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Coordinating general classroom reading instruction with Reading Recovery instruction

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Abstract

"Our Nation is at risk. Our once unchallenged preeminence in commerce, industry, science, and technological innovation is being overtaken by competitors throughout the world" (The National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983, p. 5). 3 These were the opening words published in a 1983 letter to the people of the United States entitled, A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform. In 1981, the National Commission on Excellence in Education was created under the direction of the Secretary of Education, T. H. Bell. Its purpose was to investigate issues in America's education, define problems and identify solutions (The National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983). After examining the central issues, members of the Commission compiled a report and presented it to Secretary Bell and the American people.

Coordinating General Classroom

Reading Instruction With

Reading Recovery Instruction

A Graduate Project

Submitted to the

Division of Reading Education

Department of Curriculum and Instruction

in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Arts in Education

UNIVERSITY OF NORTHERN IOWA

by

Jane E. Bentley-Gadow

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has been approved as meeting the research requirement for the Degree of Master of

Arts in Education.

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Introduction

"Our Nation is at risk. Our once unchallenged preeminence in commerce, industry, science, and technological innovation is being overtaken by competitors throughout the world" (The National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983, p. 5).

These were the opening words published in a 1983 letter to the people of the United States entitled, A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform. In 1981, the National Commission on Excellence in Education was created under the direction of the Secretary of Education, T. H. Bell. Its purpose was to investigate issues in America's education, define problems and identify solutions (The National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983). After examining the central issues, members of the Commission compiled a report and presented it to Secretary Bell and the American people.

Since this letter was published over a decade ago, it appears that reports concerning public school transformation and effective teaching methods have been highlighted by the media. Currently the issues surrounding whole language and phonics instruction are dominating the education arena. Johnston (1997/1998) noted that some people have interpreted California's whole language philosophy as a "genuine experiment" that failed in its adequacy to meet the literacy needs of students (p. 284). Goodman (1993) described the word "phonics" by itself as being "politically charged" (p. 1). Closer to home, a local newspaper featured articles that presented the controversy, and debated the benefits of phonics versus whole language instructional practices in our schools. As a teacher, I have observed that the content of these reports has set off a wave of public concern about the quality of our literacy education. Parents are questioning whether or not educators are effectively teaching reading to their children. However, as Allington (1994) stated, "one should never

believe everything one reads. A more accurate summary of the current state of affairs is that American schools are doing quite well at what society once wanted them to do, but today society wants schools to accomplish more than in the past. This seems especially true in the area of literacy development" (p. 14).

As public education reforms to meet the demands of society and the literacy needs of children, a growing body of research by renowned educators in the field of reading suggests that early intervention is the key to preventing reading failure for most children (Pikulski, 1994). In fact, the results of a research study done in 1986 by Kennedy, Birman, and Demaline suggest that programs designed to remediate reading problems beyond the primary grades are mostly ineffective (Pikulski, 1994, p. 30). In recent years, tutoring programs for at-risk first graders are an option that is being implemented with increasing popularity (Wasik & Slavin, 1993). Although the cost of these programs can be a significant drawback, advocates for early intervention believe that first grade is a crucial time for "the learning of reading, and reading success in the early grades is an essential basis for success in the later grades" (Wasik & Slavin, 1993, p. 179). Five effective early intervention tutoring programs reviewed by Wasik and Slavin include 1.) Programmed Tutorial Reading--a supplementary program in which paid paraprofessionals and volunteers work with students for 15 minutes daily, 2.) Prevention of Learning Disabilities--a program where first graders who are diagnosed with reading disorders, based on instruments developed by the Learning Disorders Unit of the New York University Medical Center, receive individualized or small group instruction from certified teachers during 30-minute lessons scheduled three to five times weekly, 3.) Wallach Tutoring--one-to-one tutoring that utilizes paraprofessionals who work with students daily during 30-minute sessions for one year, 4.) Success for All--a schoolwide restructuring program for schools with a high population of disadvantaged youth that utilizes a major one-to-one

tutoring component that focuses on teaching the basic reading skills to students in the primary grades, and 5.) Reading Recovery--a program that provides individual tutoring for approximately 60 lessons by certified teachers who are specially trained in Reading Recovery instruction. Pikulski (1994) also noted the effectiveness of Success for All and Reading Recovery as compensatory programs for at-risk first graders, but more important, he suggested that the impact of these programs "might be even greater if classroom instruction were improved" (p. 34).

Certainly the need for effective quality classroom instruction for students who experience difficulty in reading and writing has been observed (Allington, 1993; Clay, 1991; Pikulski, 1994). For this reason, schools that are considering early intervention programs should first examine their general classroom reading instruction, and then foster collaborative efforts between general classroom teachers and the educators providing the remedial and compensatory instruction (Pikulski, 1994; Allington, 1993).

Although reports of the positive effects of teacher collaboration are increasing, teamwork is an enormous change for teachers who are accustomed to working independently (Erickson, 1995). Traditionally teaching has been an isolated profession in which adult interaction is limited. Teachers have a tendency to build a climate of privacy around themselves and their classrooms (Erickson). They become territorial and protective. According to Erickson (1995) collaboration "reduces one's autonomy...For some teachers, this reduction in autonomy may be too threatening" (p. 48). Certainly collaboration among teachers will "not arise spontaneously" (Hargreaves & Fullan, 1992, p. 230). In order to build an atmosphere which fosters collegiality and encourages teaming efforts, teachers need the support of ongoing professional development activities.

A particularly good case for professional development involves schools that have adopted Reading Recovery. Reading Recovery is a tutoring program that has

increasingly gained attention in recent years, and its use is rapidly expanding throughout the United States (Wasik & Slavin, 1993). Reading Recovery presents a different view in terms of how to teach reading. The program is student-centered and student-paced program. The instruction is explicit, and involves students reading real books (Routman, 1996). As a trained Reading Recovery teacher, I have observed the need for classroom teachers and Reading Recovery teachers to collaborate on instructional methods that support Reading Recovery students in the general classroom. In the absence of this collaboration, instruction becomes fragmented (Allington, 1993) and potentially confuses already struggling readers. Consequently, the purpose of this project was to compile researched teaching strategies that are aligned with Reading Recovery which could be incorporated into the general classroom.

Reading Recovery was originally developed by Marie Clay, a New Zealand teacher and school psychologist. It operates as an individual daily tutoring program designed for the prevention of early reading failure (Clay, 1993). The target population is first graders reading below the average of their class with the lowest achievers receiving priority (Pinnell, Fried, & Estice, 1990). Specially trained Reading Recovery teachers work with children during a series of 30-minute lessons.

Although Reading Recovery has increasingly gained recognition as an early intervention program for at-risk readers (Dudley-Marling & Murphy, 1997; Pikulski, 1994; Wasik & Slavin, 1993), it has also been the recipient of much criticism. Reports by both teachers and researchers allege that Reading Recovery is rigid and directive (Routman, 1996), places unrealistic time demands on the Reading Recovery teacher, places the students in the role of being responsible for school failure, and enables teachers to assume a diminished sense of responsibility for students' learning. In one report, Barnes (1996/1997), a Reading Recovery teacher, described concerns within

the context of practice. For example, the timed 30-minute daily lessons with students present a scheduling problem amidst the general events of the busy school day. Furthermore, the program is quite rigorous for the teacher who is required to keep pace with the extensive paperwork, lesson planning, and teacher training sessions. Barnes (1996/1997) also pointed to the differing philosophies held by educators in terms of the reading and writing processes; philosophies that may conflict with those taught within the context of the Reading Recovery training.

