THE DESIGN OF A DEVELOPMENTAL LEVEL READING COMPREHENSION PROGRAM FOR GRADES FOUR AND FIVE UTILIZING SPECIFIC QUESTIONING STRATEGIES

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by

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ABSTRACT

The basic objective of this study was the design of an instructional format for the instruction of fourth and fifth graders in the process of literal and inferential comprehension. The primary purpose of the study was to investigate the effects of a systematic questioning program for the development of these processes upon the fourth and fifth grade subjects.

A review of current research indicated that the comprehension abilities of students can be improved through explicit instruction. Moreover, the results of a questionnaire completed by primary and elementary teachers in the province of Newfoundland and Labrador, indicated the need for a program which focuses on how to systematically teach reading comprehension skills to developmental students of this province.

The program designed for this study includes some components of the basal program as well as systematic instructional plans designed by the investigator, utilizing 16 narrative selections from the basal program of a single publisher (i.e., the Nelson Language Development Reading program). It focuses on the following specific comprehension skills at the literal and inferential levels: (a) detecting significant details, (b) following sequence, (c) recognizing cause and effect relationships, (d) making comparisons,

(e) detecting character traits, and (f) finding the main idea.

In this investigation, 66 Grade Four and Five students were assigned to two experimental and two control groups. The subjects were from one elementary school in central Newfoundland enrolled with the Exploits Valley Integrated School Board. The study was conducted over an eight month period, commencing in September, 1983, and concluding in May, 1984.

For statistical analysis, the investigator utilized the scores derived from the Comprehension subtests of the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test (Canadian edition), Level D, Forms 1 and 2 (MacGinitie, 1979). Mean scores were calculated and a number of comparisons were made to assess the effects of the experimental program. Results from a mean gain expectancy ratio analysis indicated that the subjects in both experimental groups did relatively better on posttest measures than students in the corresponding control groups.

The supplement to the Nelson Language Development Reading program is the main thrust of the program developed by this investigator. Specific strategies for teaching reading comprehension are outlined in Appendices B, C, and D. They are recommended as a guide for a teacher to follow.

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

Background of the Study

For decades, the concept of reading comprehension has been a major concern of reading authorities. Huey (1908) criticized the heavy emphasis on oral reading in the schools because it hindered the readers from getting the thought while they read. Similarly, Gray (1924) attempted to focus attention on comprehension with his emphasis on reading instruction in intelligent silent reading. Since the early 1900's, many authorities and educators have emphasized various aspects of reading comprehension (e.g., Davis, 1944; Ruddell, 1978; Smith & Robinson, 1980). Pearson and Gallagher (1983) have pointed out that, for the last eight decades, reading educators have been attempting to answer questions pertaining to instruction.

Despite many unanswered questions pertinent to instruction, however, the significance of reading comprehension is widely recognized. To the vast majority of teachers, reading comprehension is a necessity in reading (Dallmann, Rouch, Char, & DeBoer, 1982). Indeed, Tonjes and Zintz (1981) suggest that "The ability to comprehend written discourse is vitally important to the personal success of students, not only in the classroom but

throughout life" (p. 171).

Various writers identify comprehension and word recognition skills as two of the major components of the reading process (e.g., Dechant, 1982; Harris & Sipay, 1979; Miller, 1972). Some educators further maintain that comprehension development is more important than word recognition skills; it is the major aspect of reading. As Dauzat and Dauzat (1981) suggest:

> Word recognition skills are vital in the reading process; however, they are merely tools whereby a person can decode the graphic symbols, which is a prerequisite for comprehension of meaning. A child must be able to decode a word before he or she can apply meaning to it and before he can understand the relationship of the word to other words. Word recognition is a tool for reading and is meaningless in the absence of comprehension. (p. 135)

Bond and Tinker (1973) assert that "Basic to the reading task is getting correct meanings from printed and written materials. Unless pupils comprehend what they read, their reading is a futile exercise" (p. 357). Further, Richek, List, and Lerner (1983) maintain that "Comprehension is the essence of the reading act; indeed, it is the only purpose for reading" (p. 254).

Reading Comprehension is significant in various disciplines. Dupuis (1984) contends that "Comprehension is seen across disciplines as the key to reading success" (p. 2). Moreover, students who cannot read for meaning will not understand content material (Duffy, Sherman, & Roehler,

1977). Understanding factual material is crucial to the student's success in school (Hall, Ribovich, & Ramig, 1979).

Many of the essential comprehension subskills learned in conjunction with narrative materials, therefore, are necessary in other situations. For example, the ability to follow directions is necessary in mathematics (Alexander & Donnelly, 1983). Further, the ability to recognize cause-and-effect relationships is important in reading health, science, and social studies (Burns, Roe, & Ross, 1984). Moreover, the ability to find the main idea in what one reads is one of the most valuable skills in social studies. As O'Connor (1969) states:

> The basic skill that leads to most others in the "shared" skills category is the ability of the student to find the main idea of a paragraph or section (or even a sentence). Without this ability, we can forget about our students being able to outline, summarize, or take notes effectively. Going further, all the skills involving critical thinking, substantiating opinions with proof, and supporting generalizations are based upon the ability of the youngster to determine the main, the most important, the central thought of the spoken and written word. (p. 255)

Since comprehension is extremely important, a major objective of all reading instruction is, or should be, to foster in students the ability to understand what they read. Dunne (1972) agrees with this goal:

> Children must be helped to get beyond the mere decoding process. They must be led to understand that written words are important only as they are used to convey thoughts, develop aesthetics, and solve problems. Without this kind of "open" learning atmosphere in the classroom, children are deprived of freedom to think. (p. 95)

Further, Tinker and McCullough (1975) state, "The primary goal in reading instruction is to teach the reader to understand and respond to what he reads" (p. 196). While Smith and Barrett (1974) do not identify comprehension as the "main" objective of reading, they do, however, maintain that "A major goal of reading instruction, at all levels of education, is to develop readers who can think about and react to what they read in a variety of ways" (p. 47).

In spite of its significance, however, insufficient evidence has been given to reading comprehension both in reading programs and research. Etten (1978) asserts that "Most reading programs and most research have focused on decoding skills almost to the exclusion of other aspects of reading. Little attention has been given to reading comprehension" (p. 30). Chester (1976) suggests, however, that "Although there is an abundance of research in the area, there exists a paucity of empirically conclusive data and much which does exist is fragmented or pragmatically useless" (p. 76).

