One of the special education textbooks did not address reading comprehension as a major element of reading instruction. The special education textbooks had 80% agreement about the definition of reading comprehension; 60% for the main purpose of reading; 20% for the Schema Theory, Situation Model/Mental Model, and the three factors (the reader, the text, the purpose); and no mention of reasoning and attention and the subprocesses of comprehension.

In the area of reading comprehension instructional strategies, 43 strategies were reviewed. The regular education textbooks had more consistency with 10 of the 43 strategies being presented in at least 60% of the textbooks, whereas special education had 3 of the 43 strategies being presented in at least 60% of the textbooks. QAR at 60%, inferencing at 40%, collaborative response groups at 40%, retelling/rewriting at 20%, and questioning at 20% are strategies that were equally presented in regular and special education textbooks. Repairing was a comprehension strategy that was recommended 60% more often in the regular education textbooks than the special education textbooks. The following comprehension strategies were
recommended 40% more often in the regular education textbooks: prior knowledge, predicting, sequencing, regulating, discussions, graphic organizers, reader’s theater, and QtA. The following comprehension strategies were recommended 20% more often in the special education textbooks: setting purpose/goals, determining important details, following directions, imaging, generating questions, checking/monitoring, DLTA/DRTA, K-W-L, repeated readings, cloze, text structure/story grammar, experience-text-relationships, choral reading, interactive writing, open-mind portraits, and modeling/think alouds.

Summarizing and games were comprehension strategies that were recommended 40% more often in special education textbooks. The following comprehension strategies were recommended 20% more often in special education textbooks: ReQuest, reciprocal teaching, story maps, SQ3R, sentence comprehension-question words, reader’s workshop, ASK IT, and look backs.

Summary

Overall, in the areas of theory/theories and models, alphabatics, fluency, and reading comprehension, the regular education textbooks had more consistency than the special education textbooks in all areas except for fluency. Consistency is the presence and similar representation of theory/theories and models of reading, alphabatics, and reading comprehension were analyzed. In comparing the regular education textbooks and the special education books to each other in recommendations of instructional strategies, the regular education textbooks offered more instructional strategies and in depth explanations in the areas of alphabatics and reading comprehension. The special education textbooks offered more instructional strategies for fluency. While the special education textbooks did offer many instructional strategies for
alphabets and reading comprehension, many of the strategies were embedded in scripted lessons that were strongly emphasized by a majority of the texts.
CHAPTER V. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter provides a summary of the research study. Conclusions drawn from the research will be presented here, as well as recommendations. The following question was addressed in this study: What are the similarities and differences in the theories and strategies that regular education and special education pre-service teachers are being taught from these textbooks?

Summary

This study analyzed textbooks used to teach regular education and special education pre-service teachers about reading instruction to determine the similarities and differences in the portrayal of reading theory/theories and models, alphabetics, fluency, and reading comprehension, as well as recommended instructional strategies for alphabetics, fluency, and reading comprehension. In this study, alphabetics was a broad term used to include phonemic awareness, phonics, and vocabulary. Data were gathered using a content analysis. First, the textbooks were selected based on the main topic of the textbook being reading instruction, the two areas of pre-service teachers (five of the textbooks aimed toward regular education pre-service teachers and five of the textbooks targeted for special education pre-service teachers), recommendations from professors in the area of pre-service education from both regular education and special education, and the availability of the textbook.

The textbooks were then carefully read and reviewed. Data were collected from the 10 textbooks in the areas of theory/theories and models, alphabetics, fluency, and reading comprehension. A compilation of the data collected from all 10 textbooks is listed in Appendix B. The information was then analyzed and put into a chart dividing regular education and special education and showing how many, out of five, of the textbooks mentioned a particular theory,
definition, or instructional strategy. The chart in Appendix C was used to analyze the data and determine the similarities and differences in the pre-service textbooks used to teach reading instruction to regular education teachers and special education teachers.

Conclusions

Learning to read is a critical skill that students need. Therefore, quality reading instruction is crucial. To have quality reading instruction, it is necessary that the process of reading is understood. Casper, Catton, Westfall, and College (1998), suggest that reading theories and models help us to understand the process of reading and better allow us to engage in creating quality reading instruction. Theories and models are not the only things that are important in reading instruction. According to the NICHD (2000), alphabetics, fluency, and reading comprehension are key elements for the instruction of reading. In this study, textbooks used in pre-service education programs for regular education and special education were analyzed to determine how pre-service teachers are being taught to teach reading through portrayal of reading theories and models, alphabetics, fluency, and reading comprehension and their respective instructional strategies.

Data showed that the regular education textbooks in comparison to the special education textbooks were more consistent, or included the presence of and similar representation more often, in their portrayal of theory/theories and models, alphabetics, and reading comprehension as well as in inclusion of instructional strategies for alphabetics and reading comprehension. The special education textbooks, in comparison to the regular education textbooks were more consistent in their portrayal of fluency and in inclusion of instructional strategies for fluency. When the concepts and instructional strategies included in the regular education textbooks were compared to the concepts and instructional strategies included in the special education textbooks
the data suggested that the concepts and instructional strategies were included in more of the regular education textbooks. This information supports the idea that regular education pre-service teachers and special education pre-service teachers are not receiving the same instruction, through textbooks, on how to teach reading.

The theory/theories and models of reading that were presented in the regular education textbooks, for the most part, were also presented in the special education textbooks. However, the theory/theories and models in the regular education textbooks were present more consistently throughout all of the regular education textbooks in comparison to the special education textbooks. Casper, Catton, Westfall, and College (1998) suggest three main theories for reading: Schema Theory, Mental Model Theory, and Proposition Theory. Data demonstrated that these three theories were not often presented to explain the overall process of reading. Instead these three theories were most often presented to explain the process of reading comprehension. Dombey (1999) suggested that the bottom-up and top-down models of reading explain two different methods to approach reading instruction. Only 60% of the regular education textbooks and 40% of the regular education textbooks directly mentioned the bottom-up and top-down models of reading instruction. Dombey suggested that the interactive model of reading is a combination of the bottom-up and top-down models of reading. All of the regular education textbooks presented the interactive model of reading and 40% of the special education textbooks presented the interactive model.

Research done by Piaget and Vygotsky and the need for multiple models of reading instruction were stressed in regular education textbooks, whereas the special education textbooks did not stress those elements, instead there appeared to be a lack of explicit explanations of reading theory/theories or models. However, many of the special education textbooks implicitly
presented reading theory/theories and models. If a pre-service teacher using one of the special education textbooks had prior knowledge of reading theory/theories and models then he/she might be able to locate the implied theories. However, from the perspective of a pre-service teacher who has no prior knowledge of how to teach reading the reading instruction explanations and methods presented may appear as to be without a solid foundation of research support. The textbooks used for special education pre-service teachers are giving the pre-service teachers an explanation of how to teach reading without giving them a clear understanding as to why they should be teaching reading in that particular manner. This supports the idea that regular education pre-service teachers are receiving more explicit information about research and theory supporting reading instruction and the need for multiple models of reading instruction than are special education pre-service teachers.

The portrayal of alphabetics (which includes phonemic awareness, phonics, and vocabulary) that was presented in the regular education textbooks demonstrated more consistency than the portrayal of alphabetics in the special education textbooks. One of the special education books did not address phonemic awareness and phonics as major elements in reading instruction. The NICHD (2000) stated that phonics is a good skill for readers to learn to utilize, however it is a skill that should be taught in conjunction with fluency and reading comprehension. All five of the regular education textbooks supported this notion, where as only 60% of the special education textbooks supported this notion.

The recommended instructional strategies for alphabetic instruction were also more consistent among the regular education textbooks in comparison to the special education textbooks. The instructional strategy that was most often recommended by both the special education textbooks and the regular education textbooks was modeling. The instructional
strategies most often recommended by the regular education textbooks were making words, word sorts, and word study. The instructional strategies most often recommended by the special education textbooks were graphic organizers, using the dictionary, and contextual analysis. This demonstrates the idea that regular education pre-service teachers are receiving different instructional strategies for alphabets.

The portrayal of fluency was the one area in which the special education textbooks were more consistent than the regular education textbooks. However, one of the special education textbooks did not address fluency as a major element of reading instruction and therefore did not include recommended instructional strategies for this element. The recommended instructional strategies for fluency instruction were also more consistent among the special education textbooks in comparison to the regular education textbooks. Rasinski (2006) suggested that paired reading, echo reading, Reader’s Theater, and choral reading are instructional strategies that improve reading fluency. Only one of these instructional strategies was frequently recommended in the textbooks. Choral reading, repeated reading, and modeling were three instructional strategies most often recommended by both the special educational textbooks and the regular educational textbooks. In comparison to the other elements reviewed, fluency was the area that the regular education textbooks and special education textbooks appeared to be the most similar.

The portrayal of reading comprehension was more consistent in the regular education textbooks in comparison to the special education textbooks. All of the regular education textbooks had similar definitions of reading comprehension and agreed that reading comprehension is the main goal or purpose for reading. The special education textbooks were more varied in their definitions. One of the special education textbooks did not include reading
comprehension as a major element of reading instruction and therefore did not include instructional strategies for reading comprehension.

Cunningham and Shagoury (2005) identify five reading comprehension strategies that are a little more precise: (a) creating mental images, (b) asking questions, (c) determining importance, (e) inferring, and (f) synthesizing. The instructional strategies most often recommended by the regular education textbooks were graphic organizers and discussions. The instructional strategies most often recommended by the special education textbooks were summarizing and story maps. As was the case for instructional strategies for alphabetics, this demonstrates the idea that regular education pre-service teachers are receiving different instructional strategies for reading comprehension.

Overall, this study shows that pre-service regular education teachers and pre-service special education teachers are receiving different instruction, through textbooks, about reading instruction. This shows that these two groups of teachers are receiving different background knowledge about reading instruction as well as different messages about how to teach reading to students. The message given to special education pre-service teachers through the textbooks is that it is necessary to use prescribed scripts in order to teach reading. These scripts are step by step instructions that tell the teacher exactly what to say to the students and what response to except from the students. There is also a particular order in which to use the scripts in order to best teach the students. Given these scripts a teacher could teach students the necessary skills for reading. However, there is an apparent lack of choice that is given to the pre-service special education teachers in the special education textbooks. The scripted lessons are provided to help the teachers learn how to instruct reading, but often the special education textbooks did not present other instructional options. Without a variety of instructional options for special
educators to choose from, it seems quite difficult to effectively meet the diverse needs of students in the special education program.

The message given to regular education pre-service teachers through textbooks is completely opposite from that of the special education textbooks. The regular education textbooks present pre-service teachers with a variety of options of how to instruct reading. Many of the regular education textbooks are specific in the order in which to introduce certain reading skill. However, they then give the pre-service teacher a variety of instructional strategies and the freedom to choose the strategy that he or she thinks is most appropriate to teach that particular skill.

Both groups of teachers should receive a solid foundation of how to create quality reading instruction. However, that does not seem to be what is being presented in the textbooks used in pre-service education. To some degree this can be a good thing because regular education teachers have a different job description in comparison to special education teachers. However, this can also cause conflict or misunderstanding when regular education teachers and special education teachers try to come together to teach reading to students because both groups of teachers do not have the same core knowledge about reading instruction.

Currently, pre-service special education teachers are given implicit reading theories and limited examples of how to teach reading and pre-service regular education teachers are given explicit reading theories and a variety of examples of how to teach reading. Not only are the messages given to the regular education pre-service teachers and special education pre-service teachers different, they appear to be backwards. Both groups of teacher should receive a similar foundation of how to teach reading that involves precise and limited instructional strategies. The pre-service special educators, not the regular pre-service educators, should be the ones that are
presented with the variety of instructional strategies so that they can meet the needs of all the
students that are in the special education program.

Recommendations

To become certified to teach, individuals must complete a pre-service program in which
they learn more about their profession. Currently, in the area of reading instruction, regular
education and special education pre-service teachers are being taught differently, through
textbooks, about how to instruct students learning to read.

Recommendations for Teachers

All teachers should be knowledgeable about the theories and models of reading, the key
elements of reading instruction, and instructional strategies for reading instruction. Teachers
should work towards better educating themselves about how best to teach students how to read.
Teachers need to be aware that the pre-service reading programs for regular educators and
special educators are different. While, there are some similarities among what is taught to each
group of educators, there are quite a few differences and it is important for both groups of
teachers to become aware of these similarities and differences in the knowledge that they have
gained about reading instruction. Coming to an understanding about what each group of teachers,
regular education and special education, brings to the table of reading instruction can be of great
benefit to the students because more successful collaboration among regular education teachers
and special education teachers could be fostered.

Recommendations for Administrators

Administers need to be aware that there are differences in what regular education
teachers and special education teachers are being taught about reading instruction in their pre-
service programs. Understanding that regular education teachers and special education teachers
have different background knowledge about reading instruction will allow for administrators to work towards the goal of bringing these two groups of teachers towards a common understanding of reading instruction. Administrators should create opportunities for regular education teachers and special educations teachers to work together, in and out of the classroom, with the goal being that these two groups of teachers educate each other about reading instruction. Teachers should have time to collaborate about reading instruction.

Recommendations for Teacher Educators

Teacher educators should be aware that currently, pre-service reading programs for regular education and special education teachers are not consistent with each other. Teacher educators should be aware that currently the reading instruction information presented in the textbooks used for pre-service regular education teachers offers a great freedom of choice among strategies and instructional methods. Therefore, the teacher educators may need to supplement the text with exact examples of how to choose appropriate strategies as well as how to implement them.

Teacher educators should also be aware that currently the reading instruction information presented in the textbooks used for pre-service special education teachers lacks explicit explanations of theory and limited instructional methods. The teacher educators may need to supplement the text with explicit explanations as to why particular reading instruction methods are chosen and the research that supports them. Also, the special education pre-service teachers will need to be exposed to more of a variety of instructional reading strategies so that they have the necessary tools to adapt instruction for students with special needs. It would be beneficial for teacher educators for regular education and special education to collaborate in an effort to make the two pre-service programs more similar than they are different. This would allow regular
education and special education teachers to have similar background knowledge when it came to collaboration dealing with reading instruction.

Recommendations for Further Research

Further research may be beneficial to determine the similarities and differences that appear in the courses that pre-service educators must complete. It may be beneficial to determine if the way that an instructor chooses to use a selected text affects the way that the pre-service teachers learn to teach reading.

Summary

“The more that you read, the more things you will know. The more that you learn, the more places you will go,” (Dr. Seuss). This quote states things quite simply. It is important that we learn to read to learn and the more that we learn the more success we will have in life. The ability to read is a critical skill that must be taught to students. Both regular education teachers and special education educators play a large role in teaching students to read. These two groups of teachers need to be able to work together to best meet the needs of all students.
REFERENCES


APPENDIX A:

Reading Instruction Textbooks
Regular Education Textbooks


Special Education Textbooks


APPENDIX B:

Data Collection
Theory/theories and/or models of reading portrayed:

- **Reading** - A process in which we construct meaning from print
- **Holistic** - Refers to the practice of learning through the completion of whole tasks rather than fragmented sub-skills and fragments of reading and writing
- **Bottom-up approach** - Refers to a kind of processing in which meaning is derived from accurate, sequential processing of words. The emphasis is on text rather than the reader’s background knowledge or language ability
- **Top-down approach** - Refers to deriving meaning by using one’s background knowledge, language ability, and expectations. The emphasis is on the reader rather than the text
- **Interactionists** - Hold the theoretical position that reading involves processing text using one’s background knowledge and language ability.
- **Developing Language** - interacting components: phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, prosody, pragmatics. (2)
- **Cognitive Development** - Piaget believed direct experience rather than language was the key determiner of cognitive development. Assimilation and accommodation are key processes. Vygotsky believed in the zone of proximal development and scaffolding. (4)
- It is important to be aware of multiple models of teaching reading so that you can form your own personal beliefs about reading instruction.
- This textbook draws heavily on research in cognitive psychology, combines an interactionist point of view with a holistic orientation, and takes an integrated approach.