An even more problematic view of Reading Recovery is that it places the responsibility of school failure on individual students and thus "reduces the pressure for meaningful educational reform" (Dudley-Marling & Murphy, 1997, p. 462). Another argument states that where real systemic change is needed, Reading Recovery provides a smoke screen that functions to "preserve the status quo" (Dudley-Marling & Murphy, 1997, p. 461). Because of the individual tutoring, classroom teachers feel a diminished sense of responsibility for students' learning. For this reason, changes in classroom instruction are actually discouraged by the existence of Reading Recovery in schools (Dudley-Marling & Murphy, 1997). This is a critical issue because the research of Shanahan and Barr (1995) indicates that students served in Reading Recovery demonstrate a slowed rate of progress in second and third grade compared to average students. Because of this slowed rate of progress, a key element in the continued achievement of Reading Recovery students involves the effectiveness of subsequent classroom instruction after the intervention. According to Shanahan and Barr (1995), "Stability is likely to be maintained only if students receive classroom instruction that is responsive to the accelerated progress of these students...the effects of Reading Recovery and other early interventions are apparent for so long without such support..." (p. 982).

Although controversy exists among some educators over the basic tenets of Reading Recovery, support for the program has escalated since it was piloted in the United States in 1984-85 at the Ohio State University (Running Record Newsletter, 1995). During the pilot year, the first Reading Recovery teacher training class involved eleven teachers serving students in one school district. Since that time, Reading Recovery has gained both national and international attention. In 1995-96, 14,000 Reading Recovery teachers served over 100,000 students in 49 states and seven provinces and territories (Beaver, 1997). Despite the concerns previously discussed, it has been cited as one of the most successful intervention programs in practice in the United States for preventing early reading failure (Wasik & Slavin, 1993; Pikulski, 1994). Research results indicate that greater than 60% of first graders served in Reading Recovery improved their literacy rate to the average level of reading performance within their classrooms after 16 to 20 weeks of individualized daily instruction (Beaver, 1998; Fountas & Pinnell, 1996; Lyons, Pinnell, & DeFord, 1993). Johnston (1997/1998) highlighted Reading Recovery as "one of the better organized attempts to accommodate individual difference and reduce exclusion" (p. 284).

Support for Reading Recovery focuses on the active nature of the instruction and the informed decision-making by Reading Recovery teachers. Reading Recovery lessons are designed to actively engage children in reading and writing (Browne, Fitts, McLaughlin, McNamara, & Williams, 1996/1997). As children participate in the literacy process, teachers carefully observe and "make skilled decisions" based on those observations (Clay, 1993, p. 9) . The instruction is "highly supportive and focused on helping students untangle confusions and learn to construct meaning from print" (Browne, et. al.1996/1997, p. 295). Routman (1994) described Reading Recovery as "the best early intervention program I have ever seen, and school districts would do well to investigate its implementation" (p. 484).

Methodology

Regardless of how innovative Reading Recovery may be on its own merit, it still requires systemic support within a school in order to sustain quality and maximize results (Lyons, Pinnell, & DeFord, 1993). This means that administrative support for the program is critical. The principal is a key player who sets the tone for collaboration among staff members (Erickson, 1995). Furthermore, teachers will need to function as a team to determine successful Reading Recovery practices that are adaptable to the general classroom. Finally, efforts to communicate with parents are vital in order to build trust, initiate parent-teacher partnerships, and develop home-school literacy connections (Erickson, 1995). When administrators, teachers, and parents work together, the intervention process has the greatest impact on students' learning (Lyons, et al.,1993). Because of the significance of this collaboration, the purpose of the methodology section of this project is to review the literature and identify practices for the general classroom that are aligned with Reading Recovery.

Presently I teach in a school district that adopted Reading Recovery in 1993. Currently, in this particular district, eight Title I Reading teachers have completed the Reading Recovery training. These teachers were assigned to elementary buildings receiving Title I federal funding. They tutor four students in the Reading Recovery program as half of their teaching assignment. The other half of their day involves instruction with Title I groups.

The 1996-1997 Reading Recovery Site Report for my district indicates that 94.5% of programmed students (students who have received 60 or more lessons or who were discontinued from the program before 60 lessons) served in the Reading Recovery program improved their literacy rate to the average reading performance of their first grade classmates (S. Forbes, personal communication, May 8, 1998). Furthermore, these percentages have consistently remained above the national

average since the program was implemented in the district (S. Forbes, personal communication, May 8, 1998). Because of these results, primary classroom teachers were inspired to collaborate with Reading Recovery teachers and learn techniques that could be incorporated into the general classroom. In response to this interest, teachers and administrators investigated the instructional teaching strategies and techniques discussed in the book Guided Reading: Good First Teaching for all Children (Fountas & Pinnell, 1996). Fountas and Pinnell (1996) are leading advocates in the investigation, implementation, and development of the Reading Recovery Program. Clay's (1993) research provided a basis from which these authors developed the philosophy and practices described in the book. According to Clay (1993), an essential factor in preventing literacy problems involves the development of a well-designed early childhood reading curriculum that addresses the individual needs of students. A key component of an effective literacy program is the teacher's observation of children's reading and writing behaviors (Clay, 1991). Clay (1993) stated, "if we attend to individual children as they work, and if we focus on the progressions in learning that occur over time, such observations can provide feedback to our instruction" (p. 3).

Although Guided Reading: Good First Teaching for all Children (Fountas & Pinnell, 1996) is an important resource and one that will be referred to often throughout this project, a more extensive review of the literature would provide insight into additional classroom approaches that support Reading Recovery's instructional philosophy. Consequently, the classroom strategies in this project were identified through a review of the pertinent literature. The search was based on two criterion. First, researchers that supported Reading Recovery were identified (Clay, 1993; Cunningham, 1995; Cunningham & Allington, 1994; Fountas & Pinnell, 1996; Lyons, et al., 1993; Roller, 1996; Routman, 1994). Second, their work was reviewed for

strategies and techniques that were written for incorporation into the general classroom. In some cases, the work of these researchers led to other sources that offered additional information on the practices discussed in this project.

The instructional strategies that were reviewed were based on the seven components of a Reading Recovery lesson. Each component was considered in the literature review. The lesson components include:

1. independent reading with familiar books,
2. running record assessment of the new text from the previous lesson,
3. letter and/or word work,
4. writing a story,
5. a cut-up sentence for rearrangement by the student,
6. introduction of a new text, and,
7. the reading of the new text (Clay, 1993).

In the literature review of instructional strategies, each lesson component is briefly discussed in terms of its relevance in a literacy program. This discussion is followed by a concise description of one or more instructional approaches that are supportive of Reading Recovery and appropriate for the general classroom.

Independent Reading

Time that is set aside for familiar reading gives students the daily opportunity to practice reading independently. Research indicates that reading and rereading familiar books supports the literacy development of young children (Clay, 1993; Cunningham & Allington, 1994; Fountas & Pinnell, 1996; Harris & Sipay, 1985; Rhodes & Dudley-Marling, 1996; Routman, 1994). Independent reading presents two important features. First, it gives students the opportunity to practice reading behaviors with books that are familiar, but still require some problem solving (Clay, 1993).

Second, students have the power of choice. They can choose the books they will read and reread according to their interests. Studies show that choice is intrinsically motivating which consequently produces higher levels of engagement and increases learning (Roller & Fielding, 1996).

Because self-selection is a motivational factor during independent reading, the classroom library needs a variety of texts with a wide range of reading levels (Roller & Fielding, 1996). Materials such as big books, poetry, paperbacks and classroom publications provide interesting choices (Fountas & Pinnell, 1996). Organizing materials would also be beneficial for students. Assorted containers could hold books arranged by level of difficulty or sorted by author, theme, or genre. Baskets might display books that are used during guided reading lessons along with new texts "on the same level" (Fountas & Pinnell, 1996, p. 48). Boxes assigned to individual students could hold personal favorites, previously read selections from guided reading lessons, teacher generated texts, student published writings or student dictated texts.

Certainly the goal of classroom reading is for students to appropriately choose and read books independently (Fountas & Pinnell, 1996). However, with young children, independent reading time will require some flexibility early in the year. In other words, it may not be completely independent at first. Fountas and Pinnell (1996) suggest an activity called "read the room" in which the teacher and students read the written materials displayed throughout the entire classroom (p. 30). Bulletin boards, charts, big books, songs, poems, shared writings and so on could all be included in this extended activity. The point is to help students develop the concept that independent reading involves using all the available materials within the classroom.