There is a need, therefore, for more good research in the area of reading comprehension instruction. Baumann

(1983) maintains that "Research on effective comprehension instructional practices is in its infancy" (p. 191). Further, Moore and Readence (1983) contend that researchers generally intend to either describe the comprehension process, describe ways of attaining the process, or identify variables controlling the reader's comprehension. They also suggest that "Descriptions of the comprehension process do not necessarily point to appropriate instructional methods" (p. 16).

Introduction to the Problem

Most of the research on basic processes and instructional practices of reading comprehension has been conducted in the last half decade (Pearson & Gallagher, 1983). The utilization of the process approach to reading comprehension, therefore, is a relatively new concept, so new in fact that it has not yet had a significant impact upon classroom instruction. As Wilson (1983) states: "Obviously, classroom teachers and publishers are not conspiring to deny comprehension instruction to children, but it seems that recent research on reading comprehension as a process has not yet been reflected in practice" (p. 382).

Comprehension instruction tends to focus on the product of comprehension (Harris & Smith, 1980). In this situation, teachers expect to develop the students' comprehension skills with a series of practice exercises, or by

testing comprehension rather than teaching it. Durkin (1978-79) substantiated this viewpoint. She and her associates conducted an extensive observational study to determine how much time elementary school teachers spend on instruction in reading comprehension. Her conclusion was that almost no comprehension was seen. The attention that did go to comprehension focused on assessment which was carried out through teacher questions. She also found that time spent in giving, completing, and checking assignments consumed a large part of the observed periods.

Too frequently, teachers permit the curriculum to dictate their instructional program (Lapp & Flood, 1978). They suggested that it would be much better for the teacher to decide what is involved in the reading process and then plan appropriate instruction on the basis of his or her findings. Similarly, Harris and Smith (1980) maintained that a better approach would deal directly with the process--the thinking operations underlying comprehension. Teachers should model the thought process which students need to follow, for example, in deciding upon the main idea of a selection before asking them to try this independently (Burns, Roe, & Ross, 1984).

Rationale for the Study

Since the processing or print into meaning is the primary goal of reading instruction, we would assume that considerable attention in the classroom is given to the development of comprehension. During reading periods, we would expect to find pupils engaged extensively in reading comprehension instruction (Heilman, Blair, & Rupley, 1981). In many instances, however, little instruction is provided. The essential guidance, activities, and instruction to develop comprehension is frequently neglected at the elementary school level (Turner, 1983a). Kennedy (1974) pointed out that:

> In many developmental programs, little is done to increase comprehension other than providing practice in looking for specific facts, finding main ideas, and summarizing details. Some programs, it is true, stress creative thinking, active discussion, and persistent search for information. In the main, however, only the most elementary of the thinking capacities are employed. (p. 270)

Mason and Osborn (cited in Mason, 1983) conducted a study to find out how classroom reading instruction proceeds. They observed reading instruction in 10 grade three and 10 grade four classrooms, each on three occasions. The classrooms were located in seven schools in an American industrial city. Observations revealed that text-related reading comprehension was seldom taught and a coordinated sequence of text reading instruction was lacking. The

researchers also concluded that there was too much emphasis on skill-based worksheets.

The basal reader method is one approach that purports to enhance reading comprehension in elementary school classrooms. Indeed, Jenkins and Pany (1980) contend that "The most prevalent approach to teaching reading comprehension is through basal readers" (p. 557). In fact, Burmeister (1983) maintains that "More than 90 percent of American elementary school teachers who teach reading use one or more basal programs" (p. 560). Further, an examination of the Program of Studies for Newfoundland schools reveals that specific basal readers are prescribed for teaching reading in grades four, five, and six.

Instructional guides which accompany basal readers, however, do not provide appropriate procedures for teaching comprehension. Jenkins and Pany (1980) analyzed the teaching procedures recommended in three basal reader series. They examined student workbooks at the third and sixth grade levels and the teacher manual suggestions for teaching main idea and overall story comprehension. Results suggested that the main instructional procedure for reading comprehension is questioning. Consequently, they asserted that in basal reader programs, "instruction for" and "testing for" comprehension appear to be closely aligned. In their own opinion, the investigators were tempted to conclude that comprehension instruction consists primarily of repeated testing with feedback.

A study of five basal reader programs was undertaken by Durkin (1981) to determine the adequacy of suggestions pertaining to comprehension. She found that teachers' manuals provided more suggestions for practice and assessment activities than for direct instruction. Suggestions for teaching students how to comprehend were brief and showed little connection between what was taught and how to read.

Similarly, Aulls (1982) asserts that a survey of popular published materials reveals that many methods for teaching reading comprehension simply involve practice in comprehension. He states:

> For example, children read the materials and answer the questions, rather than learn how to formulate and use the questions independently to get meaning. Another example is the design of materials popularly used to teach topic and main idea. Typically, they are exercises that test, rather than teach. They don't provide rules or strategies which students could learn how to use in order to classify or infer main ideas. (p. 386)

In Newfoundland, the curriculum guides for the language arts, such as Bridging the Gap: A Curriculum Bulletin on Language Arts for Intermediate School Teachers and Core Learnings in the Language Arts include the reading comprehension skills to be taught in the elementary schools throughout the province. They do not, however, indicate how these skills should be taught. The emphasis in these guides, therefore, seems to be more on the product rather than the process of comprehension.

Statement of the Problem

The object of this study was the development of a procedural instructional format for the instruction of fourth and fifth graders in the process of literal and inferantial comprehension. Under examination was the effect of a systematic questioning program for the development of these processes upon the fourth and fifth grade subjects.

Significance of the Study

Various researchers and writers have supported the idea that comprehension is a set of specific reading sub-skills. Davis (1944), Spearritt (1972), and other researchers have identified specific skills that are included in the comprehension process. Greene and Petty (1975) have listed various comprehension subskills for which instruction should be provided. Traditionally, therefore, reading comprehension has been taught from a skills perspective. As Otto (1977) has suggested, to teach reading comprehension we must teach the skills of comprehension.

Comprehension needs to be taught in a systematic and direct way. Tinker and McCullough (1975) suggest that "Comprehension is improved when certain guidelines, principles, and techniques are given careful and systematic attention by the teacher" (p. 205). Taba and Elzey (1964) reported a study concerning teacher strategies and thought processes. Results indicated that children can learn to make inferences,

to generalize, and make logical assumptions if they are given systematic instruction.