Definition/Description of alphabatics (phonics, phonemic awareness, and vocabulary):

- **Phonics** - Is the study of speech sounds related to reading. Phonics skills are absolutely essential for all readers. (158)
- **Phonemic awareness** - Is the ability to detect rhyme and beginning sounds, ability to hear separate sounds in words
- **Vocabulary** - To be proficient readers students must build their vocabularies and learn strategies for coping with difficult words. (232)
- There are two main approaches to teaching phonics: analytic and synthetic. (165)
- **Analytic** - This approach involves the studying of sounds within the context of the whole word so that /w/ is referred to as the sound heard at the beginning of wagon. (165)
- **Synthetic** - This approach refers to saying a word sound by sound and then synthesizing the sounds into words. This can also be known as explicit phonics. (166)
- **Stages in Reading Words** - Prealphabet, partial alphabetic, full alphabetic, consolidated alphabetic (159)
- **Phonics Elements** - consonants, vowels, onsets and rimes (165)

Recommended strategies for alphabatics:

- **Graphic Organizers** - semantic maps, pictorial map, webs, semantic feature analysis, venn diagram. (235)
- **Dramatizing** - Putting words in the context of simple skits adds interest and reality. (239)
- **Exploring Word Histories** - It sheds light on their meanings and helps students remember them better and longer. (240)
- **Enjoying Words** - word play, crossword puzzles, riddles (241)
- **Sesquipedalian Words** - The ultimate aim is to have students become lifetime collectors of long and interesting words. (243)
- **Word of the Day** - Begin the day with a new word. Practice reading, writing, and speaking the word. Establish the meaning of the word. (243)
• **Labeling**- Helps students visualize words. Labeling provides greater depths of meaning to words by offering at least second hand experience and in some instances helps illustrate relationships. (243)
• **Feature Comparison**- Compare major meanings between words. (244)
• **Using Word-Building Reference Books**- Dictionaries are only one source. Encourage the use of encyclopedias so that students eventually refer to it or other suitable references independently to clarify difficult words. (244)
• **Predicting Vocabulary Words**- predict-o-gram, possible sentences (244)
• **Word Sorts**- Useful activity when dealing with groups of related words. Sorting forces students to think about each word and to see similarities and differences among words. After sorting students should discuss why they sorted them the way they did. (246)
• **Vocabulary Self-Collection Strategy**- Student chooses a word to learn that is of importance to him/her. The teacher also selects a word. Students record the printed sentences or oral context in which they covered the word. Students also tell what they think the word means in the context in which it is found and explain why they think the class should learn the word. Teacher should serve as a model and responsibility should be instilled in the students. (246)
• **Wide Reading**- The most productive method for building vocabulary. Encourage wide reading of varied materials. (247)
• **Reading to Students**- Read-aloud books are better sources of new words for students in the early grades than are the books they read silently. (247)
• **Speaking and Writing**- In-depth study of words and multiple exposures will help students attain sufficient understanding of words and how they are sued so they will be able to employ them in their speech and writing. (249)
• **Using a Thesaurus**- Excellent tool to help students us a greater range of vocabulary by seeking out and using synonyms. (249)
• **Introducing New Words**- At a minimum, introduction of new words should include a definition of the word, the use of the word in sentence or story context, an activity that relates the word to other words being introduced, and an activity that relates the word to the students’ background. (250)
• **Special Features of a Word**- homophones, homographs, figurative language, multiple meanings (253)
• **Learning How to Learn Words**- morphemic analysis, contextual analysis, dictionary usage (255)
• **Initial Consonant**- Instruction typically begins with initial consonant instruction. Introduction of initial consonant. Use children’s books to reinforce the initial consonant. Sorting beginning consonant sounds. Sorting forces children to analyze the elements in the word or picture and select critical features as they place the words or pictures in piles. Consonant Letter sound relationships.(167)
• **Final Consonants**- Handled in similar fashion as initial consonants. Relate them to initial consonant knowledge. (174)
• **Consonant Clusters**- Many of the strategies used for single consonants can be used for clusters. The most difficult letters are c and g. Teach students to deal with variability in letters and sounds.
• **Vowels**- Are taught in the same way as consonants. The main difference is that vowels can be spoken in isolation without isolation.
• **Word-Building Approach**- Onsets and rimes are patterns that help students learn. Methods for this approach: application through reading, rhymes, word wall, secret messages, secret word, making words. (177)
### Definition/Description of fluency:
- **Fluency**: Freedom from word identification problems that might hinder comprehension in silent reading or the expression of ideas in oral reading.
- **Automaticity**: Refers to a task that can be performed without attention or conscious effort.
- **Accuracy**: Being able to pronounce or sound out a word and also knowing the word’s meaning.
- **Fluency instruction**: Seems to work because it increases the amount of reading that students do.

### Recommended strategies for fluency:
- **Choral reading**: Involves two or more people, but can take many forms. In unison reading, the whole group reads together. In refrain reading, the leader reads most of the text and the group reads the refrain. In antiphonal reading, two or more groups alternate. This can be a whole-class or small-group activity. It is an excellent way to foster fluency and expression in reading.
- **Modeled techniques**: Model the process of smooth, expressive reading. Model how to read in phrases, how you use your voice to express the author’s meaning, and how you read at a pace that listeners can keep up with but that isn’t too fast.
- **Paired reading**: Also known as Duolog Reading, can be effective for oral fluency. A more proficient reader teams up with a student. The student picks the text to be read that is too difficult for the student to read on his/her own. The two read the book together aloud and simultaneously. When the student feels he/she can read on his/her own he/she raises his right hand. The other reader continues to assist as needed. An alternate version of this method is to have the readers take turns reading.
- **Repeated readings**: Help students achieve accuracy and rapid recognition of high-frequency words. Five steps for repeated readings: (1) Introducing Repeated Readings (2) Selecting a Passage (3) Obtaining and Initial Timing (4) Rereading (5) Evaluating the Reading.
- **Recorded book method**: This helps students recognize words automatically and to improve their phrasing. Have the students read along as a selection is being read aloud. When a student is reading along to a recording it should be at a pace at or slightly faster than the speed at which the student can read independently. A good pace is about 80 to 100 words per minute and recordings should be about five to ten minutes in length. The recording should give the title, the author, and an overview of the purpose for listening. Students should be encouraged to listen to the tape enough times that they are able to read the passage on their own. After reading it on their own, they should not difficult parts and listen to the recording again focusing on the difficult areas. This activity can be done individually or with a partner.
- **CD-ROM Fluency read alongs**: There are reading software programs that allow students to read aloud and then hear the read aloud from the cd. After the students have had a chance to listen to the recording and practice with following along they are able to record their own read aloud. They are then able to compare their own read alouds to the professional read aloud on the cd.
- **Alternate reading**: In this method, the reader and the teacher (parent or tutor) take turns reading the passage. In the beginning the teacher reads most of the passage and the student reads words or phrases that he/she recognizes. Larger portions can be read by the student as he/she improves. The teacher should help the student as needed with difficult words or by giving prompts.
- **Increasing the amount of reading**: Fluency is most effectively fostered by increasing the amount of reading that students do.

### Definition/Description of reading comprehension:
- **Comprehension**: The main purpose of reading.
- **Comprehension**: A constructive, interactive process involving three factors. The three factors are the reader, the text, and the context in which the text is read. All three factors must be taken into account in order for comprehension to improve.
- **Schema theory**: Describes how familiar situations are understood. (276)
- **Situation model** - Also known as a mental model. It views comprehension as a process of building and maintaining a model of situations and events described in text. It describes how new situations are understood. (277)
- **Reasoning** - It is a key component in comprehension. Comprehension relies heavily on the ability to use background information to make inferences. (278)
- **Attention** - A factor in comprehension. The construction of meaning is hindered if the student is not actively and purposefully reading. (278)
- **Comprehension development** - As a student’s background knowledge increases his/her comprehension ability improves. Explicit and concrete comprehension instruction is recommended for young children. (278)

**Recommended strategies for reading comprehension:**

- **Four main areas of reading comprehension strategies**:
  - **Preparational** (previewing, activating prior knowledge, setting purpose and goals, predicting)
  - **Organizational** (comprehending the main idea, determining important details, organizing details, following directions, summarizing)
  - **Elaboration** (making inferences, imaging, generating questions, evaluation)
  - **Metacognitive** (regulating, checking, repairing) (280)
- **Activating Prior Knowledge** - Students need to be aware about what it is that they know about a subject, because comprehension is about relating the unknown to the known. The process of activating prior knowledge should be modeled by the teacher. Prior knowledge can often be activated through questions from the reader asking questions of himself/herself or from the teacher. (280)
- **Setting Purpose and Goals** - The purpose for reading is the question that the reader wants to answer or the information the reader is seeking. The goal for reading is the outcome the reader is seeking: to gain information, to prepare for a test, to learn how to put a toy together, to relax, etc. (281)
- **Predicting** - It activates readers’ schemata because predictions are made on the basis of prior knowledge. This strategy should be taught even before children can read on their own. Students should be encouraged to make predictions, even if their predictions are not correct they are important to the process. Two important prediction questions are: What do you think will happen? Why do you think so? (281)
- **Comprehending the Main Idea** - Deriving the main idea is at the core of constructing meaning from text as it provides a framework for organizing, understanding, and remembering the essential details. (282)
- **Determining Important Details** - Use textual clues and text structure to determine important details. Also use schemata or background knowledge. They use their belief about the author’s intention to determine important details. (289)
- **Sequencing** - Because some details have to be comprehended and then remembered in a certain order, readers must organize them sequentially. (291)
- **Following Directions** - It is a natural outgrowth of sequencing. Reading directions remind students to make use of cue words such as first, next and last. (292)
- **Summarizing** - The most effective comprehension strategy of all. Summarization builds on the organization strategy of determining main ideas and supporting details, improves comprehension and increases retention. Helps students understand the structure of the text. This is a complex skill that takes years to develop. (293)
- **Making Inferences** - Children have the cognitive ability to draw inferences, however some do not do so spontaneously. Two types of inferences: schema-based (allow the reader to elaborate on the text by adding information that has been implied by the author) and text based (requires putting together two or more pieces of information from the text). QAR- is a strategy that can help reinforce inferences. (295)
- **Imaging** - Creating images serves three functions: fostering understanding, retaining information, and monitoring for meaning. Students should create images based on their backgrounds, teachers
should not alter students images but may suggest that students reread a section, students should be given sufficient time to form images, teachers should encourage students to elaborate on or expand their image through careful questioning. (301)

- **Generating Questions**: Transforms the reader from passive observer to active participant. Encourages the reader to set purposes for reading and to note important segments of text so that questions can be asked about them and possible answers considered. ReQuest—one of the simplest and most effective devices for getting children to create questions or reciprocal questioning.

- **Regulating**: The students know what to read and how to read it and is ale to put that knowledge to use. The student is aware of the structure of the text and how this might be used to aid comprehension. (304)

- **Checking**: The student is able to evaluate his or her performance. He or she is aware when comprehension suffers because an unknown term is interfering with meaning or an idea is confusing. Involves noting whether the focus is on important, relevant information and engaging in self-questioning to determine whether goals are being achieved. (305)

- **Repairing**: The student takes corrective action when comprehension falters. Is aware that there is a problem in understanding the text and does something about it. Strategies for repairing: rereading sentence, reading through to the end, rereading the preceding section, skim to find important details, slow down or adjust reading speed, consult map diagram photo or chart, use glossary or dictionary, consult references. (305)
Theory/theories and models of reading portrayed:

- This book incorporates the work of philosophers, educators, psychologists, and researchers who have described how young children learn. Reflects a balanced approach toward literacy development in early childhood. The main emphasis is development of literacy through teaching language and listening, reading, and writing in coordination with other content areas across the curriculum. (3)

- 1700s-1800s theory and philosophy- Rousseau suggested that a child’s early education be natural and not forced. Education follows child’s development and reading readiness. The role of the educator is to use strategies that mesh with the child’s readiness to learn and that require as little intervention by an adult as possible. Pestalozzi was influenced by Rousseau, but developed principles of learning that involved natural learning elements with informal instruction. He believed a child developed through sensory manipulative experiences. Froebel was best known for emphasizing the importance of play in learning. He saw the teacher as the designer and facilitator of activities. Designed a systematic curriculum for students involving objects and materials that he called gifts and occupations. (4)

- 20th Century- Dewey had similar views as Froebel. His ideas led to the concept of the child centered curriculum, or progressive education. He believed curriculum should be based on the children’s interests. Montessori did not follow the beliefs of the previous researchers and believed in the use of the senses to promote learning. She supported children educating themselves by using manipulatives and self-correcting materials. This was known as auto-education. Piaget’s theory of cognitive development has had a particularly strong impact on early childhood education. He recognized that children at certain stages are capable of only certain types of intellectual endeavors. He did not support Montessori. Vygotsky’s general theory of intellectual development has implications for learning. He believes that mental functions are acquired through social relationships. (5)

- 1900-1950s practices- Little attention was paid to literacy development before a child entered school. Maturation was considered the most important factor of learning to read. Morphett and Washburne suggested that a child with the mental age of six years and six months made better progress on reading achievement than did younger students. Testing gained popularity in the 30-40s. This testing helped educators determine if the student was mature enough to read. Reading readiness developed. Instruction based on reading readiness implies that one prepares for literacy by acquiring a set of prescribed skills that are taught systematically and assuming that all children are on a similar developmental level. (9)

- 1960-1980s- Reading readiness was challenged arguing that the typical literacy curriculum with its progression from part to whole and its hierarchy of skills did not reflect the way children learn to read. (10)

- Oral language development- Although language acquisition is based somewhat on developmental maturity, much of the research concluded that children play an active role in their acquisition of language by constructing language. Children who are constantly exposed to an environment rich in language and who interact with adults using language in a social context develop more facility with oral language than children lacking these opportunities. Findings from research on language acquisition motivated similar research on reading and writing. (11)

- Literacy development in the home- Studies were done about how children learned to read without direct instruction before coming to school. Such homes provide rich reading environments that include books and other reading materials. Family members serve as role models and are supportive and interactive in the learning to read process. (11)

- Development of early reading- Goodman found that some kindergarteners already knew certain things necessary for reading. Her work concerned children’s awareness of environmental print in
familiar contexts and suggests literacy-rich environments can make learning to read as natural as language acquisition. Others look at reading from a developmental point of view and studied children’s knowledge and acquisition of the function, form, and structure of print. They advocate early instruction in reading, but not instruction that emulates that of first grade practice. (12)

- **Whole Language Movement** - Whole language advocates support the natural approaches to learning fostered by Rousseau, Pestalozzi, and Froebel. Also influenced by Dewey, Piaget, and Vygotsky. Definition of Whole language given by Bergeron: “Whole language is a concept that embodies both a philosophy of language development as well as the instructional approaches embedded within, and supportive of, that philosophy. This concept includes the use of real literature and writing in the context of meaningful, functional, and cooperative experiences in order to develop in students’ motivation and interest in the process of learning.” (14)

- **Integrating the Language Arts with Thematic Instruction** - Literacy is not taught as a subject, but as a mechanism for learning in general. Literacy becomes meaningful when it is consciously embedded into the study of themes and content area subjects. (16)

- **Explicit Instruction and a Constructivist Approach: Phonics and Whole Language** - Research has suggested that there is not one best method of instruction for all children. (17)