Reading workshop is a highly regarded approach which fosters independent reading with children (Hagarty, 1992; Roller, 1996). The format is student-centered and has the flexibility to accommodate whatever range of reading abilities that exists in

the general classroom (Roller, 1996). In reading workshop, students select their own texts and are actively engaged in reading for approximately 30 minutes (Roller, 1996). The reading is self-paced and gives students an opportunity to practice what they have learned (Hagarty, 1992). Furthermore, rereading books, a daily practice in Reading Recovery, is encouraged during reading workshop as it "helps make hard books accessible" (Roller & Fielding, 1996, p. 48). Like Reading Recovery, reading workshops have structure. An example of this structure involves mini-lessons which are short instructional segments, often teacher-directed, and geared towards the specific needs of students (Hill, Johnson, & Noe, 1995). Mini-lessons could involve procedural topics such as rules of book care, or appropriate noise level during workshop time; literary topics such as genre or theme; and strategy topics in which the teacher models skills such as choosing appropriate books to read independently, rereading in order to self-monitor and check discrepancies (Does it look right and sound right?), and problem-solving unknown words through the use of picture, sentence, and graphophonics cues (Hagarty, 1992). Furthermore, teachers monitor individual progress through careful observation and student conferences during reading workshop. Finally, a sharing time allows students to talk about the books they have read with others in the class (Hagarty, 1992; Roller, 1996).

Running Record Assessment of the New Text from the Previous Lesson

The introduction and reading of a new text will be discussed later in this paper. The primary focus of this component is the running record assessment. The running record is an observation tool that empowers teachers to watch the current ways their students respond to print, and monitor children's progress over time (Clay, 1993). It is an important assessment as it provides a window for teachers to observe what a child is likely to do while reading independently (Clay). Clay (1993) describes the running record as the "pivotal observation" (p. 22) because it can help teachers design the

most effective instruction for their students. The procedure for taking running records is clearly outlined in <u>An Observation Survey of Early Literacy Achievement</u> (Clay, 1993). Reading Recovery teachers use this book during their training. The Reading Recovery teacher would be a primary resource as classroom teachers learn the technique. Basically, a running record involves the teacher and child sitting together while the teacher documents the responses of the student during the continuous reading of a text using the conventional markings developed by Clay (Fountas & Pinnell, 1996). Special planning and materials are not necessary for taking running records. After the technique is learned, all that is needed is a running record form or blank sheet of paper, pencil, and the child's text that is to be recorded. A running record can be taken whenever time permits with whatever text is being used in the classroom (Clay, 1993).

There are various options for managing running record assessment in the general classroom. I have observed arrangements where Reading Recovery and classroom teachers coordinate their schedules for assessment, and work as a team. If a team approach is not possible, classroom teachers schedule one running record each day. Over the course of four weeks to six weeks, depending on the size of the class, teachers are able to meet with all of their students. Fountas and Pinnell (1996) suggest that classroom teachers meet with a child during an independent work time, directly before or after a guided reading group or when other students are involved in independent reading. Teachers need to use what works well with their schedules.

Letter and/or Word Work

Clay (1993) stresses that instruction with isolated letters and words has a limited role in a literacy program, and should not become the central focus. In Reading Recovery lessons, work done with isolated letters and words is a brief activity lasting between one and three minutes. For most of the lesson, children are actively engaged in reading and writing. Clay (1993) also points out that children can begin reading with

a limited repertoire of letters and words. Isolated work on detailed items should focus on extending a child's knowledge of print by starting with what is known and moving slowly to new items of knowledge (Clay).

A review of the literature revealed that *Making Words* (Cunningham, 1995; Cunningham & Allington, 1994) is a general classroom approach to working with letters and words that is very compatible with the instructional practices of Reading Recovery. Two resources that thoroughly describe this strategy include Classrooms that Work: They can all Read and Write (Cunningham & Allington, 1994) and Phonics They Use: Words for Reading and Writing (Cunningham, 1995). Cunningham and Allington (1994) also include information on the planning and materials that are required for a making words lesson.

Making Words involves children actively participating in an engaging, hands-on activity in which they manipulate letters into words (Cunningham, 1995; Cunningham & Allington, 1994). Students are given a specific set of letters that ultimately come together to form one word. During the lesson, the teacher facilitates the word making by guiding children to form two letter words, then three letter words and so on until all of the letters are used to form the final word. This activity helps children discover rhyming patterns and spelling patterns in words. Children have opportunities to problem solve and locate discrepancies in their word making as they work through the lesson. More important, every student is involved and becomes an active participant in the word construction process regardless of their reading status in the classroom .

Writing

Reading and writing are related processes that impact one another (Roller, 1996). For children, daily writing is an important component in becoming literate (Lyons, et. al., 1993). Writing is a process of turning spoken language into printed messages (Lyons, et. al.). In fact, when books are included in the lesson, reading and

writing are linked as reciprocal resources (Lyons, et. al.). Furthermore, children use visual discrimination to analyze words as they record the letters that represent the sounds they hear. During writing, children utilize many similar operations that are necessary in reading. Therefore, when children write, they have opportunities to practice and "gain control of literacy concepts" (Clay, 1991, p. 109).

Certainly classroom teachers and Reading Recovery teachers could best support struggling readers and writers through ongoing professional articulation, and the development of shared instructional approaches that support students during writing. One approach involves the teacher initiating conversation with students, showing a genuine interest in what they say, and encouraging them to tell their story in writing. Another approach could involve encouraging students to articulate words slowly in order to hear sounds in new or unfamiliar words they want to write. Finally, students should have opportunities to practice high-frequency words (words that occur most frequently in language) from their writing (Clay, 1993). Teachers could have a variety of mediums available for practicing words including paint, water, sand, and chalk.

Researchers agree that effective literacy programs have writing activities that are meaningful in that students write about topics that are important or interesting to them (Button, Johnson, & Furgerson, 1996; Calkins, 1986; Clay, 1991; Fountas & Pinnell, 1996; Lyons, et al.,1993; Routman, 1994; Roller, 1996). In the general classroom, writing can occur within many contexts including shared writing, interactive writing, writing workshop (also referred to as guided writing), and independent writing (Fountas & Pinnell, 1996). Guided Reading: Good First Teaching for all Children (Fountas & Pinnell) provides valuable information on the design, organization and management of writing formats that can effectively play a part in a literacy program.

Shared writing is the language experience approach in which one child or a group of children compose a text and the teacher writes down the message (Fountas & Pinnell, 1996). The shared writing texts provide another source of reading material in the classroom. The texts could be recorded on chart paper and displayed on a wall or bulletin board. They could be recorded on drawing paper or handwriting paper and bound into class books. Also, the texts could be recorded on word processing and printed into individual books for students.

Interactive writing differs from the shared writing approach in that the teacher and a group of students work cooperatively to compose a message (Fountas & Pinnell, 1996). Teacher and students share in the writing with the students filling in letters or words they control. Students practice saying words slowly while they listen for parts they know, new words are analyzed, and finally, the teacher guides students to attend to concepts about print such as spacing, punctuation, and capitalization. Interactive writing allows children to take an active part in the writing process. With the teacher's help, students are empowered to create meaningful messages that can be read and understood by themselves and others.

Writing workshops, also called guided writing (Fountas & Pinnell, 1996), operate in a similar fashion as reading workshops except that students are engaged in the writing process. The writing time is approximately 30 minutes. Mini-lessons, teacher conferences, and peer conferences are used to guide students as they create their individual compositions. Sharing sessions give students an opportunity to show their finished work to the class. Because this process of instruction, writing, conferencing, and supportive feedback from peers is ongoing, students have many opportunities to experiment with their writing style, and develop their knowledge of the writing process (Fountas & Pinnell).