Students need to be given direct instruction on essential comprehension skills so that they can understand and interact with the printed word. They need to be shown "how" to find the main idea, to make comparisons, and so forth (Heilman, Blair, and Rupley, 1981). As Escoe (1984) states:

> By the time they reach the intermediate grades, most students have had opportunities to answer questions about ideas that are not stated in print. But many still have difficulty understanding what they've read. It is suggested here that students can be successful at comprehending implied messages when they are given direct instruction in how-to-do-it, and when they are given the same instruction in a variety of reading situations. (p. 226)

Comprehension is a thinking and reasoning process (Schwartz & Sheff, 1975). Before students can do well on product comprehension, therefore, they must be taught the process of comprehension (Nist, Kirby, & Ritter, 1983). According to Harker (1973) the processes to be utilized in conjunction with various comprehension tasks must be determined by the teacher and then actively taught to the students. He also suggests that "When the comprehension process has been illustrated, transfer of learning gained through the solution of particular tasks can be encouraged" (p. 381).

Jenkins and Pany (1981) assert that the reason for learning a subskill is to transfer its use to real-life settings. Thus, the application of acquired skills is a very

important part of the comprehension cycle. A well planned reading comprehension program, therefore, must provide opportunities for students to apply the skills which have been taught directly.

Baumann (1983) explained one way in which the application of acquired skills can be accomplished:

> After direct instruction has been administered, students are provided natural passages (paragraphs, passages, stories from narrative or expository literature) and required to apply the skills previously taught under the supervision of the teacher. For example, following a lesson on identifying implicit main ideas, students would be directed to sections within their basal reader or social studies textbook which contain implicit main ideas and then be required to identify them. Students would be required to attempt this independently, but a teacher-led discussion would follow in which correct and incorrect answers are discussed. (p. 190)

Elementary schools in Newfoundland, in many instances, lack an adequate reading comprehension program. The teachers' guidebooks which accompany basal readers contain few specific suggestions pertaining to "how" the subskills should be taught directly in step-by-step procedures. For example, McInnes, Wheatley, Blackburn, Houghton, and Welland (1978) in the Teacher's Resource Book for Backpacks and Bumblebees do not identify any specific process which teachers might use in helping their students to determine the main idea of a paragraph or selection.

A comprehensive program incorporating a process approach to comprehension is needed, therefore, which might be of some benefit to elementary school teachers throughout this province in providing adequate comprehension instruction for their students. It is the opinion of the investigator, that such a program should include the suggestions so aptly expressed by Pearson and Johnson (1978):

> . . . we can model comprehension processes for students, provide cues to help them understand what they are reading, guide discussions to help children know what they know, ask pointed, penetrating, or directional questions, offer feedback (both informational and reinforcing) at the appropriate time, and generate useful independent practice activities. (p. 4)

Definition of Terms

For the purpose of this study, the following terms will be used as defined by Harris and Hodges (1981):

Cause/Effect Relationships: In a communication, a stated or implied association between some outcome and the conditions which brought it about (p. 45).

Character Trait: 1. The totality of a person's physiological traits; personality; as a cheerful character 2. A consistent, characteristic quality of an individual, especially a moral one, as an honest character (p. 47).

Cloze Procedure: Any of several ways of measuring a person's ability to restore omitted portions of an oral or written message from its remaining context (p. 53).

Comparison: A literary technique of placing together like or unlike, characters, situations, or ideas for emphasis or clarity (p. 58).

Critical Comprehension: 1. The process of making judgements in reading. 2. An act of reading in which a questioning attitude, logical analysis, and inference are used to judge the worth of what is read according to an established standard (p. 74).

Inferential Comprehension: 1. The process of judging or concluding in reasoning, as reasoning by inference from given premises. 2. The result of such a process; inferred meaning (p. 154).

Literal Comprehension: 1. Understanding the sense meaning of what is heard or read, presumable without making inferences. 2. Understanding the explicit meaning that is stated or clearly implied in a passage (p. 183).

Main Idea: 1. The central thought, meaning, or gist of a passage. 2. The chief topic of a passage expressed or implied in a word or phrase (p. 188).

Psycholinguistics: The interdisciplinary field of psychology and linguistics in which language behaviour is examined (p. 255).

Reading Comprehension: 1. Understanding what is read. 2. One or more of several levels of a presumed hierarchy of reading comprehension processes: a. getting the literal meaning. b. getting the interpretive or suggested meaning in reading (p. 266).

Reading for Details: Reading to note the specific parts of a passage, including the sequence of these parts (p. 267).

Sequence of Events: The order in which something is learned or taught (p. 292).

Limitations of the Study

In the interpretation of the results of this study, certain limitations must be considered. The conclusions must be limited to the population sampled, which consisted of four reading groups from the same school. One assumption underlying an analysis of variance is that the distribution of the dependent variable in the population is normal. In the case of this study, the dependent variable, reading comprehension, could not be considered to be normal in a randomized manner. However, as Ferguson (1971) states, "Unless there is reason to suspect a fairly extreme departure from normality, it is probable that the conclusions drawn from the data...will not be seriously affected" (p. 219).

The dependent variable was measured in a pretest/posttest format, utilizing the scores of the comprehension subtest of the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Tests (Canadian edition) Level D, Forms 1 and 2 (MacGinitie, 1979).

The independent variable, the reading comprehension program, as outlined in the basal reader and the systematic instructional plans designed by the writer, utilized the basal program of a single publisher (i.e., the Nelson Language Development Reading program).

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

The review of the literature is organized into six main sections. The first section is concerned with the nature of reading comprehension. Section two discusses five key factors that affect students' abilities to comprehend what they read. The third section explores specific reading comprehension skills. In section four strategies for improving reading comprehension are presented. Section five is concerned with the functions of questioning in the teaching of reading comprehension. Finally, research studies related to reading comprehension instruction are examined.

The Nature of Reading Comprehension

At the very beginning of the present century, little attention was given to reading comprehension. The first attempt to define comprehension was associated with getting the meaning from the printed word. Huey (1908) reported experiments with isolated words but indicated a dissatisfaction with such measures. He consciously lifted the concept of meaning beyond the level of the word. Further,

Gray (1917) referred to comprehension as the obtaining of meaning through reading.