- **Balanced Approach** - There is no one single method or single combination of methods that can successfully teach all children to read. That is why teachers must have a strong knowledge of multiple methods for teaching reading and a strong knowledge of the children in their care so they can create the appropriate balance of methods needed for the children they teach. A balanced approach includes careful selection of the best theories available and use of learning strategies from those theories to match the learning styles of individual children to help them learn to read. (18)

- **Behaviorist Theory** - Adults provide a model and children learn through imitation encouraged by positive reinforcement. (393)

- **Social Interaction and Language Acquisition** - Gaining language through social interaction and the impact of a social environment on the acquisition of language. (94)

- **Nativist Theory** - Language is an innate part of all humans, we are born with language. (94)

- **Piaget and Vygotsky Theory** - Cognitive theory and zone of proximal development. (94)

**Definition/Description of alphabetics (phonics, phonemic awareness, and vocabulary):**

- **Phonics** - A strategy that involves learning the alphabetic principles of language and knowledge of letter-sound relationships. Children learn to associate letters with the phonemes or basic speech sounds of English, to help them break the alphabetic code and become independent readers in the pronunciation of words. (394)

- **Phonemic awareness** - Knowing that words are composed of sequence of spoken sounds that have no isolated meaning and being able to hear those sounds. Segmented out of a word and blended together. (394)

- **Word Study Skills** - Involves learning strategies that will help children figure out words and become independent readers. Use of context and syntax, the development of sight vocabulary, the use of the configuration or the shape of a word, and structural analysis. (240)

**Recommended strategies for alphabetics:**

- **Word Study Direct Instruction** - Lessons need to teach the skill as a strategy for children to use. (1) Explanation and rationale for children by letting them know what is being taught and why it is being taught (2) Models and demonstrates how to use the skill (3) Gives students the opportunity to practice the skill taught (4) Encourages students to apply the skills. (243)

- **Using Environmental Print** - Children as young as two can read familiar environmental print. However, others say that a child often is reading the sign rather than its print. The ability to read environmental print also gives the child a sense of accomplishment and usually elicits positive
reinforcement of the child’s achievement by caring adults. Fill your room with environmental print. Refer to the labels often so the children identify them as useful and functional. (244)

- **Very Own Words**- A method for developing sight vocabulary. Children write their favorite words from a story or content-are lesson on three-by-five cards, each word on a separate card and stored in a child’s file box. Encourage students to do things with their words—read them to friends or to themselves, copy them, dictate them to the teacher, and use them in sentences or stories. (247)

- **High Frequency Words as Sight Words**- Often taught in a systematic and explicit manner. A few words to learn each week. The following activities can be used: words are said aloud and used in sentences, the sentence is written on a chalkboard or flip chart and the sight word is underlined, features of each word such as the letters or its similarity to other words are discussed, spell the word aloud and spell the word in the air with finger and write the word on a paper, chant the letters as they spell words, words can be written on index cards. (249)

- **Word Wall**- Has the letters of the alphabet posted across the wall and high frequency words are featured as they are pasted under the letter where they belong. The words can be used in word play games. To ensure that children are acquiring sight recognition of high-frequency words, they should be tested in their ability to read them. (250)

- **Language Experience Approach**- Helps children associate oral language with written language, teaching them specifically that what is said can be written down and read. It illustrates the left-to-right progression of our written language. Based on the following ideas: (1) what I think is important (2) what I think, I can say (3) what I say can be written down by me or by others (4) what is written down can be read by me and by others. (251)

- **Context and Pictures to Figure Out Words**- Select a predictable story in which the text and pictures are closely related. Ask children to look at the pictures on a page before reading it to them. Ask them what they think the words will say. Encourage the students to use the syntax and semantics of a sentence to help children to identify words. (254)

- **Identifying Letters of the Alphabet**- Need to learn the alphabet to become independently fluent readers and writers. Allow children to explore letters by using manipulative materials available in the literacy center. Supply alphabet books and taped songs about the alphabet. Systematic teaching of the alphabet is not as successful as teaching children letters that are meaningful to them. (255)

- **Phonics Sequence** - There is a recommended sequence, but teacher should take advantage of teachable moments even if not in recommended sequence. Usually begin with initial consonant sounds and then the same consonants at the end of a word. Next deal with short vowels, then long vowels, consonant blends, consonant digraphs, and some structural aspects of words. (259)

- **Meaning-Based Strategies** - The following steps can be used in a theme unit with a particular letter: (1) read a story and point out words with the letter (2) make word charts using words from the books that begin with the letter (3) on a trip to the zoo look for the letter (4) make lists of animals that begin with the letter (5) read another book and look for the letter (6) collect sensory items with the letter (7) list words from the unit that begin with the letter (8) write an experience chart to activities during the unit using the letter (9) add to Very Own Words (10) make a collage (11) a song using the letter (12) make nonsense rhymes (13) writing practice with the letter (14) write about the experience using the letter. (259)

- **Explicit Word-Study Activities**- The brain looks for known patterns when involved in learning. It takes what is known and tries to apply it to the unknown. Patterns such as familiar word endings help children deal with the unknown. (261)

- **Making Words**- Game like activity in which children learn to look for patterns in words and how to make new words by changing one letter or more. (261)

- **Word Sorts**- After making words, they can be sorted in many different ways for teachers can provide works for sorting. Sorting words by rhymes, beginnings, blends, digraphs, numbers of syllable, and meaning. (261)

- **Word Study Centers**- A center contains materials for word study, such as making and sorting
Definition/Description of fluency:
- **Fluency**- Level of reading ease and ability; a fluent reader is able to read on or above level books independently with high comprehension and accuracy. (393)

Recommended strategies for fluency:
- The strategies recommended for fluency were interwoven with the ones recommended for phonics, phonemic awareness, and vocabulary. The text took the position that if phonics and vocabulary were improved then fluency would also improve.

Definition/Description of reading comprehension:
- **Comprehension**- An active process whereby a reader interprets and constructs meaning about the text based on prior knowledge and experience. (393)
- A major goal for reading instruction and it is an active process. (205)
- Schema theory and schemata (206)

Recommended strategies for reading comprehension:
- **Favorite storybook readings**- This can be used to study emergent reading behaviors. Students age two to six attempt to read their favorite storybook. Based on their attempts to read the story assessments can be made about reading development and emergent reading can be encouraged. (208)
- **Directed Listening and Thinking Activity (DLTA) and Directed Reading and Thinking Activity (DRTA)**- The following process is for both DLTA and DRTA, however the difference is in one the students listen to the story and in the other the students read the story. (1) Prepare with Prequestions and Discussion: Build background by introducing the story, ask prequestions to build additional background information, and have students think on their own about more prequestions (2) Reading the Story: Show pictures as the story is read, stop for discussion, model/scaffold responses, and make predictions (3) Discussion After Reading: Guided by purposes/objectives set for reading, students retell the story using pictures as necessary, and make inferences. (211)
- **K-W-L**- Cognitive strategy used mainly with expository text, and can be adapted for use with stories. What we know, What we want to know, What we Learned. (211)
- **Productive Discussions**- Talking about what is read or listened to with children interacting with each other and the teacher. Must include more than a few words by participants and include questions, clarification, explanations, predictions, and justifications. Questions should reflect the teachers interest in the children’s thoughts and not the correct answers. (212)
- **Small-Group and One-to-One Story Readings**- Include parents in this strategy and have them read to their children. In the classroom remember to introduce the story and provide background information. (213)
- **Shared Book Experiences**- Usually a whole group approach, but can be done in small groups. Enables children to participate in the reading of a book. Helps develop listening skills for children must listen attentively to participate. Predictable books and Big books are suggested. This experience can also include children in dramatization of the story or other activities that extend the experience. (218)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Repeated Story Readings</td>
<td>Being familiar with an experience is comfortable. Responses to the story become more interpretive, and they begin to predict outcomes and make more associations, judgments, and make more elaborative comments. This activity is important because students will often engage in it on their own. (219)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Story Retelling and Rewriting</td>
<td>Offers active participation in a literacy experience that helps develop language structures, comprehension, and sense of story structure. Retelling engages children in holistic comprehension and organization of thought. Allows for original thinking as children mesh their own life experiences into their retelling. (220)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Webbing and Mapping</td>
<td>Graphic representations, or diagrams, for categorizing and structuring information. Help students see how words and ideas are related to one another. (225)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaborative Response Groups</td>
<td>(Literature circles, buddy reading, partner reading, think-pair-share, mental imagery and thinkalouds)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Theory or theories of reading portrayed:

- **Traditional Approaches** - Rely heavily on parts to whole skill instruction, worksheets, and round robin reading. (9)
- **Whole Language** - A form of teaching loosely adapted from New Zealand, but lacking regular skill instruction. (10)
- **Balanced Reading Instruction** - A compromise between traditionalists and whole language advocates. (10)
- **Comprehensive Reading Programs** - Evidence-based alternative to traditional and holistic approaches. Teach students skills in reading and writing based on their individual needs, and within the context of appropriately leveled reading materials of interest to the learner. (12)
- **Eclectic Approaches** - Are blended programs that lack a consistent theoretical base. (13)
- **Transitional Attitude** - Encourages teachers to make changes by beginning from where they are and gradually adopting and embracing scientifically based comprehensive reading instructional practices. (13)
- **Transitions Model** - Contains eight interrelated dimensions to move through toward comprehensive reading instruction: instructional beliefs, reading materials, curriculum design, instructional grouping, cultural diversity, assessment, classroom environments, family and community involvement. (15)
- **Seven Principles for Supporting Literacy Development** - (1) teacher knowledge of student reading process (2) rely on process and product student assessments that link directly to the knowledge base of reading (3) involve family support (4) support reading to, by, and with students (5) integrate reading instruction with writing instruction (6) develop reading and writing via whole to parts to whole instruction (7) address the needs of all children. (16)
- **Piaget** - Viewed language development as a product of cognitive growth. (25)
- **Vygotsky** - Believed cognitive growth was the product of increasingly sophisticated language use. And the difference between what a child can do alone and in collaboration with others is the zone of proximal development. (29)
- **Engagement Theory** - several aspects of the reading process combine to influence whether children will choose to read and how much effort they will give to learning to read. (31)
- **Understanding Language** - Linguistics, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, language acquisition. Also: semantic cueing system, syntactic cueing system, visual-graphophonic cueing system, pragmatics. (33)
- **Behaviorist Theory** - Oral language is acquired through a process of conditioning and shaping that involves a stimulus, a response, and a reward. (39)
- **Innatist Theory** - Language learning is natural for human beings. Chomsky. (39)
- **Cognitive Theory** - Appears to be a compromise between behavioristic and innatist theories of language acquisition. (40)
- **Bottom-Up Theories** - hypothesize that learning to read progresses from children learning parts of language to understanding whole text. (72)
- **Sub-Skills or Phonics-First** - A pyramid with sound/symbol relationships at its base and comprehension as its capstone. Chall a strong proponent of phonics first. (73)
- **Top-Down Theories** - Place primary emphasis on the role of a reader’s prior knowledge rather than on the print on the page. (74)
- **Whole Word Method or Sight Word Approach** - Teach children to recognize whole words by sight, without analysis of letters or sounds. Once a whole word is recognized, then the parts could be studied to determine how the parts contributed to the whole. (77)
- **Interactive Theories** - Place an equal emphasis upon emphasis on the print or text and the reader’s prior knowledge. (80)
• **Skills-Based Reading Instruction**- Believe that children need to be given instruction that helps them activate and use their background knowledge, vocabulary, and experiences to construct meaning or comprehend text along with applying decoding skills/strategies to figure out the pronunciation of unknown words. (81)

• **Transactional Theories**- An elaboration of the interactive theories. Suggest that there is an interdependency between individuals and their environment. Efferent (focus on information to be remembered) and aesthetic (emotions or feelings). (83)

• **Comprehensive Literacy Instruction**- Transactional reading theories are best related to comprehensive literacy instruction (87)

• **Explicit, Direct, Systematic Instruction of**- Comprehension, phonemic awareness, phonics, vocabulary, fluency (87)

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**Definition/Description of alphabetics (phonics, phonemic awareness, vocabulary):**

- **Phonics**- Instruction emphasizes how spellings are related to speech sounds in systematic and predictable ways. (108)
- **Phonemic Awareness**- An exclusively oral language activity that refers to the understanding that spoken words are made up of individual speech sounds. (101)
- **Vocabulary**- The four types of vocabulary are listening (the largest, made up of words we can hear and understand), speaking (comprised of words we can use when we speak), reading (words we can identify and understand when we read), and writing (words we use in writing). (123)

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**Recommended strategies for alphabetics:**

- **Instructional sequence for phonemic awareness**- Spoken word, awareness that words have sound parts, compound words, syllables, onset and rime, sound by sound, full phonemic awareness achieved. (105)
- **Phonemic Awareness Activities**- Should foster positive feelings toward learning through pleasant atmosphere (drill and rote memorization should be avoided), interaction among children should be encouraged through group ties, curiosity about language and experimentation should be encouraged, and teachers should be prepared for wide differences in the acquisition of phonemic awareness. (107)
- **Approaches Towards Phonics Instruction**- (1) Synthetic phonics instruction (2) Onset and Rime Instruction (3) Analogy-Based Phonics (4) Analytic Phonics Instruction (5) Phonics Through Spelling (109)
- **Children who are exposed to advanced vocabulary through conversations learn words needed later to help recognize and comprehend while reading. Reading and being read to also increase vocabulary learning. (123)**
- **Vocabulary Instruction Strategies**- Word Banks, Specific Word Instruction, Making Words, Function (four-letter) Words, Teaching Word Functions and Changes, Shared Reading Experiences and Vocabulary Learning.

• **Word Banks**- Used to help students collect and review sight words. A student constructed box, file, or notebook in which newly discovered words are stored, reviewed, and used in their writing.(131)

• **Specific Word Instruction**- Deepens students’ knowledge of word meanings and helps them to understand what they are hearing or reading. Three specific word instruction: preteaching vocabulary, extended instruction, repeated exposures.(131)

• **Making Words**- Helps children improve their phonetic understanding of words through invented or temporary spellings, while also increasing their repertoire of vocabulary words they can recognize in print. Students are given a number of specific letters with which to make words. They begin with small words and gradually increase to finally make the word that is the focus. (134)

• **Function (four-letter) Words**- Words that carry no definable meaning. Six step process: (1) select word and write on a card for each student (2) have student make up story using the word and
listeners hold up their card when they hear their word (3) cut the word into letters and have them practice putting the word together (4) write word on board and take a mental photo then practice writing (5) write sentences with missing words and have students write the word in (6) look in books for the word and read the text (135)

- **Teaching Word Functions and Changes**- Synonyms, antonyms, euphemisms, onomatopoeia and creative words (137)
- **Shared Reading Experiences and Vocabulary Learning**- Teacher questioning and recasts are as effective as reading a book aloud to a child as a word learning tool. Reading passages aloud to students can often be just as potent as direct teaching strategies. We need to do both: read aloud regularly and discuss passages containing new vocabulary with students in challenging ways.(141)

**Definition/Description of fluency:**
- **Fluency**- reading rate, accuracy, intonation (98)

**Recommended strategies for fluency:**
- **Chunking**- See Reading comprehension
- **Reader’s Theater**- See reading comprehension
- **Guided Oral Reading**- Direct instruction because they need structure and support in new learning. Using a single text repeatedly increases fluency.