Independent writing is an activity in which students compose a text with minimal or no support from the teacher (Fountas & Pinnell, 1996). One example of independent writing involves response journals. After reading a text, students reflect on the information or meaning in the selection by writing down thoughts or ideas in a notebook (Hill, Johnson, & Noe, 1995). Independent writing activities such as journal writing give students an opportunity to practice what they have learned during interactive writing and writing workshop. Furthermore, the teacher's careful observation of students' work during independent writing will provide valuable information for the planning of future lessons. By consistently monitoring the students' application of such concepts as spacing, capitalization, punctuation, and sentence structure, the teacher can design lessons and mini-lessons that meet the literacy needs of children.

Cut-up Sentence

Reassembling a cut-up sentence (Clay, 1993) allows the child to practice important reading behaviors including left to right directional movement, locating a single word within the sequence of words in a sentence, self-monitoring for discrepancies during reading, cross-checking information sources to confirm a response, and segmenting spoken language into structural parts such as endings, syllables, and clusters. It is a task that begins with a text the child has practiced reading and rereading. A good source of familiar text is the student's writing. After the child rereads the sentence, the teacher transcribes it onto a paper or card stock strip. Next, the teacher cuts the sentence into words or phonemic segments that the student can successfully reassemble (Clay, 1993). The student reads each word as the teacher cuts it off of the sentence strip. Finally, the student reassembles the sentence and is encouraged to self-check his/her accuracy through rereading.

Busy classroom teachers are not as likely to use the cut-up sentence task as extensively as Reading Recovery teachers. However, classroom teachers have been observed using this important strategy during opportune times such as mini-lesson instruction, small group writing, small group reading activities, and writing workshop conferences.

Cunningham and Allington (1994) describe a classroom activity called *Being the Words* that is similar to Clay's (1993) task for reassembling cut-up sentences. For a *Being the Words* lesson, text from predictable books, songs or poems are displayed on chart paper or poster board. Students are given word cards and punctuation cards, and proceed to form sentences that match the text displayed on the chart paper. Teachers encourage students to self-check their sentences through rereading.

Clapping Syllables (Cunningham & Allington, 1994) is another important activity that helps students learn to hear sounds in words; it is also a recommended practice in Reading Recovery (Clay, 1993). Hearing sounds in words helps children as they analyze new words that they want to include in their writing. Clapping the syllables of words encourages children to hear the sounds in order. Once children can separate sentences into words, they can practice separating words into syllables (Cunningham & Allington, 1994). Clapping words allows every child to be an active participant in a practice that helps them say words slowly and listen for the parts.

Introduction of a New Text

Jim Trelease's (1985) text, The Read-Aloud Handbook challenged parents and classroom teachers to read daily to children. His writing cited research that clearly supported the positive effects of the read-aloud experience. Trelease (1985) stated, "Reading aloud to children stimulates their interest, their emotional development, and their imagination" (p. 11). More important, Trelease (1985) noted that reading aloud to children stimulates language development and reinforces skills in reading, writing,

and speaking. Children are influenced by models and will imitate them. Reading aloud provides an experience that models the richness of language and meaning in literature.

Stimulating interest in reading and modeling the language in books continues to play an important role as children begin to read independently. Educators can model the language and meaning of text through quality book introductions (Clay, 1993). This strategy could include a discussion about the pictures in a book, important ideas in the text, and unfamiliar words or phrases. "The teacher's introduction creates a scaffold within which children can complete a first reading of a whole story" (Clay, 1991, p. 265).

Introducing a book involves the teacher's use of easy conversation as the title page is discussed and background information regarding characters and setting is initiated (Clay, 1991). Next, the teacher engages students in a conversation about the pictures in the text, and encourages students to tell the story and make predictions based on the illustrations. As the teacher and students move through the book, the teacher gives clues about the plot, and provides opportunities for students to practice unusual or difficult language and patterns in writing (Clay). Also, students are invited to locate familiar words, and challenged to use picture and phonetic cues to locate one or two new words in the text (Clay, 1993). Clay (1991) suggests that book introductions involve the whole story so that students have a better understanding of the structure, meaning, and sequence of events. This understanding eases the task of independent reading, and allows the child to focus on challenges in the print without losing the meaning of the story. Book introductions are a valuable tool to facilitate independent reading. In New Zealand, where Reading Recovery was founded, teachers utilize book introductions as a regular part of their instruction (Clay, 1991).

Reading the New Text

Following a good book introduction, the child's attempt at the first reading is intended to be, as much as possible, an independent effort (Clay, 1993). Clay (1993) recommends shorter stories so that children can work through the entire selection. This experience helps children grasp the structure of the story as a whole. If the child reaches difficulty during reading, the teacher gives supportive prompts that foster searching behaviors and the processing of information needed for "efficient reading" (Clay, 1993, p. 37).

Guided reading is a general classroom format for reading new text that places children in a supportive instructional setting (Fountas & Pinnell, 1996; Routman, 1994). During guided reading, the teacher meets with small groups of students. It is necessary that the teacher is aware of students' strengths and weaknesses so that she can design the lesson to accelerate their literacy learning (Routman, 1994). During guided reading sessions, new books are introduced consistently (Fountas & Pinnell, 1996). Together, the teacher and students think and talk about the selections they read (Routman, 1994). Books are related to students' background experiences, teaching prompts support students as they are needed, and vocabulary is discussed in context (Routman, 1994). Reading selections are then displayed in containers and used during independent reading. Guided Reading is the basic foundation of a reading program (Fountas & Pinnell, 1996; Routman, 1994).

Parental Involvement

An important element of Reading Recovery that has not yet been addressed in this paper is parental involvement. During Reading Recovery training, teachers are encouraged to send home several familiar books with students daily. Clay (1993) stresses that children need many opportunities to read books at their level to help them become independent readers.

A useful technique for the general classroom that brings literacy into the homes of students is the "writing briefcase" (Fountas & Pinnell, 1996, pp. 39-40), a plastic case filled with assorted reading and writing materials that goes home with students on a rotational basis. I have observed classroom teachers implementing this technique with whatever carrying devices that are economical to obtain. Some teachers use travel bags donated by parents, fabric totes sewn by volunteers, file folders reinforced with contact paper, and plastic grocery bags. Teachers fill them with books, crayons, markers, puzzles, writing paper, shared writings, and students' published writings. The briefcase not only provides children with additional opportunities to read and write at home, but it also sends an important message about the value of literacy (Fountas & Pinnell, 1996).

The Project

The information collected in the literature review will be utilized in a series of professional development activities. The method of presentation involves a workshop format. The desired audience includes practicing teachers in the field who are part of a school system that has or will be using Reading Recovery as an early intervention program. The approximate time needed for presenting the information is five hours. The workshop is designed as either a one-half day session, or a series of five one-hour sessions. The preferred arrangement would involve a series of five one-hour sessions so that participants have time to practice what they have learned in their classrooms. The following schedule represents a general arrangement for presenting the workshop (see Figure 1).

Coordinating General Classroom Reading Instruction
With Reading Reading Recovery Instruction
Jane E. Bentley-Gadow

<u>Workshop Schedule</u>

Session One	1. Introduction activities	One hour
	2. Objectives of the workshop	
	3. Questions and concerns	
	4. Issues and research	
Session Two	1. Introduce the seven components of a Reading Recovery Lesson	One hour
	2. Lesson component one: Independent reading with familiar books	
Session Three	1. Lesson component two: Running record assessment	One hour
Session Four	1. Lesson component three: Letter work and/or word work	One hour
	2. Lesson component four: Writing stories	
	3. Lesson component five: Cut-up sentences	
Session Five	1. Lesson component six: Book introductions	One hour
	2. Lesson component seven: Reading a new text	
	3. Closing comments and questions	

<u>Figure 1.</u> A typical workshop schedule for implementing Reading Recovery practices in the general classroom.

The format planned for introducing the workshop will involve Erickson's (1995) three-stage "unfreezing" activities (pp. 81-82). During the first stage, I will introduce myself and welcome the participants. Next, the participants will each be given a 3x5 card, and invited to write down what they expect to learn during the course of the workshop. Participants will be asked not to identify themselves on their card in an effort to encourage honesty in the comments that are written.