Early definitions have continued into recent literature. Tinker and McCullough (1968) emphasize the significance of grasping the meaning that printed symbols stand for. As Dallmann, Rouch, Chang, and DeBoer (1978) state:

> Although there are differences of opinion as to how to define comprehension as it refers to reading, there is general agreement that by reading with comprehension is meant getting meaning from what is being perceived in writing. (p. 196)

Bush and Huebner (1979) give at least four definitions for reading comprehension. Two of the listings are: (a) an interpretation of written symbol, and (b) an apprehension of meaning.

While some define comprehension as obtaining correct meaning from printed and written materials, much more is involved in this process. Spache (1963) contends that comprehension depends on the reader's experience, reading background, and learnings. Moreover, Smith and Robinson (1980) maintain that "Reading comprehension means the understanding, evaluating, and utilizing of information and ideas gained through an interaction between reader and author" (p. 205).

Comprehension has frequently been hypothesized as a multiple list of subskills. Bloom (1956) proposed a taxonomy

of skills for the cognitive domain. A number of writers have adapted Bloom's definition. Barrett (1974), Sanders (1966), and Wallen (1972) have developed taxonomies of comprehension skills.

Bormuth (1969) says "comprehension ability is thought to be a set of generalized knowledge-acquisition skills which permit people to acquire and exhibit information gained as a consequence of reading printed language" (p. 50). Further, Ruddell (1974) contends that reading comprehension does not include one mental skill but a cluster of related mental abilities. Moreover, Dauzat and Dauzat (1981) maintain that these skills range from very simple to highly complex.

Literature supports this investigator's view that reading comprehension is more than a hierarchy of skills. For Thorndike (1917), complex reasoning is involved in understanding a paragraph. He describes reading comprehension as:

> . . . a very elaborate procedure, involving a weighing of each of many elements in a sentence, their organization in the proper relations one to another, the selection of certain of their connotations and the rejection of others, and the cooperation of many forces to determine final response. (p. 323)

Some writers define reading comprehension as a process or set of discrete processes. Indeed, Cushenbery (1969) views the whole reading act as a mental process. Stauffer (1969) also emphasizes the cognitive operations underlying comprehension. He maintains that reading is a complex phenomenon

of mental activity related to thinking and to read is to comprehend what is read. Further, Zintz and Maggart (1984) suggest that "Comprehension in reading is the process by which people who read derive meaning from text" (p. 286).

Comprehension is sometimes referred to as the end product of the reading process. Guszak and Hoffman (1980) contend that "The results of the interaction of thinking operations upon content (text material) produces thought products" (p. 312). For example, getting the main idea is the product of an ongoing reading process. Similarly, Simons (1971) suggests that "The products of the comprehension process are the behaviors produced after comprehension has taken place, such as answers to test questions" (p. 340). Collins and Smith (cited in Nist, Kirby, & Ritter, 1983) also refer to product comprehension as that which involves only the results or students' answers to questions.

Other writers assert that comprehension means bridging the gap between the reader's experience and the printed word. In essence, we comprehend what is new in the context of what we already know. Pearson and Johnson (1978) support this viewpoint in their belief that "Comprehension is building bridges between the new and the known" (p. 24). Similarly, Adams and Bruce (1982) contend that comprehension is the utilization of prior knowledge to create new knowledge. Johnson and Barrett (1981) say "Comprehending written text involves developing linkages between the printed word,

sentences, passages, and their inter- and intrarelationships and the information already contained in the individual's script" (p. 74).

Factors Which Influence Comprehension

Background Knowledge

Students' lack of comprehension of a passage may be the result of an insufficient experiential background. As Tinker and McCullough (1968) suggested, one of the determinants of reading comprehension is the richness or meagreness of background. Indeed, the reader is considered the most important part of the comprehension process. The knowledge and insights that readers bring with them to the reading process can literally make or break the experience (Crafton, 1982). Anderson, Reynolds, Schallert, and Goetz (1977) found that recall and comprehension of passages capable of two alternative interpretations, were highly related to the background of the readers.

Smith (1975a) described reading comprehension as relating new experiences to the already known. This concept, therefore, reiterates the relationship between comprehension and prior knowledge In essence, our understanding is bounded by the limits of our experience. Smith (1975b) also commented on the reader's utilization of prior knowledge relevant to the material he or she is encountering. He

asserted that the use of prior knowledge is referred to as hypothesis testing or prediction. Prediction, he maintained, is a very important aspect of learning to read.

Brown, Smiley, Days, Townsend, and Lawton (cited in Carr, 1983) examined the effects of prior knowledge on children's recall in Grades Two, Four, and Six. They reported that when a relevant framework was provided, recall was better than when no framework was provided. Children's prior knowledge helped them to fill in incomplete or unclear sections of a story.

Stevens (1980) investigated the effect of background knowledge on the comprehension of ninth graders of varying ability levels. She found that knowledge was a significant factor for all ability groups. The results, therefore, support the contention that topic knowledge is an aid to comprehension of material concerning the topic. Furthermore, the study also supports the notion of previously possessed schemata as a crucial component in the comprehension process.

Intelligence

Russell (1961) maintains that most of the studies of reading comprehension completed from 1930-1961 show that general intelligence is closely related to reading comprehension. Dawson and Bamman (1963) also stress this relationship in their belief that the rate at which the learner associates what he or she reads with prior knowledge

will be influenced by the learner's intelligence. Further, Barney, Bradtmuller, and Starkey (1971) contend that a child's ability to read, to read for different purposes, is closely related to the student's intellectual ability. As DeBoer and Dallmann (1970) state:

> . . . a child's ability to comprehend in reading is limited by the conceptual "load" that his mental ability enables him to carry. All the mechanical reading skills in the world will not enable him to read materials involving abstractions beyond the level of his mental development. (p. 177)

They also assert that while we should not underestimate a child's possibilities, we should adjust our expectations to the learner's capabilities.

Spache and Spache (1973) point out that a student's intelligence will determine whether or not she or he acquires many of the subskills of comprehension. They state that:

> The abilities to recognize inductive sequences of ideas leading to a conclusion, to apply deductively a principle to new situations, to recognize cause-effect, comparison, contrast, and other idea relationships depend to a marked degree upon the reader's intellectual powers. (p. 555)

In their view, students with less than average mental ability can be taught to utilize these types of thinking while reading, but only within the limits of their potentials in most cases.

Nature of the Material

The elements on the page will affect the student's ability to comprehend a specific passage or selection.