**Definition/Description of reading comprehension:**
- **Reading comprehension is the heart and soul of reading.** (155)
- **Comprehension instruction proceeds from an understanding of individual words in context to comprehending phrases and sentences.** (165)
- **Schema Theory**- How knowledge is stored in the mind. Can be thought of as a mental file folder of categorical knowledge, events, emotions, and roles drawn from the reader’s life experiences.
- **Five Step Model**- (1) searching for an appropriate schema by paying attention to meaning clues taken from the text (2) Selecting an appropriate schema based on the clues found in the text (3) Applying the information in the mental file folder to help the reader figure out the author’s message (4) evaluating whether the schema chosen was the correct one or if it should be discarded and replaced with another schema that seems to make more sense (5) composing a new or revised understanding that is added to the existing schema or used to create new schema. (159)
- **Gradual Release of Responsibility Instruction Model**- Pearson and Gallagher-It begins with the teacher carrying the major share of the responsibility for comprehension task completion and works towards students carrying the major share of responsibility. (163)

**Recommended strategies for reading comprehension:**
- **Cloze**- The use of a piece of writing in which certain words have been deleted and the pupil has to make maximum possible use of context clues available in predicting the missing words. (165)
- **Chunking**- Students must be able to chunk words into meaningful phrases. One way to chunk is to rewrite a passage in chunks after repeated readings and increased fluency. (166)
- **Reader’s Theater**- Helps comprehension, but also helps with fluency and phrasing. Children practice reading from a script in preparation for sharing an oral performance with classmates. Emphasis is placed on presenting a dramatic oral reading of a text for an audience who imagines setting and actions. (166)
- **Connecting Ideas**- Important ideas between sentences are glued together by words known as cohesive ties. Understanding these ties can improve comprehension. Directly explain them, think
aloud, ask questions, practice together, practice independently. (167)

- **Inferences** - Filling in information that the author did not include. Following clues help: instigator, action, object, location, instrument, result. Hollingsworth and Reutzel developed GRIP-Generating Reciprocal Inferences Procedure. Begins with teacher modeling as she reads aloud and highlight key words in the text that deal with location inferences. The process continues for four paragraphs or sections that gradually gives the responsibility to the students.

- **Text Structures** - Understanding the way in which authors organize and structure their ideas in texts. Story grammars are the rules necessary elements to make a story. Sequence: setting, problem, goal, events, resolution. (171)

- **Graphic Organizers for narratives** - Story maps: help teachers and students think about the important elements of stories and visualize the story structure. Discussion webs: to encourage children to discuss issues from more than a single point of view. Schema stories: used to teach children to predict and confirm story predictions. (173)

- **Background Information for Information Text** - Elaborative interrogation strategy: asking why questions helps students process information text more effectively resulting in better understanding and memory.

- **Graphic Organizers for Information Text** - (1) introduce the big idea (2) explicit instruction (3) mediated scaffolding (4) strategic integration (5) primed background knowledge (6) judicious review cycles (177)

- **Experience-Text-Relationships (ETR)** - Strategy to improve information text comprehension. A lesson composed of four parts: (1) planning (2) concept assessment and development (3) guided reading of the text (4) application, during which the teacher helps students draw relationships between the text information and their own background experiences. (182)


- **Imagery** - When students make visual images about what they read, they make mental movies. Provides a framework for organizing, remembering, and constructing meaning from text. Choose passages that are about a paragraph in length and have strong potential for creating mental images. (184)

- **Interpreting and Elaborating Meaning** - Discussion and dialogue are critical. Reader response: invites students to take a more active role. Efferent and aesthetic response. Literature circles foster small group discussion. Grand conversations about books motivate students to extend, clarify, and elaborate their own interpretations of the text as well as learn to consider alternative interpretations offered by peers. Response journals encourage students to respond to text they read. (185)

- **Question-Answer Relationship (QAR)** - Help identify the connection between the type of question asked and the information sources necessary and available for answering questions. Teach students to look for answers in the book or in their heads. Categories: right there, think and search, author and you, on my own. (187)

- **Questioning the Author** - Teach students that information in textbooks is just someone’s thoughts written down and that sometimes these ideas are not written as well or as clearly as they might be. Prompt students to depose the authority of the text by asking the author questions as if the author were present. (189)

- **Metacognition and Fix-Up** - Readers checking the status of their own understanding and taking steps to repair failing comprehension when necessary. Teaching students all the previous strategies so when they lack comprehension they know how to fix it. (189)
Theory or theories of reading portrayed:

- Four Learning Theories- Interactive, Sociolinguistic, Constructivist, Reader Response. (13)
- Constructivist Theories- Piaget described learning as the modification of students’ cognitive structures, or schemata, as they interact with and adapt to their environment. Children are active learners. Children relate new information to prior knowledge. Children organize and integrate information in schemata. Schemata are like mental filing cabinets, and new information is organized with prior knowledge in the filing system. (13)
- Interactive Theories- Describe what readers do as they read. Emphasizes that readers focus on comprehension, or making meaning, as they read. Students use both prior knowledge and features in the text as they read. Students use word-identification skills and comprehension strategies. Fluent readers focus on making meaning. (13)
- Sociolinguistic Theory- Reading and writing are social activities that reflect the culture and community in which the students live. Vygotsky believed language helps to organize thought, and children use language to learn as well as to communicate and share experiences with others. Though and language are interrelated. Social interaction is important in learning. Teachers provide scaffolds for students. Teachers plan instruction based on students’ zone of proximal development. (14)
- Reader Response Theory- Rosenblatt explained that there are two stances or purposes for reading: aesthetic (reading for enjoyment or pleasure) and efferent (reading to locate and remember information). Readers create meaning as they read. Students vary how they read depending on whether they are reading for aesthetic or efferent purposes. The goal of literacy instruction is for students to become lifelong readers. (15)
- Four Cueing Systems- Phonological/sound system, syntactic/structure system, semantic/meaning system, pragmatic/social and cultural system. (15)
- Effective Teachers of Reading Organize Instruction- (1) literature focus units (2) literature circles (3) reading and writing workshops (4) basal reading programs. (29)
- Balance Approach- Effective teachers use this method of instruction. Three principles: (1)develop students’ skills knowledge, including decoding skills, strategy knowledge for comprehension, affective knowledge, and nurture love of reading (2) instructional approaches that are sometimes viewed as opposites are used to meet needs of students (3)students read a variety of reading materials ranging from trade books to leveled books with controlled vocabulary and basal reading textbooks. (36)
- Reading- The process in which readers comprehend and construct meaning. Involves five steps: prereading, reading, responding, exploring, applying. (45)

Definition/Description of alphabetics (phonics, phonemic awareness, vocabulary):

- Phonics- The set of relationships between phonology (the sounds in speech) an orthography (the spelling patterns of written language). (172)
- Phonemic Awareness- Children’s basic understanding that speech is composed of a series of individual sounds, and it provides the foundation for “breaking the code.” (165)
- Vocabulary- Vocabulary knowledge and reading achievement are related. Students with larger vocabularies are more capable readers, and they have a wider repertoire of strategies for figuring out the meanings of unfamiliar words than less capable readers do. Reading widely is the best way students develop their vocabularies. (243)
- Levels of Word Knowledge- unknown word, initial recognition, partial word knowledge, full word knowledge. (240)
Recommended strategies for alphabetics:

- **Teaching Phonics:** Instruction is an important part of reading and writing instruction during the primary grades, but it is crucial that children are involved in real reading and writing activities as they learn phonics. Both direct and indirect instruction can be effective. (176)

- **Minilessons:** Teachers present these on specific high-utility phonics concepts, skills, and generalizations as part of a systematic program. (177)

- **Phonics Instruction Guidelines:**
  1. Teach high-utility phonics
  2. Follow a developmental continuum
  3. Use a whole part whole instructional sequence
  4. Teach minilessons
  5. Apply phonics skills
  6. Use teachable moments
  7. Reinforce phonemic awareness
  8. Review phonics in upper grades. (179)

- **Minilesson Phonics Activities:**
  1. Locate other examples of the sound or pattern in words in a book
  2. Sort objects and pictures by beginning sound
  3. Cut words and pictures from newspapers and magazines for phonics posters
  4. Write words on magic slates or individual dry-erase boards
  5. Make a poster or book of words fitting a pattern
  6. Do a word sort on the basis of spelling patterns
  7. Arrange a group of magnetic letters or letter cards to spell words
  8. Write many phonetically regular words
  9. Write alphabet books and other books featuring phonetically regular words

- **Word Walls:** Features words from books students are reading or from other units of study that are of importance. The words are hung on the wall and students can refer to them as necessary. (166)

- **Making Words:** Teachers choose a five to eight letter word or longer and prepare sets of letter cards. Students use letter cards to practice spelling words and review spelling patterns and rules. They begin with small words and work their way up to the large target word for the day. (186)

- **Word Sorts:** Students use these to explore, compare, and contrast word features as they sort a pack of word cards. The teacher can plan the sort or have the student pick their own categories.

- **Context:** Introduce new words in context so students can make connections. (207)

- **Chant or Clap Spelling:** Students practice new words by chanting and clapping the spelling of the words. (207)

- **Word Study Center:** Use white boards and magnetic boards to practice spelling and reading words. (207)

- **Application of Words:** Students need to practice real use of words in authentic settings to keep them in their vocabularies. (208)

- **Word Identification Strategies:** phonic analysis, analogy, syllabic analysis, morphemic analysis. (209)

- **Incidental Word Learning:** Learning words without direct instruction. Providing opportunities to read is one of the biggest increasers of vocabulary in this area. (240)

- **Context Clues:** Six types of context clues: definition, example-illustration, contrast, logic, root words and affixes, grammar. Contextual information helps students figure out word meaning. (240)

- **Word Learning Strategies:** Allen lists 12 ways students can figure out meaning: look at word in relation to the sentence, look up the word in the dictionary, ask the teacher, sound it out, read the sentence again, look at the beginning of the sentence again, look for other key words in the sentence that might tell you the meaning, think what makes sense, ask a friend to read the sentence to you, read around the word and then go back again, look at the picture if there is one, skip it if you don’t need it. (243)

- **Word Study:** Eight components of word study: concepts and word meanings, multiple meanings, morphemic analysis, synonyms, antonyms, homonyms, etymologies, figurative meanings. (248)

- **Activities for Exploring Words:** Word posters, word maps, dramatizing words, word sorts, word chains, semantic feature analysis. (264)
**Definition/Description of fluency:**
- Fluency: The ability to read smoothly and with expression and in order to read fluently, students must be able to recognize many, many words automatically. (201)

**Recommended strategies for fluency:**
- Repeated Reading: The best approach to improve students’ reading speed. Students practice rereading a book or an excerpt from a book three to five times, striving to improve their reading rate and decrease the number of errors they make. (220)
- Choral Reading: Teacher reads the passage aloud while students follow along or use echo reading in which they repeat each phrase or sentence after the teacher reads it. After several repetitions the students can read the passage again, this time independently. (220)
- Phrasing: Practice breaking sentences into chunks and then reading the sentences with expression. (221)
- Practice: Students need practice reading and rereading books in order to develop fluency. The best books for reading practice are ones that students are interested in reading and that are written at a level just below their instructional level. (222)
- Reader’s Theater: Students practice reading story scripts to develop fluency before reading the script to an audience of classmates. (222)
- Read Arounds: Students choose a favorite sentence or paragraph from a book or other reading assignment they have already read and practice reading the passage they have chosen several times. The student takes turns reading their passage aloud. (224)

**Definition/Description of reading comprehension:**
- Comprehension is the goal of reading instruction. Students must comprehend what they are reading in order to learn from the experience, they must make sense of their reading in order to maintain interest; and they must derive pleasure from reading to become lifelong readers. (272)
- Comprehension: Meaning does not exist on the pages of the book readers are reading; instead, comprehension is created through the interaction between readers and the texts they are reading. (44)
- Comprehension: A creative, multifaceted process in which students engage with the text. (276)
- Three Factors: the reader, the text, the purpose. (276)
- 5 Subprocesses of Comprehension: Microprocesses, Integrative processes, Macroprocesses, Elaborative processes, Metacognitive processes. (277)

**Recommended strategies for reading comprehension:**
- Choral Reading: See fluency
- Interactive Writing: Students create a long sentence, break it into phrases, and write it phrase by phrase to give students practice chunking. (277)
- Open-Mind Portraits: Students make connections as they assume the role of a character. They reenact the story, write simulated journals from the viewpoint of a character, and work on other activities in the exploring step of the reading process. (283)
- Prereading: (1) develop background knowledge with books, videos, and hands on materials (2) activate background knowledge with KWL charts, quickwrites, and discussions (3) make predictions (4) use anticipation guides (5) prepare graphic organizers. (285)
- Reading: (1) shared reading or read aloud to students (2) read with buddies (3) model reading strategies (4) guided reading and monitor students use of strategies (5) close reading of short passages (6) say something activity (7) additional predictions. (285)
- Responding: (1) grand conversations (2) reading logs (3) drama to reenact the story. (285)
- Exploring: (1) reread (2) retell (3) storyboards to sequence (4) examine literary opposites (5) lessons on reading strategies and skills (6) lesson on the structure of texts (7) lessons about the
• **Applying** - (1) KWL Chart (2) project to deepen understanding (3) read other books on the same topic (4) compare related books or book and film versions (5) write reports and other books on the same topic. (285)

• **Tapping Prior Knowledge** - think about what they already know about a topic about which they will read. Continually add new information to schema. (286)

• **Predicting** - Making guesses about what will happen next in the text. (286)

• **Directed Reading-Thinking Activity** - Make predictions before beginning to read and several others at key points in the story or at the beginning of each chapter when reading chapter books. Students either confirm or revise predictions as they are reading. (286)

• **Organizing Ideas** - Organize ideas and sequence story events as they read, and organize their ideas for writing using clusters and other graphic organizers. (286)

• **Figuring out Unknown Words** - Decide whether to use phonic analysis, analogies, syllabic analysis, or morphemic analysis to identify unfamiliar word. (287)

• **Visualizing** - Create mental pictures of what they are reading or writing. (288)

• **Making Connections** - Personalize what they are reading by relating it to their own lives. Recall similar experiences and compare to what they know. (288)

• **Applying Fix-Up Strategies** - When students are reading, they sometimes realize that something is not making sense or that they are not understanding what they are reading then they apply fix-up strategies. (289)

• **Revising Meaning** - Continually revise understanding and the meaning that is created when reading. (289)

• **Monitoring** - Monitor understanding as they read, though they may only be aware of this monitoring when comprehension breaks down. (289)

• **Playing with Language** - Idioms, jokes, riddles, metaphors, similes, personification, sensory language, rhyme, alliteration, invented words. (289)

• **Summarizing** - Big ideas are easier to remember than lots of details. Students pick the important ideas to remember. (289)

• **Evaluating** - Make judgments about, reflect on, and value the books that are being read. (289)

• **Guidelines for Strategy Instruction for Comprehension** - (1) teach minilessons (2) differentiate between skills and strategies (3) provide step-by-step explanations (4) modeling (5) provide practice opportunities (6) apply in content areas (7) use reflection (8) hang charts of skills and strategies. (296)
Theory/theories and models of reading portrayed:

- Effective reading teachers use their knowledge and beliefs about reading to adapt instruction to individual differences among children in their classrooms. (5)
- **Systematic Instructional Approach** - Includes direct teaching and a logical instructional sequence. This structure includes ample opportunities to practice specific skills and move along a defined trajectory related to the sequencing of skills. (8)
- **Constructivist Instructional Approach** - This model is focused on the needs of the individual child. The teacher is a facilitator helping the students negotiate text by addressing the most immediate instructional needs. (8)
- **Cognitive Development** - Piaget explained that language acquisition is influenced by more general cognitive attainments. Language reflects thought and does not necessarily shape it. Vygotsky viewed children as active participants in their own learning. He believed that external dialogue led to inner speech. According to both, children must be actively involved in order to grow and learn. An important milestone in a child’s development is the ability to analyze means-ends relationships. (21)
- **Psycholinguistic** - View of reading combines psychological understanding of the reading process with an understanding of how language works. Readers act and interact with written language in an effort to make sense of a text. Ken and Yetta Goodman. Readers search for and coordinate information cues from three systems in written language: graphophonemic, syntactic, semantic. (22)
- **Sociolinguistic** - Halliday viewed language as a reflection of what makes us uniquely human. Language is a tool they can use and understand in interactions with others in their environment. Language is intentional and has many purposes. Language is to communicate and has several special functions.
- **Bottom-up Model** - A type of reading model that assumes that the process of translating print to meaning begins with the printed word and is initiated by decoding graphic symbols into sound. (581)
- **Top-Down Model** - A type of reading model that assumes that the construction of textual meaning depends on the reader’s prior knowledge and experience. (587)
- **Interactive Model** - A type of reading model that assumes that translating print to meaning involves using both prior knowledge and print and that the process is initiated by the reader making predictions about meaning and/or decoding graphic symbols. (584)
- **Comprehensive Approach** - Approach taken by this book. An approach to instruction that adheres to the belief that teachers need to possess a strong knowledge of multiple methods for teaching reading so they can create the appropriate balance of methods needed for the children they teach. Includes instructional scaffolding and explicit strategy instruction. (49 & 582)
- **Basal Reading Approach** - Use the reading lesson or story with a small group of students during a specified time in a regular location. Contain both narrative and expository text that encompass a variety of genres. Feature anthologies and journals while providing a scope and sequence of skills and strategies to be taught at various levels and grades. (46)
- **Language Experience Approach** - Usually use this method with other methods of instruction. Record the language of children as they speak of an experience they had. And then use those words for reading instruction. It is based on the idea that language should be used to communicate thought, ideas, and meaning. (46)
- **Integrated Language Arts** - Extends the concept of language experience throughout the grades by immersing students in reading, writing, talking, listening, and viewing activities. Teachers preserve the powerful bonds that exist among the various language arts by helping children make connections. (46)
• **Literature-Based Instruction** - Approaches accommodate individual student differences in reading abilities and at the same time focus on meaning, interest, and enjoyment. (47)

• **Technology-Based Instruction** - Learning to read with computers is becoming as commonplace in twenty-first century classrooms as basal reading programs were in the twentieth century. (48)

• **Eclectic Instruction** - A teacher’s use of a combination of approaches and strategies is not self-defeating when it is grounded in teachers’ understanding of theoretical and research-based principles from the knowledge base on reading and learning to read. (48)

• **Principled Eclectic Instruction** - Allows teachers to exercise flexibility in the use of approaches and strategies that are associated with different curricular perspectives. Weaving approaches and strategies into a seamless pattern of instruction is one of the hallmarks of a comprehensive literacy program. (49)

• **Explicit Strategy Instruction** - Helps students by providing an alternative to what we have called direct instruction in a skills-based curriculum. When teachers make instruction explicit, students construct knowledge about the use of skills and strategies. It forms strategic learning not habit formation. Minilessons follow a pattern: (1) creating awareness of the strategy (2) modeling the strategy (3) providing practice in the use of the strategy (4) applying the strategy in authentic reading situations. (51)

• **Developmentally Appropriate Practices** - Suggests that the curriculum match or be geared to children’s developing abilities. (73)

• **Phases of Literacy Development** - (1) awareness and exploration (2) experimental reading and writing (3) early reading and writing (4) transitional reading and writing (5) independent and productive. (60)

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**Definition/Description of alphatics (phonics, phonemic awareness, vocabulary):**

- **Phonemic Awareness** - An understanding that speech is composed of a series of written sounds; a powerful predictor of children’s later reading achievement. (585)

- **Vocabulary** - The panoply of words we use, recognize, and respond to in meaningful acts of communication. (588)

- **Word Identification** - putting a name or label on words that encompasses the use of multiple cues to identify unfamiliar words. (173)

- **Word Recognition** - a process that involves immediate identification. Immediately recognized words are retrieved rapidly from lexical memory. Sometimes referred to as sight word recognition or sight vocabulary.

- **Word Attack, Word Analysis, Decoding** - Suggest the act of translating print into speech through analysis of letter-sound relationships. These terms have been used frequently with what is commonly referred to as phonics. (174)

- **Phonics** - Provides readers with a tool to attack the pronunciation of words that are not recognized immediately. It embraces a variety of instructional strategies for bring attention to parts of words. (174)

- **Word Learning Phases** - Prealphabetic, partial alphabetic, full alphabetic, and consolidated alphabetic. (175).

- **Analytic Phonics** - Whole to part approach to word study in which the student is first taught the number of sight words and then relevant phonics generalizations, which are subsequently applied to other words. (180)

- **Synthetic Phonics** - Part to whole phonics approach to reading instruction in which the student learns the sound presented by letters and letter combinations, blends these sounds together to pronounce new words, and finally identifies which phonics generalizations apply. (180)

- **Linguistic Phonics** - A beginning reading approach based on highly regular sound-symbol patterns, temporarily substituted for the term phonic early in the 1960s. (181)

- **Analogy Based Instruction** - Taught to use knowledge of letters representing onsets and rimes in
words they already know how to pronounce, rather than their knowledge of letter-phoneme correspondences to pronounce unfamiliar words. (184)

- **Spelling Based Instruction** - Teaching students strategies for studying words they read and write. Word study is developmental and students need to be working with words that represent their levels of development. Prephonemic, semiphonemic, letter name, within-word pattern, syllable juncture, derivational constancy. (185)

- **Embedded Phonics Instruction** - Associated with holistic, meaning centered teaching. Learning phonics skills in the context of stories that make sense.

- **Contemporary Phonics Instruction** - Recommended by this text. Guidelines: (1) needs to build on foundation of phonemic awareness and knowledge of the way language works (2) needs to be integrated into a total reading program (3) needs to focus on reading print rather than on learning rules (4) needs to include the teaching of onsets and rimes (5) needs to include spelling-based strategies. (187)

- **Principles to Guide Vocabulary Instruction** - (1) Select words that children will encounter while reading literature and content material (key words, useful words, interesting words) (2) Teach words in relation to other words (3) Teach students to relate words to their background knowledge (4) Teach words in Prereading activities to activate knowledge and use them in postreading discussion, response, and retelling. (5) Teach words systematically and in depth (6) Awaken interest in and enthusiasm for words. (260)

### Recommended strategies for alphabetics:

- **Letter Actions** - Physical actions can be used to help children learn the consonants. Choose actions to learn with each letter as a physical prompt. (188)

- **Favorite Foods** - Select favorite or unique foods, one food per letter. Prepare the food and share it as a class. Pictures of each food can be posted with each letter in the classroom. (189)

- **Consonant Substitution** - As students develop consonant letter-sound knowledge, you can use numerous activities to assist them with learning to read words that rhyme or belong to the same word family. Involves consonant substitution. (189)

- **Flip Books** - Flip books are made from sentence strips which are ideal for creating books for word study. Students flip through the book reading each progressively longer word. (190)

- **Making Words** - Use letter and rime cards and letter tiles to practice making words. Hands on materials are suggested. (191)

- **Making and Writing Words** - Students use a form sheet to make words. In boxes at the top of the sheet the students are directed to write a list of specified vowels in one box and consonants in the second box. The teacher dictates words that use the letters and the students draw on the boxes at the top of the page to write words in additional boxes listed on the form. (192)

- **Cube Words** - Students roll the cubes using for to six cubes. Words are formed with the letters that are rolled and then recorded on a sheet of paper. (192)

- **Diagraph and Blend Actions And Food Associations** - The diagrams or blends are written on large cards and the actions are written or illustrated on the reverse side. Practice the actions or pictures with the diagraphs or blends as they are shown. (194)

- **Diagraph Tongue Twisters** - Create consonant diagraph tongue twisters for word learning. Can be written on large chart paper or on sentence strips for easy reference. (195)

- **Analogy Strategy** - Making analogies with familiar onsets and rimes. (196)

- **Word Building Strategy** - Based on the knowledge that children frequently use pronounceable word parts as a decoding strategy. Read the familiar part of the word and then add the other parts. (197)

- **Rimes in Nursery Rhymes** - Attention can be paid to the rime and onset patterns frequently used in Nursery Rhymes and poems. (197)

- **Making and Writing Words Using Letter Patterns** - Teacher selects a multisyllabic word that contains several onsets and rimes. Using a from sheet with boxes that contain the onsets and
rimes, the students are directed to write words using the patterns. Word sorts and word games can also be played by cutting the boxes apart. (197)

- **Word Building with Onset and Rime Tiles** - Use of onset and rime tiles to make words. (198)
- **Hink Pinks** - Creative combinations of rhyming words. A list can be kept of these combinations in dictionaries and personal journals. (199)
- **Word Banks** - Boxes of word cards that individual students are studying. A natural extension of the language-experience approach in which students learn to read words from dictated stories. These words can also be used in word sorting activities. (199)
- **Word Walls** - A word wall may be started when students notice words that rhyme but are not spelled with the same letter patterns. It could also include high frequency words that occur in text. The wall can be permanent or temporary. (200)
- **Word Sorting** - Students look for similarities in words, including letter pattern similarities. Open or closed word sorts. Open allows children to create their own sort and closed is when the teacher has a specific sort in mind. (201)
- **Have-a-Go** - Involves the use of a Have-a-Go sheet to record words from children’s daily writing that are particularly challenging to spell. Write words that students think they misspelled in the first column. In the second and third column they attempt to improve the spelling as they meet with the teacher for additional instruction. (201)
- **Modified Cloze Passages** - Words are deleted from the passage and context clues are used to help students determine the word. Selective word deletion, systematic word deletion, partial word deletion. (204)
- **Guessing Games** - Helps students to use visual and meaning clues to identify unknown words. Teacher can read riddles and have students guess solutions based on visual hints, such as beginning letters, as well as meaning hints. (204)
- **Inferring Word Meanings** - A five day instructional strategy for older students that uses teacher modeling to unlock word meanings based on context clues. It needs to be planned and explicit. (1) introduce riddles (2) students attempt to write and discuss riddles (3) teacher presents key sentences that substitute nonsense words for unknown words (4) more practice examples (5) a review session and other student demonstrations. (205)
- **Reader Selected Miscue Strategy** - Teaching students the importance or unimportance of certain words to the overall meaning of the passage. Also, everyone makes mistakes; no one reads perfectly. (205)
- **Cross-checking** - Involves rereading a sentence or two to cross check, confirm, modify, or reject probable pronunciation of unknown words encountered during reading. (206)
- **Self-Monitoring** - Train students to self-monitor their reading by encouraging cross-checking. Also discuss with them what to do when they come to unknown words. How to determine unknown words.
- **Language Experience** - After providing the students with an experience, the teacher has students dictate captions describing the activities that are written on chart paper. The students practice reading the words together. Helps to improve reading of function words. (211)
- **Environmental Print** - After learning high frequency words, children can locate the words in environmental print. (211)
- **Word Games** - Games that reinforce reading of high frequency words such as adaptations of: bingo, go fish, concentration, memory. (211)
- **Key Words Group Activities** - classifying words, relating words, learning a partner’s words, coauthoring, acting out words. (212)
- **Key Words Individual Activities** - making booklets, making alphabet books, making sentences, illustrating, inventing words, exploring feelings, exploring identity, naming special people. (213)
- **Context for Vocabulary Growth** - Students need to hear the words used in different contexts (267)
- **Developing Word Meanings** - The ability to relate new words to known words can be built through
- Synonyms, antonyms, and multiple-meaning words. (267)
- **Classifying and Categorizing Words**: Give the students the experience of thinking about, thinking through, and thinking with vocabulary. Working with relationships among words provides this opportunity. Word sorts, categorization, concept circles, semantic mapping, analogies, paired-word sentence generation. (269)
- **Developing Word Meanings Through Stories and Writing**: Semantic analysis to writing, predictogram. (277)
- **Independence in Vocabulary Learning**: self-selection strategy, word knowledge rating (280)

### Definition/Description of Fluency:
- **Fluency**: The ability to read easily and well. (583)
- **Accuracy in Word Decoding**: Readers must be able to sound out words in text with few errors. (221)
- **Automatic Processing**: Reader uses as little mental effort as possible in the decoding of text, saving their mental energy for comprehension. (221)
- **Prosody**: A linguistic concept that refers to such features in oral language as intonation, pitch, stress, pauses, and the duration placed on specific syllables. (221)
- **Effective Fluency Instruction**: Three parts: instruction (incorporate the teaching of basic skills such as phonemic awareness and phonics as well as model fluency), practice (includes the use of decodable text and other independent level texts to strengthen the sounds and spelling that are taught in the classroom, word by word reading working towards phrases is more efficient instruction), assessment. (221)
- **Immediate Word Identification**: Rapid word recognition. Semantic or physical features in a word trigger quick retrieval of the word. (221)
- **Automaticity**: Word recognition that is accurate and automatic. Necessary for fluency to occur. (222)

### Recommended Strategies for Fluency:
- **Repeated Readings**: Oral repeated readings provide additional sensory reinforcement for the reader, allowing him or her to focus on the prosodic elements of reading that are essential to phrasing. Having a student read a short passage multiple times with varying amounts of support. (224)
- **Paired Readings**: Students select their own passage from the material with which they are currently working. Should be about fifty words in length. Grouped in pairs, each with their own different passage. Read silently first and then to each other. Support each other on difficult words and offer motivation. (226)
- **Peer Tutoring**: The tutee picks a book or passage that he/she has already been read and within the tutor’s reading ability. Discuss the book initially and throughout the reading. Read aloud and together at the tutee’s pace. Tutor corrects tutee as needed. Tutee indicates when he/she wants to read on his/her own. Discuss the story in conclusion. (226)
- **Parents and Paired Reading**: Same as paired reading, just done with parents and student. (227)
- **Automated Reading**: Listening while reading a text. An automated reading program employs simultaneous listening and reading. A child reads along with a tape recorder. (228)
- **Choral Reading**: Oral reading of poetry that makes use of various voice combinations and contrasts to create meaning or to highlight the tonal qualities of the passage. Teacher models the reading and then students are invited to try different ways of reading or interpreting a part. (230)
- **Readers’ Theater**: The oral presentation of drama, prose, or poetry by two or more readers. Several readers take the parts of the characters in the story or play. Instead of memorizing or improvising their parts as in other theater, the students read them. The emphasis is on what the audience hears rather than sees.
- **Support Reading Strategy**: Teacher reads a story to a small group of children in a fluent expressive
voice. Teacher stops to ask clarifying questions. Teacher and children echo read the story. Teacher monitors reading. Next the teacher pairs the readers and they take turns reading to each other. Finally, students work individually as the teacher moves around to listen to each student. (236)

- **Cross-Age Reading**- Preparation phase the older students help the teacher prepare for a story sharing session (select book, repeated readings, decide how their books will be introduced). Prereading collaboration phase is to ensure that students are ready to share their books. Reading to kindergartners is the next phase. Postreading collaboration phrase is an opportunity for the students to share and reflect on the quality of the storybook reading interactions. (237)

- **Sustained Silent Reading**- Students are given fixed time periods for reading self-selected materials silently. Students should be allowed to select own books. Goals of SSR: (1) reading books is important (2) reading is something anyone can do (3) reading is communicating with an author (4) children are capable of sustained thought (5) books are meant to be read in large sections (6) teachers believe that pupils are comprehending (7) the teacher trusts the children to decide when something is well written. (242)

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**Definition/Description of reading comprehension:**

- **Schemata**- The prior knowledge, experiences, conceptual understandings, attitudes, values, skills, and procedures a reader brings to a reading situation.