As we move into the second stage of the introduction activities, I will explain the primary objectives of the workshop, which include: 1.) reviewing research that supports the coordination of classroom reading instruction with Reading Recovery, and, 2.) reviewing research-based strategies that are supportive of Reading Recovery and appropriate for the general classroom. Following this brief overview of the objectives, I will display the workshop schedule on an overhead projector (see Figure 1). As a means for encouraging feedback and discussion, participants will be handed a second 3x5 card and asked to write a question or concern about the workshop topic, *Coordinating General Classroom Instruction with Reading Recovery Instruction.* Next, participants will be asked to arrange themselves in pairs or triads, and express their question or concern with others in an informal sharing session (Erickson, 1995). During the discussion, I will review the first set of 3x5 cards to gain insight into the perspectives, expectations, needs, and dynamics of the group.

During the third and final stage of "unfreezing" (Erickson, 1995, pp. 81-82), participants will be asked to reconvene as a large group. At this time, the discussion will be open for further comments about the items recorded on the second set of cards. If specific concerns arise, individuals or small groups will be invited to meet with me to discuss those issues following the workshop session.

Using the topic of questions and concerns as a transition into the information segment of the workshop, I will use an overhead projector to display a summary of the concerns from the literature review regarding Reading Recovery (see Figure 2).

Reading Recovery Concerns

~Reading Recovery is rigid and directive (Routman, 1996).

~Reading Recovery places unrealistic time demands on the Reading Recovery teacher (Barnes, 1996/1997).

~Reading Recovery places students in the role of being responsible for school failure (Dudley-Marling & Murphy, 1997) .

~The existence of Reading Recovery in schools enables teachers to assume a diminished sense of responsibility for students' learning (Dudley-Marling & Murphy, 1997).

Figure 2. Concerns from the literature review regarding Reading Recovery.

Using a lecture format (Erickson, 1995), I will follow the concerns with an update of the current research that supports Reading Recovery, and the positive effects of collaboration between general classroom teachers and Reading Recovery teachers (see Figures 3 and 4).

Research that Supports Reading Recovery

~During the pilot year in 1984-1985 at the Ohio State University, the first Reading
Recovery teacher training class involved eleven teachers serving students in one
school district. In 1995-1996, 14,000 Reading Recovery teachers served over
100,000 students in 49 states and seven provinces and territories (Beaver, 1997).

~Research results indicate that greater than 60% of first graders served in Reading
Recovery improved their literacy rate to the average level of reading performance
within their classrooms after 16 to 20 weeks of individualized daily instruction
(Beaver, 1998; Fountas & Pinnell, 1996; Lyons. Pinnell, & DeFord, 1993).

~Reading Recovery has been cited as one of the most successful early intervention
programs in practice in the United States for preventing reading failure (Wasik &
Slavin, 1993; Pikulski, 1994).

~Johnston (1997/1998) highlighted Reading Recovery as "one of the better organized
attempts to accommodate individual difference and reduce exclusion" (p. 284).

~Routman (1994) described Reading Recovery as "the best early intervention program
I have ever seen, and school districts would do well to investigate its implementation"
(p. 484).

Figure 3. Research that is supportive of Reading Recovery as an early intervention
program for the prevention of reading failure.

<u>Research that Supports Collaboration Between</u>

<u>Reading Recovery Teachers and Classroom Teachers</u>

~An important first step involves the development of a common philosophy between
classroom teachers and Reading Recovery teachers (Shanahan & Barr, 1995).

~Another important element involves the development of a comprehensive plan in
schools that addresses the literacy needs of students in which Reading Recovery is
one component, "but not the whole of the plan" (Shanahan & Barr, 1995, p. 990).

~Reading Recovery would have a greater impact if there were congruence between
classroom instruction and Reading Recovery instruction (Shanahan & Barr, 1995;
Pikulski, 1994).

~"No extra program, not even one as powerful as Reading Recovery works alone. It is
the partnership between the classroom teacher and the Reading Recovery teacher
that makes it possible for the lowest achievers to make accelerated progress..."
(Fountas & Pinnell, 1996, p. 197).

<u>Figure 4.</u> Research that supports Reading Recovery, and the positive effects of
collaboration between classroom teachers and Reading Recovery teachers.

Articles and books that support the research, and are included in the reference
section of this project, will be available for participants to peruse at the end of the
session (see bibliography at the end of this section). During the lecture, unfamiliar
terms will be clarified through explanations or examples utilizing relevant excerpts
from the introduction and methodology chapters of this project (see pp. 1-22).

Participants will be encouraged to ask questions at any time, or ask for clarification when it is needed.

Session Two

During the second session, previous arrangements will have been made for participants to meet in a first- or second-grade classroom. The initial focus will involve the seven components of a Reading Recovery lesson. These components will be displayed on a chart at the front of the room. The seven lesson components will be the center of focus during the remaining sessions of the workshop in terms of strategies and practices that support Reading Recovery, and are appropriate for the general classroom. The lesson components include:

1. independent reading with familiar books,
2. running record assessment of the new text from the previous lesson,
3. letter and/or word work,
4. writing a story,
5. a cut-up sentence for rearrangement by the student,
6. introduction of a new text, and,
7. the reading of the new text (Clay, 1993).

The first lesson component, independent reading with familiar books, will be addressed during the second session. Running records will be covered during the third session. Letter and/or word work, writing a story, and the cut-up sentence will be included in the fourth session. Finally, the fifth session will cover the introduction of a new text and the reading of the new text.

As we move into the first lesson component, an overhead transparency that states the definition and features of independent reading will be displayed and

discussed, including research that supports reading and rereading familiar books (see Figure 5).

Independent Reading

Students are provided with daily opportunities to practice reading independently.

Important Elements of Independent Reading

1. Students have the opportunity to practice reading behaviors with books that are familiar, but still require some problem solving.

   ~Research indicates that reading and rereading familiar books supports the literacy development of young children (Clay, 1993; Cunningham & Allington, 1994; Fountas & Pinnell, 1996; Harris & Sipay, 1985; Rhodes & Dudley-Marling, 1996; Routman, 1994).

2. Students choose the books they will read and reread according to their interests.

   ~According to Roller and Fielding (1996), choice is intrinsically motivating which consequently produces higher levels of engagement and increases learning.

Figure 5. Definition of independent reading and two important elements of independent reading along with research that supports reading and rereading familiar books.

Organization for books and materials used during independent reading will be demonstrated through multiple displays of books throughout the room featured in various arrangements and assorted containers. I will present two approaches for fostering independent reading in the general classroom. These include "read the room" (Fountas & Pinnell, 1996. p.30), and reading workshop (Hagarty, 1992; Roller, 1996.)

"Read the room" is described in Guided Reading: Good First Teaching for all Children (Fountas, & Pinnell, 1996, p. 30). This book will be available for participants to examine following the workshop session. As stated earlier in the literature review, "Read the room" is an activity in which the teacher and students read the written materials displayed throughout the classroom. The purpose of this activity is to help students develop the concept that independent reading involves using all of the materials in the classroom. Through demonstration, I will model the technique with a limited number of items in order to clarify the strategy, and still maximize the use of workshop time. The demonstration items for the strategy will include a bulletin board already displayed in the classroom, a big book, a shared writing product, and a song (see project file).

Reading workshop is another approach that fosters independent reading (Hagarty, 1992; Roller, 1996). An important resource for learning about reading workshop is Variability not Disability (Roller, 1996). This book will be available for workshop participants to examine. A visual overview of the components of a reading workshop lesson will be displayed on the overhead (see Figure 6).

Reading Workshop

~Students select their own texts.

~Students are actively engaged in reading for approximately 30 minutes.

~The reading is self-paced and gives students an opportunity to practice what they have learned.

~Rereading familiar books is encouraged.

~Mini-lessons provide necessary instruction that is geared towards the specific needs of students. Mini-lessons could involve procedural, literary, or strategy topics.

~Teachers monitor individual progress through careful observation and student conferences.

~A sharing time allows students to talk about the books they have read with others in the class.

Figure 6. The basic components of a reading workshop.