Teachers, therefore, should not use material that is too difficult for students to understand. Ransom (1978) postulates that:

> They [the students] can achieve higher levels of comprehension only if their reading material uses vocabulary and sentence structures easily within their grasp. If they don't have to struggle to understand literal meanings, they are free to manipulate the basic ideas they've received from the passage. (pp. 328-329)

Ransom also explains that some stories are more appropriate for certain purposes and questions than others. For example, some material is best suited to studying cause-and-effect relationships, others to making comparisons. She maintains, therefore, that teachers should keep this in mind when selecting materials for comprehension work. Furthermore, Aulls (1982) asserts that "The material used for comprehension instruction must be meaningful if it is to be understandable and engage the young reader's knowledge and thought" (p. 342).

Peters (1975-1976) asserts that there are two basic problems which confront students attempting to adequately comprehend concepts in textual materials: (a) insufficient explanation of concepts, and (b) insufficient organizational patterns of written work. Tierney, Mosenthal, and Kantor (1984) support the views of Peters (1975-1976) regarding the organizational pattern when they suggest that "Stories whose structure violates the prototypical plot structure have been shown to be more difficult to comprehend than stories whose

structure is congenial with the prototypical structure" (p. 153). Some material may be so poorly written that trying to understand it is as much a guessing game as it is a reading experience (Durkin, 1978).

Depending on the material, therefore, the reader's comprehension may vary from day to day. Variations may be due to various factors or a combination of factors inherent in the material. As Jenkinson (1969) states:

> The genre or type of presentation which the author chooses to use, in addition to the constraints of the cognitive discipline under which he is operating, may present many problems to readers who are unaware of the nature and impact of these controlling factors. Not only the substantive content but the level and concentration of concept presentation may also form a barrier. The tone of the writer, his attitude towards both his subject and the reader, all apparently affect the level of comprehension. (pp. 548-549)

Vocabulary Development

Poor comprehension may be the result of a student's inability to read the words. Conversely, the problem may be due to his or her limited knowledge of the meaning of words (Harris, 1961). Miller (1972) suggests that readers must have a good stock of sight words, since they cannot read effectively if they must stop to analyze many of the words in the text. She also asserts that a good meaning vocabulary enables the reader to interpret the material with clarity. Harris and Sipay (1980) reiterate the significance of word

recognition in their belief that word recognition is a prerequisite of reading comprehension. They explain, however, that recognition without understanding is worth very little.

Research studies (Davis, 1944; Singer, 1965; Spearritt, 1972) have shown that there is a strong correlation between vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension. Russell (1949) asserts that "A child's understanding and interpretation of sentences and paragraphs will depend considerably upon his knowledge of the individual words in the larger units" (p. 184). Spache (1963) has this to say:

> Understanding of the vocabulary is second only to the factor of reasoning in the process of comprehension, and some writers would say that it is even more important than reasoning. It is sufficient to say that comprehension is significantly promoted by attention to vocabulary growth. (p. 78)

According to Karlin (1975) knowledge of word meanings is the most important single factor which influences reading comprehension.

Stahl (1983) examined the effects of vocabulary pre-instruction on the reading comprehension of 28 average fifth grade readers. The subjects were divided into three groups and each received two vocabulary training treatments and a control treatment. The results indicated that for two of three groups, both vocabulary treatments produced significantly higher scores on passage comprehension tests.

For all children both training treatments produced significantly higher scores on various sentence comprehension measures and a multiple-choice synonym test. The examiner concluded that pre-instruction had a significant effect on both comprehension and vocabulary learning.

McKeown, Beck, Omanson, and Perfetti (1983) replicated and extended a study that investigated the relationship between vocabulary instruction and reading comprehension. In the latter study, two groups of fourth graders were taught 104 words over a five month period. Three fourth-grade classrooms were designated as control. The examiners found that the replication strongly supported the conclusion suggested by the original study that intensive vocabulary instruction designed to promote deep and fluent word knowledge enhances text comprehension.

Purpose for Reading

The purpose with which the reader approaches material will have a significant effect on his or her reading. Brown (1980) contends that "The reader's purpose determines how he or she sets about reading and how closely he or she monitors the purpose of reading" (p. 455). As Smith and Robinson (1980) suggest:

> No reading occurs without purpose, even though that purpose may sometimes be almost unconscious or extremely general -- to enjoy myself, to relax, to learn

> a lot about a topic. As purpose becomes more specific, we tend to gain more from the reading -- at least in relation to that purpose. (p. 227)

Learners must know "why" they are reading if they are to understand "what" they are reading (Dechant, 1970). If, for example, the students are told only to read the next four pages of a story, they will probably wander aimlessly through the pages, taking in little (Thomas & Robinson, 1982). Conversely, Burns and Roe (1976) maintain that:

> 1. Children who are reading with a purpose tend to have better comprehension of those things for which they are reading rather than those who have no purpose. Purpose or questions offer children a mental set for approaching the reading material.
>
> 2. Children who read with a purpose tend to retain what they have read better than those who have no purpose. (p. 229)

Further, Bush and Huebner (1979) suggest "It is likely that no truly high-level comprehension of reading material can occur without a strong purpose for reading" (p. 130).

Efficient readers use a variety of approaches to reading, depending on their purposes for reading. This adaptability is very significant considering the wide variety of reasons for which people read (Harris & Smith, 1980). Smith (1967) listed various appropriate purposes for reading: (a) intellectual demands, (b) enjoyment, (c) socioeconomic

demands, (d) personal social needs, (e) problem solving, (f) spiritual or religious needs or personal stimulation, (g) utilitarian purposes, and (h) vocational or avocational interests.

While Stauffer (1975) agrees with establishing purposes for reading, he maintains, however, that such purposes should not be determined by the teacher. In his view, readers should set their own purposes for reading before they begin the reading assignment. By asking questions, the teacher can encourage students to make predictions ~~(set purposes)~~ about the passages they are going to read. Robinson (1977) also stresses the need for students to establish their own purposes:

> Students who are helped to read with purpose -- to satisfy varying needs -- can also be easily guided to establish their own purposes at the onset of any reading. Such purpose-setting on the part of the learner is assurance of improving comprehension. (p. 62)

Interest

Children will attend better to a story about a topic they find personally interesting. In the process, they will understand it better (Harris & Smith, 1980). They further assert that when a child is keenly interested in a subject, he or she will sometimes persist in and gain much from reading a selection that is "too difficult". Interest, therefore, is a potent factor in reading comprehension (Harris & Sipay, 1979).