- **Active Comprehension**- A process of generating questions and making connections throughout reading. (289)

- **Three Dimensions of Reading Comprehension Instruction**- (1) scaffold students development of strategies through explicit instruction (2) develop students’ awareness of story structure, to facilitate comprehension of narrative text (3) guide students’ interactions with texts as they read. (288)

**Recommended strategies for reading comprehension:**

- **Reciprocal Questioning (ReQuest)**- Help students think as they read in any situation that requires reading. Encourages students to ask their own questions about the material being read. (293)

- **Question-Answer Relationships (QAR)**- Special attention should be given to the most likely source of information the reader needs to answer the question. Textually explicit (promote recall or recognition of information actually stated in the text) and textually implicit (provoke thinking). Teaches students how to find information to answer questions. Two information sources: text and the reader. (294)

- **Questioning the Author (QTA)**- Models the importance for asking questions when reading. Ask questions of the author as reading in order to make sense of the purpose. (294)

- **Reciprocal Teaching**- Depends on the teacher’s ability to model how an expert reader uses four comprehension activities to understand a text selection: (1) raising questions about a text segment (2) predicting what the segment is about (3) summarizing the important points (4) clarifying difficult vocabulary concepts. (297)

- **Think-Alouds**- Students talk about their thoughts while reading aloud. Provide a window to view what is going on in the minds of the students as they read. (300)

- **Elements in a Story**- Setting, plot, episodes. Also: a beginning or initiating event, internal response, attempts, one or more outcomes, resolution, a reaction. (302)

- **Story Map**- A way of identifying major structural elements, both explicit and implicit, underlying a story to be taught in class. (305)

- **Building a Schema for Stories**- (1) read, tell, and perform stories in class (2) don’t teach the language of story grammar as an end in itself (3) show relationships among story parts (4) reinforce story knowledge through instructional activities (macrocloze stories, scrambled stories, story frames, circular story maps). (306)

- **Directed Reading-Thinking Activity**- Builds critical awareness of the reader’s role and
responsibility in interacting with the text. Involves readers in the process of predicting, verifying, judging, and extending thinking about the text material. Begins with very open-ended or divergent responses and moves toward more accurate predictions and text-based inferences as students acquire information from the reading. (312)

- **KWL** - Three step teaching plan designed to guide and to motivate children as they read to acquire information from expository text. What do you know, What do you want to find out, What did you learn. (314)

- **Discussion Webs** - Requires students to explore both sides of an issue during discussion before drawing conclusions. Use a graphic aide to guide children’s thinking about the ideas they want to contribute to the discussion. (317)

- **Story Impressions** - Helps children anticipate what stories could be about. A predicting activity. Uses clue words associated with the setting, characters, and events in the story to help readers write their own versions of the story prior to reading. (318)
**Theory/theories and models of reading portrayed:**

- Students who are at risk benefit from reading instruction that is explicit and systematic. (9)
- **Explicit Instruction**- The clear, direct teaching of reading skills and strategies. (9)
- **Systematic Instruction**- Teaching that clearly identifies a carefully selected and useful set of skills and then organizes those skills into a logical sequence of instruction. (10)
- **Differentiated Instruction**- Because of student differences, schools need a range of instructional options to meet the diverse needs of students. Teaching that provides this broader range of options is known as differentiated instruction. (10)
- **Multi-Tiered Model of Differentiated Instruction**-(1) Tier 1- General education reading, curriculum with enhancements (2) Tier 2- Tier 1 plus additional tutoring, sessions (boosters) (3) Tier 3- Intensive reading curriculum plus appropriate parts of general education reading program. (11)
- **Instructional Enhancements for Students Who are At-Risk**- Advance organizers, unison responding, effective signals, efficient use of teacher talk, perky pace, my turn-together-your turn format, cumulative review, systematic error correction, teaching to success, student motivational system. (12)
- After an explanation of skills that the students need to learn there is a script provided of how to teach that skill.

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**Definition/Description of alphabets (phonics, phonemic awareness, vocabulary):**

- **Phonics**- The relationship between written letters, or graphemes, and the sounds of language, or phonemes. Some would argue that English does not have enough regularity to warrant teaching phonics, however it does. (7)
- **Phonemic Awareness**- The ability to hear the smallest units of sound in spoken language and to manipulate them. (5)
- **Receptive Vocabulary**- Understanding the meaning of words when people speak. (8)
- **Expressive Vocabulary**- Using words in speaking so that other people understand you. (8)
- **Acquisition Stage of Learning**- When students are first learning to accurately blend or segment teachers should avoid games and minimize the amount of errors that students who are at risk make in order to avoid spending unnecessary time reteaching. (59)
- **Synthetic Phonics**- The foundation of this book is based on this systematic and explicit phonics approach. Student success and independence is emphasized through the carefully supported teaching strategies and curriculum. (69)
- **Other Phonics Approaches**- Analytic phonics, analogy phonics, phonics through spelling. (69)
- **Three Types of Vocabulary Words for Instruction**- Important words, useful words, and difficult words. (211)

**Recommended strategies for alphabets:**

- **Blending and Segmenting**- earliest, most basic segmenting and blending skills through more difficult ones: rhyming, phoneme deletion, word to word matching, blending, sound isolation, phoneme segmentation, phoneme counting, deleting phonemes, odd word out, sound to word matching. (32)
- **Scripted Lessons**- Will help you present information clearly while staying focused on the essentials.
- **Enhancements to Tier 1 for Phonemic Awareness**- increase student responding and attention, require answering in unison, signaling for segmenting, signaling for blending, my turn-together-your turn, stretch and connect sounds, provide ongoing review, increase the motivation. (39)
- **Tier 2 Booster Sessions for Phonemic Awareness**- extra practice segmenting and blending in more...
intensive instructional setting. (50)

- Tier 3 for Phonemic Awareness- Programs usually offered: Reading Mastery, Lindamood, Reading Recovery, Wilson Reading System, Language! (52)
- Sequence for Teaching Alphabetic Principle- Identify the most common sounds of individual letters in isolation, read cvc words, read cvc-variant words, read single syllable words containing letter combinations, read a small number of high-frequency sight word needed to read passages, sound out previously taught on-syllable words in sentences and passages, read one-syllable words and passages the fast way. (70)
- Reading Regular Words Is a Three-Part Process- (1) Sounding out orally (2) Sounding out subvocally (3) Reading words the fast way.
- Sight Words- use thinking pauses to build student fluency in reading new sight words and avoid teaching similar sight words together, such as where and were. (103)
- Advanced Word Reading Skills- letter combinations and affixes, words with vowel-consonant-vowel pattern, regular words with two or more syllables, words with two or more syllables and one or more irregular parts, one and two syllable sight words (132)
- Vocabulary by Modeling- Model examples and nonexamples as you directly teach the word. (214)
- Developing Vocabulary Questions- Use the names of your students in your examples whenever possible, end by providing a practice opportunity, reflect the students’ lives with relevant questions, use the exact vocabulary from the story in your questions and as the correct responses, mix in why questions after example and nonexamples questions.
- Teach New Vocabulary Directly- Synonyms, definitions, semantic maps (visual representations of vocabulary that help students organize subject matter by having student categorize, label the categories, and discuss concepts related to a target word), keywords (uses mnemonics to make vocabulary more meaningful to students and hence easier to understand and remember). (214)
- Independent Word-Learning Strategies- Context (using context clues to figure out new words) and morphemic analysis. (222)
- Using Word Parts to Teach Vocabulary- The students read the morpheme and learn its meaning, model applying the new morpheme to different words, ask students to tell a sentence that contains the word, repeat the process with a second word that contains the same morpheme, review previously introduced word parts, ask students to identify the parts of words containing previously introduced morphemes, using the dictionary to teach independent word learning strategies. (228)
- Practice Activities for New Words- preprinted response cards and write on response boards, class wide peer tutoring, never too many questions, making choices, word associations, thumbs up-thumbs down, narrow reading. (234)
- Practice Activities for Review Words- Fill-in-the-Blank stories, dictionary race-and-rite, the goodbye list, vocabulary words as themes, grids, word journals. (235)
- Reinforcement Games to Reinforce New Vocabulary- Absurdity is fun, thumbs up-thumbs down, plurals plurals and more. (245)

**Definition/Description of fluency:**

- **Fluency-** The ability to read text accurately, quickly, and with expression. Students who are able to read fluently can focus their energy on finding out what the text means. (8)
- Before students who are at risk can apply these basic skills to connected text, they must first practice the skills in isolation until they are accurate and fluent. Not until they reach that level of success should those skills be applied to connected text. (169)
Recommended strategies for fluency:

- **Round Robin Approach**: All students in the class read aloud from the same book, regardless of their reading levels. Not a good method for all students. (183)
- **SAFER**: The text read is carefully matched to the students’ reading levels. Students called on in random order and asked to read amounts of text that vary from one to three sections. Increased practice is given as needed. (183)
- **Repeated Readings**: Individual or in small groups. The text must have been read previously at least 95% accuracy. Read the passage multiple times tracking accuracy progress. (187)
- **Taped Readings**: Ask the student to read silently a short passage that can read with at least 95% accuracy before allowing her to read the passage into a tape recorder. Listen to the tape and follow along with the text. Record again and listen to the improvement. (187)
- **Partner Readings**: Pair students with low and high level as partners. The more advanced reader should read first and model the process. Both students have the opportunity to read. (187)
- **Page Racers**: Done in pairs. One person read a page and the other times the reading. The next page is read by the same reader to see if he can beat his first time. (188)
- **Echo Reading**: Read one sentence of text aloud with appropriate intonation and phrasing. Ask the students to imitate this oral reading model. (189)
- **Neurological Impress Method**: Must be a passage can read with high accuracy. Sit slightly behind the student, holding the book in front of him so that you speak toward his dominant ear. Read together in one voice and pointing to the text. Read the passage slightly beyond student’s normal rate so attention is paid to longer phrases. (189)
- **Choral Reading**: Read a short poem or song that can be read with at least 95% accuracy. Practice reading the text in unison until everyone is reading it together as a chorus. (190)
- **Different but the Same**: Show students how the same sentence is read differently depending on the final punctuation. Model the process then ask for imitation. (190)
- **Think About Your Reading**: Work in partners to listen to each other read and check items off a fluency checklist that the reader does or does not do. Share the list after each reading. Try again on the second passage. (190)
- **Reading in Chunks**: Write a sentence on the board or on student worksheets in chunks of text that match how one would read it aloud. Practice reading text like this with the students. (190)
- **Scallop the Text**: Take a page of the text that students can accurately read and draw scallops connecting phrases that logically are read as a unit. Then ask the student to read the same text with the scallops and then without. (191)
- **Readers’ Theatre**: Divide the students into small choral reading groups and have them read to the class. (191)
- **Duet or Shared Reading**: Have pairs of students reread stories that they have previously read accurately using an every-other-word pattern. Helps improve fluency and attention to the text. (191)

Definition/Description of reading comprehension:

- The ultimate goal of reading instruction. (9)
- Students who understand what they read are able to decode connected text accurately and fluently, and know the meanings of a variety of vocabulary words. Good comprehenders have two additional qualities: have a clear purpose for reading and they think actively as they read. (9)
- **Text**: Several characteristics of the text itself influence whether a reader comprehends text: readability, text structure (the way certain types of text are organized to form a framework or pattern and the two broadest categories are narrative text and expository text), text organization. (252)
- **Reader**: Prior knowledge or the knowledge and skills that readers bring to the reading process also have strong influence comprehension. (255)
- **Activity** - The nature and purpose of reading task affects comprehension. (255)
- **Context** - The context in which reading occurs can have a significant effect on comprehension. (255)
- **Necessary Underlying Skills** - oral reading fluency, oral language, sentence repetition, background knowledge. (256)

### Recommended strategies for reading comprehension:
- **Comprehension Monitoring** - identify where the difficulty occurs, identify what the difficulty is, restate the difficult sentence or passage in their own words, look back through the text, look forward in the text for information that might help them resolve the difficulty. (262)
- **Cooperative Learning** - Divide the class into small groups comprised of diverse students who are at different levels and have different perspectives. The group works on a clearly defined, well-structured learning activity, and expectations are that all students will participate to increase active learning time. (263)
- **Graphic and Semantic Organizers** - Determine the critical content to teach, organize the concepts in a visual representation, design a completed concept map, create a partially completed concept map for students to finish, create a blank concept map for students to use as a postreading or review exercise. (265)
- **Self-Questioning** - Can become actively engaged with the text by asking questions. Encourage students to ask different types of questions at different points of the text. (266)
- **Story Structure Analysis: Teaching with Story Maps** - Story maps are graphic organizers that proved students with a visual guide to understanding and retelling stories. (267)
- **Summarizing** - A synthesis of the important ideas in a text. Helps students identify the main ideas in expository text and recognize important story elements in narrative text. (268)
- **Answering Questions** - Best used as part of a multiple strategy teaching package.
- **Question Answer Relationship (QAR)** - one strategy that helps students who have difficult answering inference question, or questions that do not have a concrete answer spelled out in the text. Answers to questions come from either the text or the reader. (269)
- **Survey-Question-Read-Recite-Review Method (SQ3R)** - Helps students understand and remember expository text. Scan the text as a preview and look at questions about the text. Read through the text looking for the answers. The repeat out loud the answers. Finally review the text to confirm the answers as well as a review a few days later. (270)
- **Reciprocal Teaching** - A way to teach students to comprehend reading material by providing them with teacher and peer models of thinking behavior and then allowing them to practice these thinking behaviors with their peers. (272)
- **Games and Activities to Reinforce Comprehension** - find the hot spots, provide evidence, what would your character do, try out your test-making skills, how well do I understand, the text detective. (295)
Theory/theories and models of reading portrayed:

- **Early Intervention**: The first years of instruction are very important for children who have literacy and/or language related deficits. (7)
- **Systematic Reading Program**: A comprehensive reading program that contains aligned activities from all the essential components of reading instruction (phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension) is used. It is necessary to make plans that meet the needs of children at, below, or above grade level performance standards. (7)
- **Explicit Lesson Delivery**: Reading lessons are very interactive and children are highly engaged and successful. Teachers present tasks for students to master. Children respond and teachers provide immediate feedback. Performance is carefully monitored and corrections are immediately provided. (8)
- **Data-Driven Instruction**: Assessments are used to place students at their instructional level and to monitor their performance. (8)
- **Prioritization of Available time and Resources to Support Reading Achievement**: In order to determine time spent on instruction it is necessary to determine how much instructional time will be needed in order to reach grade-level performance standards. (8)
- **Developing Explicit Teaching Procedures**: (1) use explicit teaching demonstrations (2) control the language used in teaching skills and strategies (3) introduce one new skill at a time (4) provide guided practice in applying strategies. (18)
- **Selecting Examples**: (1) present appropriate introductory examples (2) provide discrimination practice. (20)
- **Sequencing Skills**: (1) teach preskills of a strategy before the strategy is presented (2) introduce high-utility skills before less useful ones (3) introduce easy skills before more difficult ones (4) separate strategies and information likely to be confused (21)
- **Explicit and Systematic Lesson Presentation Techniques**: unison oral responding, signaling, pacing, monitoring group responses, monitoring with individual turns, correcting errors, teaching to mastery, diagnosing, motivation. (23)
- **This text offers strategies and recommendations through scripts of how to do a lesson.**

Definition/Description of alphabetics (phonics, phonemic awareness, vocabulary):