Also, a mini-lesson will be demonstrated on "The Goldilocks Strategy" (Ohlhausen & Jepsen, 1992), a technique that helps children self-select appropriate books (see project file). Finally, a list of suggestions for future mini-lessons (see Figure 7) will be provided based on those listed in <u>Readers' Workshop: Real Reading</u> (Hagarty, 1992).

<div align="center">Mini-lessons</div>

Procedural Topics:

~Where to read during independent reading.

~How to prepare for a conference with the teacher.

~How to share a book you have read.

~How to respond when someone else is sharing.

Literary Topics:

~Making predictions.

~Making personal connections to background experiences.

~Identifying similarities in books written by the same author.

~Examining character development.

Strategy Topics:

~How to select an appropriate book.

~What you could do when you come to a word you do not know.

~What you could do if you do not understand what you read or if it did not make sense.

~How to utilize sticky notes to mark important parts.

<u>Figure 7.</u> A list of mini-lesson topics based on those listed in <u>Readers' Workshop: Real Reading</u> (Hagarty, 1992).

<u>Session Three</u>

The running record session will involve a combination of instructional formats including lecture, demonstration, and practice. The rationale for using running record assessments is based on Clay's (1993) research, and will be discussed briefly. According to Clay (1993), the running record enables teachers to observe what a child is likely to do while reading independently. The procedure for running records is taken from the information outlined in <u>An Observation Survey of Early Literacy Achievement</u> (Clay, 1993). This text will be available as a resource for this session. The procedure for this workshop includes the following five components:

1.) The teacher and student sit together while the teacher observes the student during the continuous reading of a text,

2.) The teacher marks correct responses,

3.) The teacher marks errors,

4.) The teacher notes self-corrections, and,

5.) The teacher tabulates the findings.

Using an overhead projector, I will demonstrate some conventional markings used to take running records, and discuss scenarios that might occur while recording a child's continuous reading of a text (see Figure 8).

Marking and Scoring a Running Record		
Reading Behavior	**Convention**	**Scoring**
Words read correctly	√ √ √	No errors
Substitutions	response / text	One error
Several attempts at a word	response	response	response / text	One error
A teacher told word	— / text	T	One error
Appeal with teacher told	—	A	/ text	—	T	One error
Appeal with the teacher asking the child to try again	—	A	/ text	you try		No error
Omission	— / text	One error
Inserted word	response / —	One error
Repetition	√ √ / Rⁱ √ √	No error

Figure 8. Some basic conventions used to mark a running record, and the scoring of reading responses.

Next, I will give the participants an opportunity to practice the markings. As I read from a transcript of text previously marked with a predetermined series of errors and self-corrections, participants will take a running record using standard white paper and pencils (see Figure 9 for the running record, and project file for the text).

Page	<u>Look at me</u> (Randall, 1996)	E	SC
2	✔ ✔ ✔ ✔ <u>like</u> ✔ am	1	
4	✔ ✔ ✔ ✔ <u>like</u> <u>coloring</u> am drawing	2	
6	✔ ✔ ✔ ✔ <u>like</u>|sc ✔ am |		1
8	✔ ✔ ✔ ✔ ✔ <u>w-w-r</u>|A| writing | |T	1	
10	✔ ✔ ✔ ✔ ✔ <u>—</u>|A| building| |T	1	
12	✔ ✔ ✔ ✔ ✔ ✔ R		
14	✔ ✔ ✔ ✔ ✔ ✔		
16	✔ ✔ ✔ ✔ ✔ <u>sleeping</u> resting	1	

<u>Figure 9.</u> A transcript of text previously marked with a predetermined series of errors and self-corrections.

Following this task, I will review the errors made during the reading so that participants can self-check their markings and ask additional questions for clarification. Participants will then be instructed on the procedure for scoring the errors and self-corrections and calculating the errors (see Figure 8 on p. 31 and Figure 10).

Calculating Running Record Errors

Error Ratio: $\underline{\text{Running Words}}$ = Indicates the ratio of errors to words read.
Errors

Example: $\dfrac{100}{5}$ = 1:20

Accuracy: 1. Total number of words - Total number of errors =

e.g. 100 - 5 = 95

2. Divide the result by the total number of words.

Example: $\dfrac{95}{100}$ = 95%

Self-correction Rate: $\underline{\text{Errors + Self-corrections}}$
Self-corrections

Example: $\dfrac{5 + 4}{4}$ = 1 : 2.25

Figure 10. Scoring a running record based on Tidwell (1997).

In an effort to provide additional practice, participants will be asked to team together in pairs. Each pair will receive two practice sets, each containing two copies of the same text. One of the copies in each set will be transcribed with a series of errors and self-corrections (see Appendix). While one participant reads from the text with errors, the other will take a running record. At the end of the reading, partners will switch roles.

Participants will again score their running records. I will review the correct marking and scoring for the practice sets so that participants can self-check their accuracy. At the closure of this session, participants will be asked to practice running record assessment with students in their own classrooms, and bring questions and concerns to the next workshop session.

Session Four

The fourth session of the workshop involves three components which include letter and word work, writing stories, and cut-up sentences. The two instructional formats to be used in this session are lecture and demonstration. Participants will be actively involved during the demonstration phase.

Letter and word work. Making words (Cunningham, 1995; Cunningham & Allington, 1994) is a strategy for working with words that is supportive of Reading Recovery. A complete guide for preparing and teaching a making words lesson is outlined in Phonics They Use: Words for Reading and Writing (Cunningham, 1995), and Classrooms that Work: They can all Read and Write (Cunningham & Allington, 1994). Both texts will be available for participants to examine. I will model a making words lesson while participants assume the role of the students. Each participant will receive a letter holder constructed from a file folder and seven letter cards. Each card has a lowercase letter printed on one side and the corresponding uppercase letter printed on the reverse side. Consonant letters are printed in black ink and vowels are

printed in red (see project file for examples). As the leader, I will work at the front of room using a large pocket chart and oversized letters. Together we will work through the process of making two-letter words, then three-letter words and so on. Through this activity, participants will learn how students can discover spelling patterns and rhyming words. Participants will work toward using all of their letters to construct the big word--friends.

Writing stories. Because writing is an important component in a literacy program, the time will be taken to briefly summarize the research that supports writing activities in the classroom. An overview of the different types of writing that could be incorporated into the general classroom, and the components of each type will be displayed on charts (see project file). Examples of shared writing products, independent writing journals, and samples of writing workshop products will be displayed also (see project file for examples). During the writing session, an interactive writing lesson will be modeled.

Interactive writing begins with the teacher and students cooperatively composing a text. As the leader, I will invite participants to engage in casual conversation until we compose a message that, as a group, we agree to put into print. Together the teacher and students share in the writing with the students filling in letters and words that they know. In order to demonstrate the activity, I will have participants practice articulating words slowly, clap syllables, fill in letters or words, and I will guide them in mechanical items such as spacing and punctuation. When we have completed our message as a group, I will use the printed message to demonstrate the cut-up sentence component.

Cut-up sentences. On a sentence strip, I will record the message that we composed during interactive writing. I will clarify to participants that this activity is typically done with individual students. Next, I will engage the help of a volunteer.

Holding the sentence so that it is directionally appropriate for the reader, I will cut it into words while the reader continuously reads each word as it is cut from the strip. Then the words are mixed for rearrangement by the reader. The time will be taken during this session to briefly discuss the reading behaviors practiced by using the cut-up sentence as an instructional strategy with young readers (see Figure 11).

Reading Behaviors Practiced

~left to right directional movement.

~locating a single word within the sequence of words in a sentence.

~self-monitoring for discrepancies during reading.

~cross-checking information sources to confirm a response.

~segmenting spoken language into structural parts such as endings, syllables, and
clusters.

Figure 11. Reading behaviors practiced through reassembling the cut-up sentence based on Clay (1993).

A variation of the cut-up sentence activity is a *Being the Words* lesson (Cunningham & Allington, 1994). This lesson is outlined in Classrooms that Work: They can all Read and Write (Cunningham & Allington, 1994) which will be available as a resource. Being the Words involves children reassembling sentences from a familiar poem, chant, or predictable book. This activity will be described in terms of materials, preparation, and instruction (see Figure 12). Sample materials for a *Being the Words* lesson will be displayed (see project file) utilizing the big book, The Three Billy Goats Gruff (Smith & Parkes, 1997).