Robinson (1958) in reviewing trends in teaching reading, refers to the importance of "feeding children's interests" to encourage them to utilize their reading skills. Smith and Robinson (1980) assert that "Interest is the touchstone to reading achievement, reading enjoyment, and reading usefulness" (p. 313). They also suggest that a lack of interest in reading by some individuals prevents them from capitalizing fully on the various skills which teachers have tried so energetically to build in them. Moreover, Kennedy (1974) asserts that "Lack of interest causes the mind to wander, eliminates any desire to excel, encourages a dislike for the task, and reduces conscious effort" (p. 276).

According to Pearson and Johnson (1978), one can capitalize on interest to improve comprehension of a particular topic in two ways: (a) permit students to read selections of high interest, and (b) generate student interest in the topic, utilizing various media and resource persons. Bush and Huebner (1979) also suggest that childrens interests can be both channeled and developed via pictures, films, television, books, and so forth. Moreover, they contend that through such efforts a child's background of experience may be expanded and thus contribute to effective comprehension of new reading material.

Pieronek (1980) attempted to discover the independent reading interests of students in the intermediate grades. She analyzed nine research studies dealing with the interests

of Grade Four, Five, and Six students. Her findings showed some concensus:

> In general, intermediate students are interested in stories that deal with adventure, fantasy, social studies/history; mystery, humor, animals, patriotism, and fairy tales. Adventure, patriotism, and social studies/history are the most popular categories, while fairy tales, humor and animal categories seem to be the least popular at this level. Early intermediate students appear to be more interested in fairy tales and children of other lands than are late intermediate students. There is definite overlapping of interests between boys and girls at these grade levels. (p. 408)

Research studies by Bernstein (1955-1956) and Estes and Vaughan (1974) have shown that interest influences the child's development of reading comprehension. Bernstein investigated the relationship between interest and reading comprehension of 100 ninth graders. She found that high interest was associated not only with superior comprehension but also with greater reading speed. Estes and Vaughan examined the influence of topic interest on the reading comprehension of 46 fourth graders. The results of this study indicated that interest does appear to be a very influential factor in determining reading comprehension.

Studies conducted before 1978 indicate that children comprehend more of high-interest rather than low-interest material when each pupil is given a mixture of both types of material (Asher, Hymel, & Wigfield, 1978). They conducted

a study with 70 Grade Five students to determine if this effect was due to a contrast effect whereby children selectively respond to the more appealing topics in the passages they read. Each student received either all high-interest cloze passages or all low-interest cloze passages but not both. The results indicated that the effects of interest does not depend on contrast effects that might be part of a within-subjects design. Children performed better on high rather than low-interest passages even though they were unaware of the range of topics available in the experiment.

Components of Reading Comprehension

Some educators contend that various subskills are necessary requisites to understanding the message conveyed by the author. Davis (1944) surveyed the literature to identify comprehension skills deemed most important by authorities in the field of reading. Several hundred specific skills were identified, many of them overlapping. He grouped together those that appeared to require the exercise of the same, or closely related, mental abilities. Using the nine skills thus identified and tests especially constructed to determine the importance of these skills, he conducted the first factor-analysis study of comprehension. He considered the following nine skills to be basic to reading comprehension:

1. Knowledge of word meanings.
2. Ability to select the appropriate meaning for a word or phrase in the light of its particular contextual setting.
3. Ability to follow the organization of a passage and to identify antecedents and references in it.
4. Ability to select the main thought of a passage.
5. Ability to answer questions that are specifically answered in a passage.
6. Ability to answer questions that are answered in a passage but not in the words in which the question is asked.
7. Ability to draw inferences from a passage about its contents.
8. Ability to recognize the literary devices used in a passage and to determine its tone and mood.
9. Ability to determine a writer's purpose, intent, and point of view, i.e., to draw inferences about a writer. (p. 186)

Since 1944, other attempts have been made to delineate separate comprehension skills. Davis (1968) conducted a study from which his analysis showed the following comprehension skills:

1. Recalling word meanings.
2. Finding answers to questions answered explicitly or merely in paraphrase in the content.
3. Weaving together ideas in the content.
4. Drawing inferences from the content.

5. Recognizing a writer's purpose, attitude, tone, and mood.

6. Drawing inferences about the meaning of a word from context.

7. Identifying a writer's techniques.

8. Following the structure of a passage. (p. 513)

Spearritt (1972) reanalyzed Davis's data using the maximum likelihood factor analytic procedures. He concluded that four skills are differentiable as separate skills: (a) recalling word meanings, (b) drawing inferences from the content, (c) recognizing a writer's purpose, attitude, tone, and mood, and (d) following the structure of a passage.

More recently, Drum, Calfee, and Cook (1981) conducted a study to determine what variables affect performance on reading comprehension tests. Seven standardized reading achievement tests were selected for the investigation. They concluded that the abilities needed for successful performance on a comprehension test include the following:

1. Accurate and fluent word recognition;

2. Knowledge of specific word meanings;

3. Knowledge of syntactic/semantic clause and sentence relationships;

4. Recognition of the superordinate/subordinate idea structure of passages;

5. Identification of the specific information requested in questions; and

6. Evaluation of the alternate choices in order to select the one that best fits

(a) the syntactic/semantic requirements of the question and
(b) the idea structure of the paragraph.

(pp. 488-489)

Other authorities have developed sequences of comprehension subskills called taxonomies. In classifying cognitive or intellectual processes, Bloom (1956) utilized a taxonomy to delineate a hierarchy in which behaviors are ordered in terms of difficulty. He identified six major categories: (a) knowledge, (b) comprehension, (c) application, (d) analysis, (e) synthesis, and (f) evaluation.

Some writers have attempted to develop similar hierarchical models in reading comprehension. Sanders (1966) developed valuable suggestions on questioning students for the various levels of thinking. Consequently, he referred to his taxonomy as the "taxonomy of questions". His categories were: (a) memory, (b) translation, (c) interpretation, (d) application, (e) analysis, (f) synthesis, and (g) evaluation.

Barrett (1974) adapted the Bloom taxonomy to produce a classification of reading objectives. Entitled a "taxonomy of reading comprehension", it was recommended as a teaching tool, a framework for planning, teaching, and evaluating in the area of reading comprehension. Specific outcomes were delineated under the following main headings: (a) literal recognition or recall, (b) inference, (c) evaluation, and (d) appreciation.