- **Phonics**: Phonics instruction produces significant benefits for all children. Phonics instruction is a way of teaching reading that stresses the acquisition of letter-sound correspondences and their use in reading and spelling. (5)
- **Phonemic Awareness**: Explicit and systematic teaching of this skill significantly improves children’s reading and spelling abilities. Phonemic awareness is the ability to orally manipulate phonemes, which are tiny segments of sound. (5)
- **Vocabulary**: While most vocabulary is learned indirectly, explicit vocabulary instruction does lead to gains in comprehension. Methods must be appropriate to the age and ability of the readers. Repetitions and multiple exposures to vocabulary are important. Vocabulary is very important to reading comprehension, since readers cannot understand what they are reading without knowing what most words mean. (6)

Recommended strategies for alphabetics:

- **Blending**: Requires the student to translate a series of blended sounds into a word said at a normal rate. Prepares students for translating the blended sounds into a word said at a normal rate when sounding out words. (38)
- **Segmenting**: Teaches students to say a word slowly, holding each continuous sound for about 1 ½ seconds, and switching from sound to sound without pausing. (40)
### Phonics Key Terms
- most common sounds, stop sounds vs. continuous sounds, regular words, irregular words, consonant blends, regular word types, letter combinations, VCe pattern words, affixes (prefixes and suffixes). (56)
- Letter-Correspondence Sequence Beginning- (1) separate visually or auditorily similar letters (2) introduce more useful letters first (3) introduce lowercase letters first (4) introduce only one sound initially for a new letter. (65)
- Letter-Correspondence Sequence Primary- (1) the number of common words in which the letter combination appears (2) how many words are common in primary grade literature. (81)

### Word Reading-Beginning Stage
Can begin when students have mastered four to six letter-sound correspondences and the auditory skills of segmenting and blending the easiest word types to decode. (87)

### Phonics and Word Attack During Primary Stage
- words that contain common letter combinations (2) words that have the VCe pattern (3) words formed by adding a common suffix to a base word (4) multisyllabic words formed by adding a prefix/suffix to a base word (5) irregular words that contain one or more phonic elements the students do not know. (113)

### Teaching Vocabulary Through Modeling
- Used primarily to teach basic language concepts and attributes covered in preschool and kindergarten. (1) model positive and negative examples of the new concept (2) testing the students on their mastery of the examples of the new word (3) presenting different examples of the new word, along with examples of other previously taught words. (185)

### Teaching Vocabulary Through Synonyms
- Similar to the procedure of teaching through modeling examples except the teacher first equates a new word with a known word rather than modeling examples. (187)

### Teaching Vocabulary Through Definitions
- (1) identify a small class to which a word belongs (2) state how the word differs from other members of that class. (188)

### Semantic Mapping
- encourages concept development by graphically displaying characteristics of words in categories and showing how they are related to each other. (197)

### Word Parts
- morphemic analysis as dividing a word into its component morphemes, then using the meanings of the individual morphemes to figure out the meaning of the entire word. (201)

### Context Clues
- Contextual analysis is how a reader uses the words in a sentence surrounding an unknown word to figure out the unknown word’s meaning. (205)

### Dictionary Use
- Should try to select dictionaries written at an appropriate level for students with clear definitions composed of words with which the students are familiar. (207)

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**Definition/Description of fluency:**
- **Fluency**- Fluency instruction has a significant and positive effect on word recognition, fluency, and comprehension. Fluent readers are able to read orally with speed, accuracy, and proper expression. (6)

- **Repeated Reading Approaches**- the students read passages aloud several times and receive guidance and feedback from the teacher as the read aloud. (142)

- **Independent Reading Approaches**- the students are encouraged to read extensively on their own. Research has not confirmed this as beneficial. (142)

**Recommended strategies for fluency:**
- **Sounding Out Passages**- Can be introduced when a group is able to read the individual words on worksheets in unison. Read the story two times in unison. The first reading the students sound out the words twice the say it at a normal rate. The second time the student just sound out the word one time and then say it fast. (148)

- **Sight-Word Reading of Passages**- Transition from sounding out words to saying the words at a normal rate and do not sound it out vocally. (153)

- **Practice**- The more practice a student has reading the more improvement he/she will make in
- Reading fluency. (157)
  - **Reading With Expression**- Demonstrate that written passages express meaning in the same way spoken language does. (171)

**Definition/Description of reading comprehension:**
- **Comprehension**- Could be improved by instruction that helps readers use specific comprehension strategies. Strategies help students understand what they read, remember what they read, and communicate with others about what they read. (6)

**Recommended strategies for reading comprehension:**
- **Sentence Comprehension**- Introduce question words. (212)
- **Teacher Read Aloud**- Oral storybook reading. The following should be considered: (1) Story grammar- work to enable the students to understand the characters and setting and patterns within stories (2) Presenting Stories- read several times for enjoyment and making predictions, then during rereadings incorporate other skills (3) Retelling- teacher leads the students in describing the story’s setting and characters and in summarizing and sequencing the story’s events. (214)
- **Literal Comprehension**- Teach students how to answer literal questions about the text. (217)
- **Background Knowledge and Previewing Text**- Provide information prior to introducing a new story. Also prior to reading stories students should be taught to preview the text. (222)
- **Summarization**- Helps students remember important information from their reading. (222)
- **Comprehension Monitoring**- Help students become aware of what they comprehend and what they do not and when they need a fix-up. (222)
- **Inferential Comprehension**- Requires the student to answer questions in which the answer is not directly stated in the story. Textually implicit- comprehension is dependent on relating two pieces of information from the text. Scripturally implicit- comprehension is dependent on reader’s background knowledge. (223)
- **Main Idea**- Identifying the main idea and condensing the main idea into a single sentence. (226)
- **Narrative Comprehension-Story Grammar**- story revolves around: (1) conflict (2) goal (3) resolution of the conflict (4) plot (5) the characters thoughts and feelings are common to many stories. (226)
- **Story Maps and Notesheets**- helps students organize story information into meaningful relationships and facilitates retention of story information. Can help students summarize and clarify the story-grammar components during short-story reading. (231)
Theory/theories and models of reading portrayed:

• **Components of Language**—Phonological, morphological, syntactic, semantic, pragmatic (8)

• **Cognitive Development**—Piaget stated that children are actively involved in making their own meaning with the world. Through experimentation in the world children develop their own concepts about the world. Schemata are the organizational structures in the brain that allow us to store our existing knowledge and to add new knowledge. Accommodation and Assimilation. The learner is an active participant in the learning process, receiving new knowledge, evaluating it according to previous knowledge, and then either adding it to existing schema or modifying schema as needed to assimilate the knowledge. (11)

• **Cultural Influence**—Halliday and his seven models of language use: instrumental, regulatory, interactional, personal, heuristic, imaginative, representational. The different models of language use are used with different frequencies as a child matures and to various degrees in different cultural groups. (11)

• **Top-Down Model**—Goodman helped extend the understanding of language acquisition. The process of reading is analogous to the process of language acquisition. The fluent reader uses knowledge of the phonological, morphological, syntactic, and semantic elements of language to hypothesize about the text. The phonological elements become less important as the reader matures. The reader’s prior knowledge is of primary importance, no the elements of the text. (13)

• **Bottom-Up Model**—The text is of primary importance. Children learn to decode words and systematically move to larger and larger units from letter to syllable to word to phrase and onward in comprehension. Based on LaBerge and Samuels: Toward a Theory of Automatic Information Process in Reading. Three concepts of this model: alertness, selectivity, limited capacity. Automaticity is the automatic recognition of words so that decoding requires little attention, thus freeing the reader to focus on meaning. (13)

• **Interactive Model**—Contains features of top-down model and bottom-up model. Difference is that it is based on parallel processing where the reader engages in a number of tasks simultaneously. Word recognition is necessary for comprehension to occur. The reader moves through a series of stages in which word recognition and comprehension interact with one another. Three major pieces of this model: attention is given to word recognition, context is not as great as once thought, phonological coding is important to word recognition in reading acquisition. (15)

• **Interactive-Compensatory Model**—Stanovich presents this model. Similar to interactive model as it includes ideas from both the top-down and bottom-up model. This model has implications for disabled readers. This model suggests that instruction for disabled readers should include attention to strengthening the use of contextual clues as well as improving the use of phonological cues. (16)

• **Agreement Between Models**—fluent reader is actively involved, fluent reader brings different types of knowledge to the reading act, the fluent reader comes to the reading act with a linguistic, cognitive, and cultural foundation, the fluent reader understands that reading is a communicative act. (16)

• **Stages of Word Learning**—logographic/selective cue, rudimentary alphabetic, alphabetic, orthographic, automatic. (19)

• **Writing Development/Spelling Development Stages**—prephonemic, early phonemic/semiphonemic, letter-name, transitional and derivational. (20)
Definition/Description of alphabetics (phonics, phonemic awareness, vocabulary):
- **Analytic Phonics** - Also known as implicit phonics. The sounds of words are taught in context of words. Students are presented with words that illustrate a certain sound. Through these examples and direct teacher questioning, students are expected to ascertain the sounds within the words. (146)
- **Synthetic Phonics** - Also known as explicit instruction. Sounds are taught in isolation. Students practice the sounds of letters and provide examples of words that contain the sounds. Students engage in blending the sounds to read the word. Synthetic phonics has been found to be more effective than analytic phonics. (147)
- **Word Identification** - Essential skill for early literacy development. Immediate - automatic or sight word is used for those words that you know on sight with little or no hesitation. Mediated - also known as word analysis or decoding or phonetic analysis is used for unfamiliar words. Need to use both of these in reading. (138)

Recommended strategies for alphabetics:
- **Word Making** - Students are provided with a limited set of letters on cards from which to create their own words. (150)
- **Word Sorts** - Students should sort the words and then read down each list to ensure that are reading the words and not merely relying on visual cues. (150)
- **Word Play** - Hink Pinks are examples of word play. Students are given clues that are solved by a rhyming pair. (150)
- **Word Walls** - Systematically organized collection of words that is displayed in large letters either on a wall or other large display areas in the classroom. (141)
- **Multisensory Techniques** - Techniques that add the kinesthetic sense are especially beneficial. Students can look at, say, and trace words. Can be enhanced with textual materials. (141)
- **Game Adaptations** - Go Fish and Memory and Candyland can be adapted for sight words. (142)
- **Word Hunts** - Children look through a familiar children’s book to find target words. (143)
- **Sentence Creation** - Students can use word cards to create numerous sentences. Can work individually, in pairs or in activity called living sentences. Each child is given a large word card and the children need to arrange themselves to create a sentence. (143)
- **Cloze Procedure** - Omits parts of a word or sentence and the student must come up with the missing word. (145)
- **McNinch Procedure** - (1) teacher presents the word in oral context, then written context (2) word is written in isolation, then questions are asked to focus attention (3) practice reading the word in sentences and phrases (4) practice reading the words in actual text with the teacher directing students to the words through questioning (5) independent practice. (145)
- **Guidelines for Explicitly Teaching Vocabulary** - (1) teach words in depth (2) help students link words to their schema to aid in long-term memory (3) provide explicit instruction in the strategies need for word learning (4) provide students with many opportunities to use the words in diverse ways through writing and oral language (5) be selective when teaching words. (181)
- **Brainstorming** - Before having the students read the selection, the teacher should select five or six key terms that are critical for understanding the selection and have the students write them down and any term they can associate it with. (181)
- **Semantic Maps and Concept Maps** - Students organize their knowledge about words through visual representation.
- **DISSECT** - To help secondary students decode words. Discover, Isolate, Separate, Say, Examine, Check, Try. (217)
- **IT FITS** - To help students remember unfamiliar vocabulary words. Identify, Tell, Find, Imagine, Think, Study. (217)
**Definition/Description of fluency:**
- **Fluency** - the ability to identify words quickly, with good pacing and appropriate phrasing and expression. (177)

**Recommended strategies for fluency:**
- **Read-Alouds** - When reading aloud teachers should be careful to engage children in the reading by activating their prior knowledge (schema) of the subject and asking for predictions. Students should be able to see the print as the teacher reads. At first the teacher can read the entire book, but they should work towards having the students participate in the text in various ways. (139)
- **Choral Reading** - After reading a book several times the teacher can involve the students by having them read certain parts of the text in unison. With each successive reading the students should become more involved and read more of the text. (139)
- **Echo Reading** - The teacher reads a part of a book and then the students echo the teacher’s part. The entire book is read in this manner. (139)
- **Reading Familiar Words or Refrains** - When rereading a book the teacher reads, but then pauses for the students to read a familiar refrain, rhyming word, or other predictable word. (139)
- **Guided Reading** - Should allocate most of the time reading in a guided reading lesson. Prereading and follow-up activities are important, but should not overwhelm the reading. Should provide support not be the main focus. (154)
- **Independent Reading** - Students should have time for independent reading of their choice everyday. (155)
- **Buddy Reading** - Two or more children read a book together. Less-abled readers may be paired with more-abled readers. Should learn about pacing, error correction, and the use of praise beginning. Four variations: (1) partners with the same book can read it to one another, one at a time (2) partners with different books can take turns reading the whole book while the partner looks at the pictures (3) partners with the same book can alternate pages (4) partners read the book in unison. (155)
- **Reader’s Theater** - Students practice reading scripts fluently and with expression. Then present the script to an audience. (179)

**Definition/Description of reading comprehension:**
- The main purpose for reading is to gain meaning from the text.
- Comprehension instruction should take up a majority of the instructional day. (174)
- **Comprehension** - Six characteristics: understanding the goal of read is constructing meaning, activating appropriate schema, focusing on major ideas, integrating and evaluating ideas with prior knowledge, inferencing, and monitoring ones’ meaning. (191)

**Recommended strategies for reading comprehension:**
- **Developing Knowledge of Word Meanings to Aid in Comprehension** - The following are tools to increase vocabulary that will hopefully lead to an increase in comprehension: vocabulary instruction, explicit vocabulary teaching, brainstorming, semantic maps and concept maps, morphemic analysis of words
- **Question-Answer Relationships** - Help students create better questions and understand the source for the responses. Two places to find answers: in the book or in my head. (190)
- **ReQuest or Reciprocal Questioning** - helps students to develop their own purposes for reading through self-questioning. Teacher-led and then gradual release of the question to students. (191)
- **Literature Circles** - Very effective means for stimulating student response to readings. Small, temporary discussion groups who have chosen to read the same story, poem, article, or book. (192)
- **Retellings** - Facilitate students understanding and memory for the selection through building
mental models of the reading, using elements of the organization format, and distinguishing important from unimportant elements. (193)

- **Read and Retell**- Consists of introducing the parts of retelling (events, details, characters, and descriptions) and modeling and practicing with the class. (193)

- **Directed-Reading-Thinking-Activity (DRTA)**- A group activity that prepares, guides and helps students assimilate the reading through the use of predictions. Preview the text, make predictions based on the preview, read the selection to see if predictions were correct, confirm or reject prediction with support from text. A follow up session is recommended. (194)

- **KWL**- Know, Want to Know, and Learn is a procedure developed to prepare students for reading, guide their reading, and record and remember the information gleaned from the reading. (194)

- **Readers’ Workshop**- Teachers provide large blocks of time for students to read and respond to the selections of their choice. Encourages students to take ownership of their reading and make connections between the reading material and their own lives. (195)

- **Read-Alouds**- Can help increase motivation which in turn can help increase comprehension. This can be a good way to wade through some potential difficult material in advanced stages of literacy. (195)

- **ASK IT**- a self-questioning strategy. Attend, Say, Keep, Identify, Talk. (220)

- **Look Back**- Teach students to look back to check and locate information when reading. (221)

- **Gist Summaries**- A recall procedure where students are taught to use single sentences to summarize information found in a paragraph. (221)

- **Hierarchical Summaries**- A recall procedure so students can be taught to recognize the structure within a text in order to enhance recall. Taught to develop an outline by skimming the passage, paying close attention to the heading, then reading each subsection to fill in the outline. (221)