Being the Words Lesson

Materials Needed:

~Text which could include a predictable book, chant, or poem.

~Chart paper or poster board that displays the selected text.

~Word cards and punctuation cards that match the selected text.

Procedure:

~After students have practiced reading and rereading a selected text, students are
given word cards and punctuation cards, and proceed to form sentences that match
the text displayed on the chart paper or poster board. Students are encouraged to
self-check their assembled sentences through rereading.

Figure 12. Materials, preparation, and instruction involved in a *Being the Words*
lesson.

Session Five

The last session includes book introductions, reading the new text, and
concluding activities. The session will begin with a reference to Trelease's (1985) text,
The Read-Aloud Handbook, and a summary of the positive effects of reading aloud to
children (see project file). According to Trelease (1985), reading aloud to children
stimulates language development, and reinforces skills in reading, writing and
speaking. Furthermore, Trelease (1985) suggests that children are influenced by
models, and reading aloud provides an experience that models the richness and
meaning of literature. Trelease's (1985) concepts involving stimulating interest and
modeling language will serve as a background for understanding the steps involved in
a book introduction (Clay, 1991). Utilizing the big book, Hattie and the Fox (Fox, 1993),

I will demonstrate a complete book introduction (see Figure 13) based on the practices outlined in <u>Introducing a New Storybook to Young Readers</u> (Clay, 1991).

Introducing a New Text

1. Introducing a book begins with the teacher's use of easy conversation as the title page is discussed and background information regarding characters and setting is initiated.

2. The teacher engages students in a conversation about the pictures in the text and encourages students to tell the story and make predictions.

3. As the teacher and students move through the book, the teacher gives clues about the plot and provides opportunities for students to practice unusual or difficult language and patterns in writing.

4. Students are invited to locate familiar words, and challenged to use picture and phonetic cues to locate one or two new words in print.

<u>Figure 13.</u> Procedure for introducing a new text based on Clay (1991).

Following the book introduction, guided reading will be discussed as an instructional format during the reading of a new text. Although the students' first reading of a text is intended to be an independent effort, the teacher acts as a supportive partner if students reach difficulty during reading. Guided reading places children in a supportive setting. <u>Guided Reading: Good First Teaching for all Children</u> (Fountas & Pinnell, 1996) is an important reference for teachers who want to learn

more about this instructional format. The book will be available for participants to study. A visual overview of the basic components of guided reading will be displayed on the overhead (see Figure 14).

Guided Reading

~the teacher and a small group of students work together.

~texts that are appropriately selected for students' that can be read with minimum difficulty, but will require some problem-solving.

~a thorough book introduction that supports students' independent, first reading of a new text.

~teaching prompts that support students as they are needed.

~the teacher and students thinking and talking about the selections they read.

~the teacher's recorded observations of students' reading behaviors that indicate both strengths and weaknesses so that lessons can be designed to accelerate literacy learning.

~the introduction of new books on a consistent basis.

~the availability of previously read selections for familiar reading practice.

Figure 14. The basic components of guided reading (Fountas & Pinnell, 1996; Routman, 1994).

Also, suggestions for organization and management of guided reading lessons will be presented using appendices D--a ten-day management plan, E--a weekly record, F--a second version of a weekly record, G--an observation record, H--a record of reading progress, and I--a second version of a reading progress record, all taken from Guided Reading: Good First Teaching for all Children (Fountas & Pinnell, 1996, pp. 215-225). As stated previously, this text will be available for participants to examine.

The conclusion of the workshop will involve a time for reflective writing. Participants will be given paper and pencils and asked to reflect on the concept of community learning as it relates to collaborative efforts between classroom teachers and Reading Recovery teachers, the principal's role in fostering collaboration, and home-school partnerships. At the conclusion of the writing time, participants will be invited to share comments, questions, or concerns from their reflective writings. Finally, a graphic organizer that includes students, parents, teachers, and administrators as each having a significant role in the learning process will be displayed on an overhead. The graphic (see Figure 15) will serve as an example of a poster or bulletin board that could be displayed throughout a school as a visual means of encouraging support for community learning (Radenchich, Beers, & Schumm, 1993). Developing partnerships, working collaboratively, and communicating effectively are essential ingredients for strengthening the learning community so that early intervention programs like Reading Recovery can reach the highest level of effectiveness.

S__CCESS

| Students | Parents | Teachers | Principals |
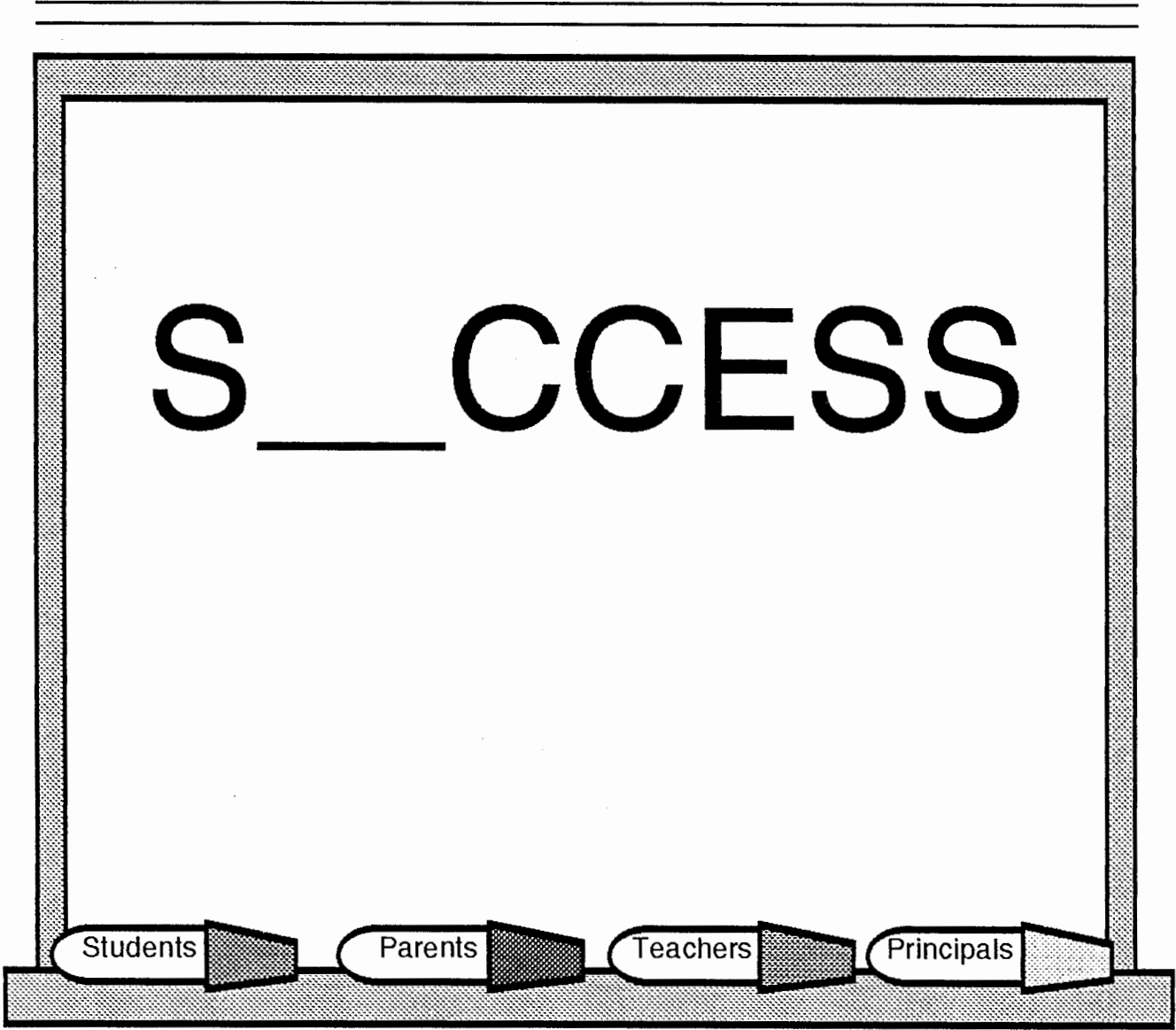
We need "U" to spell success!