Smith (1969) used Bloom's taxonomy to develop a list of separate comprehension skills. Her list included: (a) memory, (b) translation, (c) interpretation, (d) application, (e) analysis, (f) synthesis, and (g) evaluation. For the classroom teacher, however, she suggested that categories are difficult to separate, hard to remember, and may not always apply to the materials that children use. She offered a more concise list, therefore, comprised of four categories: (a) literal comprehension, (b) interpretation, (c) critical reading, and (d) creative reading.

Lapp and Flood (1978) examined a number of proposed taxonomies of reading comprehension and combined and summarized them in relation to the six cognitive levels of Bloom's taxonomy. The following is a listing of this summarization:

Levels of cognitive development	Reading Comprehension
	Text Explicit Information
Knowledge (recall)	(literal comprehension)
	Identification of sounds, letters, phrases, sentences, paragraphs
	Recognition and recall of details, main ideas, sequence, comparison, cause-and-effect relationships, character traits, patterns

Comprehension (understanding)	Translation of ideas or information explicitly stated: classifying, generalizing, outlining, summarizing, synthesizing
	Text Implicit Information
Application (abstracting)	(inferential comprehension)
	Realization of one's experiences and textual exposures Inferring: details, main ideas, sequence, comparisons, cause-and-effect relationships, character traits
Analysis (Analyzing)	Predicting Outcomes
Synthesis (production)	Interpreting figurative language, imagery, character, motives, and responses
	Synthesizing: convergently, divergently
	World Knowledge Information
Evaluation (judging)	(critical comprehension)
	Making evaluative judgements of reality or fantasy, fact or opinion, adequacy and validity, appropriateness, worth, desirability, and acceptability
	Valuing
	Propaganda detection: euphemism, fallacy of reasoning, statistical fallacy (maps, charts), stereotyping, oversimplification

Appreciation

Emotional response to content
Identification with characters or incidents
Reactions to the author's use of language
Reactions to the author's word pictures

(pp. 297-298)

Strategies for Improving Instruction in Reading Comprehension

Cloze Procedure

Taylor (1953) introduces the technique known as the cloze procedure. Arnold and Miller (1980) suggest that this technique involves filling in blanks which have been created by the deletion of words from a prose passage on a regular basis. Usually every fifth word is deleted but there may be other deletion patterns such as every nth noun, all structural words, and so forth (Bortnick & Lopardo, 1976). In their view, the passage may be selected from the student's instructional material or from any other material which the teacher finds appropriate. Further, they suggest that the cloze procedure has three areas of classroom application: (a) evaluation, (b) diagnoses, and (c) instruction.

When used as an instructional strategy, the cloze procedure is utilized to improve the comprehension abilities

of students (Tierney, Readence, & Dishner, 1980). More specifically, students utilize semantic and syntactic context clues to determine the missing words. It is a procedure, therefore, for improving their ability to utilize the various clues provided by the context (Weaver, 1979). Context clues help clarify the meanings of unknown words (Alexander, 1983). Furthermore, Hafner (1965), found that pupils comprehended better when they received planned instruction in the utilization of context to build meaning than when they received no such instruction.

Richek, List, and Lerner (1983) suggest that in addition to teaching the use of context clues, the cloze technique also encourages the use of inference skills to formulate guesses about missing words. They also contend that students should discuss their answers to the exercises, since discussion focuses attention on the reasonableness of the replacement words. Blachowicz (1977) reiterates the discussion format in utilizing modified cloze procedures to introduce primary pupils to prediction procedures that are essential in comprehension development. Indeed, as Jongsma (1971) asserts, the discussion procedure may be the key to the success of the cloze technique as a teaching strategy.

The Guided Reading Procedure

The Guided Reading Procedure (GRP) is a strategy to be used selectively to improve a student's reading comprehension (Manzo, 1975). He asserts that the GRP is a

combination of techniques resulting in the formation of a new strategy to improve reading comprehension. It is comprised of six basic steps and an optional seventh phase. Burns, Roe, and Ross (1984) suggest that these steps are as follows:

1. Set a purpose for reading a selection of about 500 words and tell the children to remember all they can. Tell them to close their books when they finish reading.

2. Have the students tell everything they remember from the material, and record this information on the board.

3. Ask students to look at the selection again to correct or add to the information that they have already offered.

4. Direct the children to organize the information in an outline or some other arrangement.

5. Ask synthesizing questions to help students integrate the new material with previously acquired information.

6. Give a test immediately to check on the children's short-term recall.

7. Give another form of the test later to check medium or long-term recall. (pp. 312-313)

The Guided Reading Procedure can be an effective approach to reading comprehension. Manzo (1975) points out that it strengthens the reader's determination to concentrate during reading. Harris and Sipay (1979) reiterate this viewpoint in their belief that the procedure can be employed to help pupils overcome the habit of looking back for answers. Further, Manzo (1975) suggests that on those occasions when substantial facts and recall are required, the Guided Reading

Procedure will aid students in reaching these objectives. In his view the acquisition of facts and accuracy in comprehension are prerequisites of higher level comprehension. He also asserts that apart from unaided recall, the Guided Reading Procedure focuses on other important comprehension subskills: (a) recognizing implicit questions, (b) self-correction, and (c) organization of information.

Ankney and McClurg (1981) compared the Guided Reading Procedure to vocabulary presentation, purpose questions, and postreading discussion for social studies and science. They found that it was superior to the other three methods for social studies but not for science. They also reported that it appeared to have no differential effect on better and poorer readers, males and females, or higher achievers and lower achievers. Their findings led to the conclusion that the Guided Reading Procedure was an effective reading strategy in content areas and added diversity to classes. It was time-consuming but it had a positive effect on the children's eagerness to return to the subject matter to search for additional information.

Directed Reading Activity

The Directed Reading Activity (DRA) is usually associated with the basal reader lesson. Betts (1946), described a plan for teaching the reading selections in basal reader programs. He suggested the following procedures:

> First, the group should be prepared, oriented, or made ready, for the reading of a story or selection. Second, the first reading should be guided silent reading. Third, word recognition skills and comprehension should be developed during the silent reading. Fourth, the reading --silent or oral, depending upon the needs of the pupil--should be done for purposes different from those served by the first, or silent, reading. Fifth, the follow-up on the "reading lesson" should be differentiated in terms of pupil needs. (p. 36)

Tierney, Readence, and Dishner (1980) maintain that the DRA may be used in conjunction with any reading selection. In their view, it is comprised of the following components: (a) readiness, (b) directed silent reading, (c) comprehension check and discussion, (d) oral reading, and (e) follow-up activities. They provide a concise description of each of these stages.