- **Collaborative Strategic Reading**- Consists of four major components that are used before, during and after reading. (1) Preview (2) Click and Chunk (3) Get the Gist (4) Wrap Up. (223)

- **Graphic Organizers**- help students recognize the structure within expository text and use this structure to enhance recall. They provide students with a visual representation of the text. Four types: descriptive/thematic, sequential/episodic, compare/contrast, problem/solution. (224)
Theory/theories and models of reading portrayed:

- This text focuses on the neurological basis of learning to read and write.
- The goal of early intervention is to produce two outcomes: (1) removing any literacy problems for low achievers (2) helping to identify students with a continuing need for learning that is adjusted to their several handicaps.
- Emotional origins of intellectual development, thinking, and reasoning is often ignored in schools today, but are very important concepts.
- The use of language and its development depends on brain structure. For approximately 90% of the population the left hemisphere is superior at producing language and the conceptualization of what an individual wants to say and write. Understanding written and spoken language depends on the left hemisphere.
- The earlier and the more often both hemispheres are activated by use, the more likely the person will achieve perfection.
- Experience- Children need to have experience with literacy at an early age as to not be at a disadvantage in school. The more experiences a child has to draw on when learning to read and write, the better off he/she will be. The brain’s structure is determined by experience.
- Perception and Expectation- Perception requires a form of expectation and anticipation, of knowing what is about to confront us and getting ready for it.
- Visual Perception- the decision individuals make with the information they pick up with their eyes. In order to become literate children must learn how to use visual information they perceive to anticipate a meaning of a word, sentence, or story.
- Potential for Learning- Two conditions must be met: (1) the individual experiences and enriched environment, which includes positive social interactions and meaningful conversations (2) the individual has the will, which includes motivation and determination, to learn and relearn.
- Children do not all learn in the same way. Individuals have unique and specialized ways to develop concepts, think, and reason. Therefore, there is more than one way to successfully teach reading.
- Teachers who intervene early on when they observe the children’s frustration while attempting to learn something are more likely to help them persevere and reach their full potential.
- Every child has unlimited potential for learning. A teacher with a large repertoire of ideas and techniques to draw upon will be able to trigger any one of the children’s sensory maps.
- Provide many opportunities to facilitate the development of the children’s attention so that they are joyful, independent, self-directed learners from infancy and beyond.
- To help control attention, engage in conversation that is genuine and tied to a specific activity or task.
- Develop activities that are challenging and well within children’s capabilities.
- Children need to use many sensory modalities to explore every aspect in their environment.
- The role of movement in connecting and developing neural structures is well documented.
- Vygotsky- viewed language as the primary avenue to communication with others and the means through which children learn to communicate thoughts, represent their ideas in words, and share their experiences. Zone of Proximal Development- the distance between the child’s actual development and the child’s potential development.
**Definition/Description of alphabetics (phonics, phonemic awareness, vocabulary):**
- Phonics is not addressed in this text.
- Phonemic Awareness is not addressed in this text.
- **Developing Vocabulary** - The process by which children integrate their experience into a growing understanding of the world is how they learn to use language to convey specific meanings. (46)

**Recommended strategies for alphabetics:**
- Phonemic Awareness strategies are not addressed in this text.
- Phonics strategies are not addressed in this text.
- **Conversation** - begins to build vocabulary even before the age of two. (46)
- **Vocabulary Critical Factor** - how many times the child hears different words and the complexity of sentence structures. (46)
- **Language and Learning** - (1) when talking with children, interact in a warm personal way (2) play with young children and make the play enjoyable, not vocabulary lessons (3) attention span is generally limited, however conversations related to play are a meaningful activity will sustain attention and concepts are more likely to develop (4) recognize and praise children often (5) children will live up to the expectations of their parents and teachers. (57)

**Definition/Description of fluency:**
- Fluency is not addressed in this text.

**Recommended strategies for fluency:**
- Fluency strategies are not addressed in this text.

**Definition/Description of reading comprehension:**
- Reading Comprehension is not addressed in this text.

**Recommended strategies for reading comprehension:**
- Reading Comprehension strategies are not addressed in this text.
Theory/theories or models of reading portrayed:

- **Interactive model** - proposed by Rumelhart. Readers begin word identification and predict meaning at the same time and lower level processes, (word identification) and higher level processes (meaning) help each other. A combination of the bottom up model and top down model that is set up in a parallel fashion instead of a serial fashion. Based on four knowledge sources: syntactical, semantic, orthographic, lexical. (21)
- **Bottom-Up Model** - The reader starts with smaller elements of language, such as letters and words, and goes up to larger portions and meaning. (21)
- **Top-Down Model** - Readers start by predicting meaning and then move to identifying words. (21)
- **Interactive-Compensatory Model** - Significant for disabled readers and proposed by Stanovich. When there is a deficit in any of the knowledge sources, the reader compensates by using one or more of the others. Readers need a variety of knowledge sources to call on and also readers must be flexible in strategy use.
- **Sociocognitive-Processing Model** - Not only considers thinking process, but also takes into account social factors related to reading. Ruddell and Unrau model looks at several components: the reader, the teacher, the text and classroom. (24)
- **Vygotsky’s Model of Learning** - Not a model of reading, but still influential. Zone of proximal development a development area where tasks are slightly harder than what students can do by themselves. Scaffolding - temporary supports the learner until task can be completed independently. (26)
- Many of the strategies in this text are not explained directly, but presented in case study’s.

Definition/Description of alphabetics (phonics, phonemic awareness, vocabulary):

- **Phonemic Awareness** - hearing individual sounds that make up spoken words. (6)
- **Phonics** - the relationship between the sounds of spoken language and letters in written language. (6)
- **Vocabulary** - knowledge of word meanings. (6)
- **Word Recognition** - instant recall of words in which the reader restores to no obvious mechanisms to recognize the word. (225)
- **Automaticity** - can read the word and say it with no hesitation. (225)
- **Word Identification** - a reader directly calls into play one or more strategies to help in figuring out a word. (225)
- **Phases of Word Learning** - (1) pre alphabetic phase, logographic phase, or selective-cue phase (2) partialalphabetic, rudimentary-alphabetic, or visual recognition (3) full alphabetic, cipher, spelling-sound (4) consolidated-alphabetic or orthographic (5) automatic. (230)
- **Sequential Decoding** - students learn simple one-to-one correspondences between letters and the sounds the letters typically stand for. (272)
- **Hierarchical Decoding** - Concept that sometimes letters give clues to the sounds of other letters, as in certain common spelling patterns. (272)
- **Meaning Vocabulary** - the number of words for which that parson knows one or more meanings. (309)

Recommended strategies for alphabetics:

- **Context Clues** - use other words in the passage to detect what the unknown word should be. (226)
- **Word Practice Activities** - Contextual activities (used to promote transfer to connected text), focusing on internal features of words (used to encourage reflective, rather than impulsive, behavior, and recognition of unique sequences of letters in words), games and manipulatives (used to increase attention and to provide a stress-free form of practice). (237)
- **Exposure to Words** - All students need many exposures to a word before it becomes part of their
sigh vocabularies, especially at the automatic recognition level. (245)

- **Language Experience Stories**: A word recognition program based on student-dictated stories. The student dictates a story, which the teacher writes down as it is dictated. Then the student reads the story. (247)

- **Word Banks**: Any container in which students can keep track of their own personal word cards. (249)

- **The Four-Blocks Program**: Systematic program used in many schools and includes ample amount of word work. Divided in four daily segments or blocks: (1) guided reading with whole groups, small groups, and individuals (2) student self-selected reading (3) writing (4) working with words. (250)

- **Word Wall**: Classroom space where targeted words are displayed and become the center of intensive and imaginative lessons. (250)

- **Published Materials**: Such as scholastic High Frequency Readers, a set of materials featuring lap-sized books, little books, and take-home sheets to read to parents. (250)

- **Cloze Sentences**: Leave blanks in sentences where words on which the student is presently working would fit. (251)

- **Adapting Games**: Such as playing bingo with sight words. (251)

- **S-S-S**: Spelling, Sounding, Sensing. When two words are consistently confused, students may be asked to see how each one looks different from the other, to note the differences in the sounds of the two words, and to attend to the differences in the sense of each word. (253)

- **Every-Pupil-Response**: To increase opportunities for individual responses when groups of children are engaged in the same activity. Each student is given several cards on which possible answers are place and can later use them to respond to questions during instruction. (253)

- **Consonants**: composing alliterations, self-correcting matching games, playing guess and poke. (273)

- **Short Vowel Sounds**: Practicing vowel sounds in connected text reading, direct practice activities. (277)

- **Onsets and rimes**: Phonogram tic-tac-toe, create a crazy story, play with hink pinks. (278)

- **Consonant Clusters and Consonant Diagraphs**: Word sorts, group-response activities. (281)

- **Long Vowel Sounds**: Same suggestions as for short vowel sounds. (283)

- **R-controlled vowels**: Reading stories incorporating the patterns taught, matching activity. (284)

- **Structural Analysis**: Inflectional endings, spelling changes, contractions, compound words, prefixes, suffixes, syllabication. (290)

- **Dictionary**: Use the dictionary to help reinforce vocabulary instructions and learning. (314)

- **InDepth Processing Activities**: (1) involve students in process-oriented semantic mapping (2) employ product-oriented semantic maps (3) use word maps for different parts of speech (4) engage learners in semantic feature analysis (readers are helped to see associations and differences between semantically linked words through use of a relationship matrix) (5) have learners develop Venn diagrams (6) provide experiences with synonyms and antonyms (7) provide exposure to multiple meanings of words. (317)

- **Incidental Learning**: (1) explore students interest through interviews and interest inventories (2) provide time for sustained silent reading (3) read aloud to students who are at first reluctant to read to themselves (4) use videos or DVDs of children and adolescent books to excite interest in reading the book itself (5) use cassette or cd/book combinations to elicit interest in reading (6) use commercial audiotapes and cds (7) have the students join a book club (8) use books that particularly lend themselves to lessons on word meaning (9) fill shelves with books students can check out. (327)
Definition/Description of fluency:

- **Fluency**: reading both accurately and reasonably quickly. (6)
- **Components of Fluency**: accuracy, automaticity, prosody. (256)

Recommended strategies for fluency:

- **Easy Reading**: Opportunities to read in easy materials remove the task of overt decoding with which many delayed readers struggle. (258)
- **Repeated Readings**: Reading the same text repeatedly until a certain criterion has been met. Because of the many exposures to the word, word recognition may improve. (258)
- **Readers’ Theater**: Students read practice reading from scripts and eventually perform with the script in front of an audience. (259)
- **Modeling**: The teacher models how to read with fluency and expression and then gives the student a chance to try. The teacher and student take turns reading. (259)
- **Paired Reading**: Readers work together on texts, until accurate, fluent readings are produced. One way to do this is have readers work together that are at the same reading level and have them take turns reading. (260)
- **Choral Reading**: Reading selections in unison as an aid to fluency. Poetry and songs make good choices. (260)
- **Simultaneous Reading**: Originally called the neurological impress method (NIM). The teacher and student simultaneously read aloud from the same material. As they read the teacher slides a finger under each line to keep the pace. At first the teacher reads slightly faster than the learner. Students practice making quick responses to words they know and receive immediate feedback on words they are unsure about. (260)
- **Silent Reading**: helps with reading fluency by giving students a feel for language structure. (261)
- **Fluency Instruction**: (1) unless and activity incorporates a very substantial amount of direct teacher scaffolding, students should read material at their instructional or independent level (2) students need to develop automatic recognition of words (3) students need to engage in large amounts of connected text reading. (261)

Definition/Description of reading comprehension:

- **Comprehension**: understanding what is read. (6)

To comprehend we employ our knowledge of language and our knowledge of the world. We employ this knowledge to use propositions, schemata, and mental models. We also make inferences to help with these processes, inferences that are based on the text as well as on our prior knowledge. (343)

- **Schemata**: Is another name for background knowledge. When we know something about a topic, we activate and think about or schemata about the topic to understand what we read. (345)
- **Schema Theory**: What you already know or don’t know about a topic can greatly influence your comprehension. (346)
- **Intertextuality**: use of connections with past written texts to interpret the present text, as well as use of the texts of our past experiences. (347)
- **Mental Models**: We construct something in our thoughts similar to what is presented in the text. Readers can revise their mental models as they read a story. (347)
- **Explicit instruction**: (1) the teacher gives precise explanations about a comprehension strategy, frequently modeling or thinking aloud how the strategy is carried out (2) readers are given guided practice with the strategy (3) readers engage in independent practice in use of the strategy in specific exercises (4) the strategy is applied to regular, connected text. (354)
Recommended strategies for reading comprehension:

- **Previewing** - before reading, looking to see what the story is going to be about. (355)
- **Predicting** - attempting to guess what is going to happen in the text before reading. (359)
- **Drawing Conclusions and Inferences** - Conclusions involves statements in the text. Inferences requires the reader to use information from the text, but also outside information to make understanding. (361)
- **Main Ideas** - Most important idea the author has given about the topic. Also known as getting the gist. Can use the following to assist: heuristic devises, collaboratively outline paragraphs, ask key questions and have students combine the answers to arrive at implicit main points, collaboratively compose paragraph titles. (364)
- **DRTA** - Directed Reading Thinking Activity. State purpose for the strategy, make predictions about the text, have students read a beginning portion of the story, stop to verify predictions made, make new predictions, continue cycle. (366)
- **Accenting Content-Specific Story discussions** - During guided reading, teachers commonly ask students to pause in their reading at various logical points to discuss events that have transpired so far. (366)
- **Think Alouds** - Self-report of one’s own thinking operations. Helps students as they try to employ word identification strategies as well as follow a path to comprehension. (366)
- **Visual Imagery** - See pictures in their minds of the events they are reading about as they progress through the text. (367)
- **ReQuest** - Students are helped to monitor their understanding through asking questions, listening to teacher modeling, and setting purposes for reading. Asking questions about the text to students and the teacher. (369)
- **Questions** - Higher level comprehension involves use of interpretive thinking and, in some cases evaluative or creative responses. Drawing conclusions and inferences, determining the main idea, determining cause and effect relationships, sequence of events, imagery, critical reading skills. (371)
- **Games** - Effective comprehension games involve written text and require concentration on in-depth thinking. Question cards, creativity cards, evaluation cards. (371)
- **Grand Conversations** - Students can involve themselves in higher-level comprehension without teacher guidance. (372)
- **Story Maps** - Sequential listing of the important elements of a story called story grammar: characters, setting, problem and a goal to resolve it, events to solve the problem, achievement of the goal. (375)
- **Retelling** - Having readers retell in their own words what they just read about. (376)
- **Question Answer Relationships (QAR)** - Different strategies are needed for answering different kinds of questions. Two places to find the answer in the text or in your head. (377)
- **Character Maps** - Heuristics that provide an additional way to focus students on making inferences. (379)
- **K-W-L** - Designed to activate prior knowledge and to promote mental set for text so that the reader can interpret and construct meanings. Assessing what I know, Determining what I know, checking what I learned from my reading. (386)
- **Reciprocal Teaching** - The teacher demonstrates how to read and ask questions and summarize and involves students in the process. Slowly gives more and more responsibility to the students until they are doing the teaching. A shared process. (396)
- **Learning Journals** - A way for students to think on paper. (401)
- **Critical Reading** - the process or result of making judgments in reading or reading in which a questioning attitude, logical analysis, and inference are used to judge the worth of text according to an established standard. Judging the believability of what has been read. (406)
- **Studying** - Note taking, outlining, underlining, study guides (408)
APPENDIX C:

Data Analysis
## Theories/Models of Reading Portrayal

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<th>Concept</th>
<th>Special Education</th>
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<td>Piaget</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Vygotsky- zone of proximal development</td>
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