Figure 15. Developing partnerships, working collaboratively, and communicating effectively are essential ingredients for strengthening the learning community (adapted from local disrict).

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Conclusion

Since A Nation At Risk was published in the last decade, schools have been continuously challenged to examine their programs and instructional methods in the area of literacy development. As educators work to meet the diverse needs of children, a growing body of research indicates that early intervention programs are a primary factor in the prevention of reading failure (Pikulski, 1994). This is important information for schools because research also indicates that programs designed to remediate reading problems after the second grade are mostly "unsuccessful" (Pikulski, 1994, p. 30).

Reading Recovery, a program developed by Marie Clay, is an example of an early intervention program that has had positive results with over 60 % of students served improving their literacy performance to the average of their first-grade classmates (Beaver, 1998; Fountas & Pinnell, 1996; Lyons, Pinnell, & DeFord,1993). Nevertheless, even effective intervention programs like Reading Recovery require support within the school system in order to sustain quality and maximize results (Lyons, et al., 1993). Compensatory programs like Reading Recovery will have the greatest impact when classroom teachers and Reading Recovery teachers work together, sharing common goals that help the lowest achieving students make progress in their literacy development (Fountas & Pinnell, 1996).

Certainly systemic support for Reading Recovery will not occur spontaneously. Implementing Reading Recovery into a school system brings inevitable changes which can lead to resistance by some. Change disrupts certain routines and established operations that people are accustomed to using (Lyons, et al., 1993). Lyons, et. al. (1993) stated, "sometimes rules and operations become so entrenched that they become ends in themselves rather than means to accomplishing goals" (p. 196). Reading Recovery presents a very different view of reading instruction that could lead

to conflict in a school system. Implementing Reading Recovery requires policy change in terms of training teachers and serving students individually. It challenges educators to consider a different approach for educating struggling readers (Lyons, et al., 1993). Finally, it opens the door for teachers to turn their perceptions about instruction inward and examine their own philosophies and effectiveness. These changes could be perceived as threatening to some teachers and leave them feeling isolated and frustrated. Teaching is a profession where adults are already isolated from other adult interaction simply by arrangement (Eckmier & Bunyan, 1997; Quinn & McKay, 1997; LeJeune, 1997; Woods & Weasmer, 1997), and feeling threatened would only serve to increase those feelings of isolation. Hargreaves and Fullan (1992) stated, "classroom isolation carries its own problems. If isolation purges the classroom of blame and criticism, it also shuts out possible sources of praise and support. Isolated teachers receive little adult feedback on their value, worth and competence" (p. 220).

For schools that have or plan to implement Reading Recovery, efforts should be made to build community among staff members. Although there is not a prescribed method for developing collegiality, the outcome, when it is achieved is a sense of belonging, with members who contribute positively toward the accomplishment of goals (Quinn & McKay, 1997). LeJeune (1997) offers two suggestions for administrators on fostering collegiality. First, teachers need opportunities to gather and share ideas. Second, teamwork should be promoted and rewarded. Also, Erickson (1995) noted the importance of "gripe sessions" in which teachers have the opportunity to voice issues, concerns, and complaints in an open and interactive format so that problems do not fester and stifle creative thinking (pp. 90-91). Woods and Weasmer (1997) suggest that teachers contribute to collegiality by striving for effectiveness, getting involved in school projects and even volunteering for leadership roles, collaborating with other teachers, and staying current by reading professional

literature. Radencich, Beers, and Schumm (1993) highlight the importance of professional demeanor that fosters collegiality including helpfulness, respect, friendliness, positiveness, sincerity, thoughtfulness, and communication. Perhaps the entire staff will not participate in collegial efforts initially, but "success with even a small number of people usually leads to expansion and more success" (Eckmier & Bunyan, 1997, p. 45). In some cases, one or two teachers might hold firmly to former routines or operations. Routman (1996) notes that at some point teachers and administrators will need to work together and say "*This is what we expect. This is the direction we're going in.* Otherwise huge gaps are created" (p. 63).

This project attempts to address the issue of collegiality and the development of a shared vision of literacy across general classroom and Reading Recovery programs. Collegiality minimizes feelings of isolation, and empowers educators to combine their energies, and focus on what is best for student learning (Routman, 1996). Engaging in collaborative efforts increases professional sharing and communication. It generates an atmosphere of respect, acceptance, and support that strengthens the learning community so that innovative programs like Reading Recovery can reach the highest level of effectiveness, and have the greatest impact on students' learning.

More staff development projects are needed to examine the benefits of collegiality as a means to build community and achieve goals. One example involves designing meaningful teacher inservices that foster collaboration. Radencich, Beers, and Schumm (1993) note that "inservice has too often done something to people rather than with them" (p. 135). Inservices that are done to teachers, place staff members in a passive role. As a result, the level of teacher engagement is often limited within the framework of the inservice session with little or no follow-through in daily practice. Inservices designed to promote collegiality would require careful planning,

preparation for a long-term effort, and involve multiple opportunites for teacher participation, interaction, feedback, and coaching (Radencich, Beers, & Schumm, 1993).

Another example for staff development involves the sociological factors with regard to teacher isolation (Hargreaves & Fullan, 1992). According to Hargreaves and Fullan (1992), teachers are often "[tied] to the pressing immediacy of classroom life" (Hargreaves & Fullan, 1992, p. 232). Teachers who isolate themselves in their classrooms during the course of their work day engage in limited adult interaction, and receive limited adult feedback. As a result, they feel stress, loneliness, and incompetence in their professional abilities. These negative feelings were expressed by one young teacher during a graduate seminar when he shared that he often felt like an imposter in the classroom. Staff development projects that specifically address the affects of teacher isolation would be beneficial for educators in terms of building confidence, self-worth, and morale.

Additional professional development projects on the issues surrounding teacher isolation and collegiality would serve the important function of informing teachers about the culture of their profession. Perhaps this awareness would contribute to the reduction or elimination of what Routman (1996) calls the "in-fighting," (p. 53) so that educators could focus their energies on student learning, and work together to deal effectively with the changes and challenges of the teaching profession.

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Appendix

Practice Sets

Copy A

This is the Way I go to School

I can go to school on the bus that stops on my street.

I can go to school on my new bike.

I can go to school on my skateboard.

Sometimes I walk to school with my friends.

Sometimes my mom takes me to school in the car.

Sometimes my dad takes me to school in his work truck.

Sometimes my grandpa comes to visit and he takes me to school...

on his motorcycle!

Copy B

This is the Way I go to School

I c-c-c go to school on the bus that stops at my house.

....

I c-an--can go to school on my bike.

....

I can go to school on my--I can go to school on my skateboard.

....

S-s-s (appeal) I walk to school what my friends.

....

Sometimes my mom took--my mom takes me to school in the car.

....

Sometimes my dad takes me to school in his truck.

....

Sometimes my grandpa came--comes to visit and he takes me to school...

....

on his motorcycle!

Copy A

Going Camping

In the summer, I go on vacation with my family.

We like to go camping.

I help my dad set up the tent.

I help my mom unpack the car.

Sometimes we go swimming.

Sometimes we go fishing.

Sometimes we go for a hike in the woods.

Camping is fun if it doesn't rain!

Copy B

<u>Going Camping</u>

In the s-s-m-r-smr-summer, I go on v-v-(appeal) with my family.

....

We look-like to go camping.

....

I help my dad put up the tent.

....

I help my mom u-p-up-pick up the car.

....

S-Some-Sometimes we go swimming.

....

Sometimes we go fishing.

....

Sometimes we go for a walk in the woods.

....

Camping is fun if it does-does not rain!