Readiness. This stage involves preparing the students for reading by relating the story to their background of experience, motivating the students for reading, introducing new words, and establishing purposes for reading. Building background may be achieved by discussing the story title and illustrations, student's personal experience related to the story content, films, maps, and other audio-visual aids. The story title and illustrations may also serve to arouse students' interests. For further motivation, the teacher may read introductory portions of the story. To emphasize both word meanings and word pronunciation, new words are introduced in context. Finally, the teacher may give the students a

major purpose for reading the whole story by posing a question for students to answer in their silent reading. Sometimes, however, the teacher may decide to set specific purposes for each part of the selection before going on to other segments of the selection.

Directed silent reading. After the preparatory stage of the DRA, pupils should read the selection to find answers to the purpose-questions set by the teacher. Students may be directed to read all or part of the selection at one time, depending on the story length, content, and the students' ability (Heilman, Blair & Rupley, 1981). They also suggest that if the story is to be broken into two or more segments, they should be determined logically before the lesson begins.

Comprehension check and discussion. Following the silent reading, initial dicsussion should centre around answering the purpose-questions set prior to the silent reading. Secondly, utilizing discussion questions, the teacher stresses and develops comprehension abilities. For example, teachers might include questions on the interpretive or critical levels to extend the students' thoughts arising from their reading to set purposes.

Oral reading. Oral reading may occur in conjunction with the comprehension check and discussion or the teacher may use it to set new purposes for reading. These purposes may be set independently by the teacher, or new purposes may arise from the discussion or help the students prepare for a

follow-up activity. In any event, if oral reading is to be a part of the lesson, it must be purposeful and meaningful to the students (Heilman, Blair & Rupley, 1981).

Follow-up activities. In the follow-up activities, emphasis is on building and extending development and enrichment of the students' understanding of the concepts in the story. Activities for extending skill development may include introducing new word attack skills, utilizing new terms of the story to extend students' vocabulary, and further development of students' comprehension abilities. Enrichment activities may involve creative work, study activities, or extended reading.

Directed Reading-Thinking Activity

Stauffer (1969) asserted that the reading-thinking process can be directed in such a way that pupils will be encouraged to think while they read--to speculate, to process information, and to test hypotheses. Thus the student's effort and concentration will be motivated. His Directed Reading-Thinking Activity (D-R-T-A) is a plan to be used in directing the reading of selections in a basal reader.

The plan has two components--a process and a product. The process involves identifying the purposes for reading, adjusting the rate of reading to purposes set and the material, reading to verify purposes, and developing comprehension. The product consists of fundamental skill-

training activities. The following is a brief description of the steps involved:

Developing purposes for reading. Stauffer (1969) asserts that the reading-thinking process must begin with the reader. Readers must conjecture or ask questions about the selection. These predictions may be based on the clues available in the title, pictures, maps, information obtained from a small segment of the story, and so forth. These self-generated predictions or questions become the readers' purposes for reading. During this part of the D-R-T-A, the teacher's role is to activate thought by asking such questions as "What do you think?".

Guiding the adjustment of rate. The nature and readability of the material and the students' self-declared purposes will determine the rate of reading. The four general categories of rate adjustment are skimming, scanning, survey reading, and study-type reading. Purposes may dictate, for example, that the reader skim to locate bits of information or that he or she read carefully and reflectively for the purpose of passing judgement. It is the teacher's responsibility to help establish efficient reading rates (Alexander & Donnelly, 1983).

Observing the reading. After efficient rates are determined, the students are directed to read a segment of the selection to test their hypotheses. In reading the story, pupils are encouraged to ask for help when they need it. The

teacher assists pupils who are having problems searching for meaning, clarifying purposes and concepts, or recognizing words. For example, when a student asks for help in identifying a word, the teacher shows him or her how to apply word-attack skills to make an intelligent guess. Stauffer suggests that none of the new words is to be taught or discussed prior to reading. In his view, the basic objectives of the D-R-T-A are to teach students to become thinking readers and to acquire skills that will permit them to read independently.

Developing comprehension. Following the reading of a segment of the story, comprehension development begins. In the initial discussion, pupils are asked to prove that their hypotheses were right or wrong, or to give reasons why they should alter their predictions. To do this, they are required to produce evidence from the material they have read. During the comprehension development stage, the teacher also deals with any questions the students may ask about particular aspects of the story and further clarification of words or concepts if it is needed. After the development of comprehension for the first segment of the story is completed, the predicting, reading, and proving cycle continues in the next segment. The process continues until the entire selection has been read.

Fundamental skill-training activities. After the comprehension development for the last segment of the story

is completed, the last step in the D-R-T-A, the fundamental skill-training, begins. As Stauffer (1969) suggests:

> This is the time when skill training of a different kind is accomplished. Now special attention is given to developing such skills as firming up and refining word-attack skills, clarifying and developing concepts, increasing powers of observation and reflection, and developing adeptness in the use of semantic analysis. (p. 55)

Psycholinguistic Approach

According to psycholinguistic theory as postulated by Goodman (1967, 1973) and Smith (1978, 1979), reading is viewed basically as a language or communication process. It centres on the subject, the language user, and how he or she puts language to use in a search for meaning. Readers utilize their background knowledge, especially their knowledge of language, to interact with the printed word. They formulate predictions about meaning, and as they read ahead the predictions are either confirmed, or rejected and revised.

The reader brings more information to the text than the text brings to the reader. Readers have in their minds information and concepts which enable them to make sense out of the text. Reading, therefore, means bringing meaning to the printed word in order to get meaning from it (Burmeister, 1983). Jenkins and Pany (1980) contend that the proficient reader constructs meaning by utilizing as little visual

information as possible. The more visual information a reader requires to obtain meaning from the printed page, the less efficient is her or his reading.

Goodman (1967) refers to reading as a psycholinguistic guessing game. As readers scan the lines, they use graphic (visual), phonological (sound), semantic (meaning), and syntactic (grammatical) cues to get to the meaning. In this process they develop sampling, predicting, confirming, and correcting strategies. Effective reading is only defined in terms of comprehension. As Goodman (1973) states:

> Efficiency in reading is gained by using the fewest number of graphic cues and making the best possible predictions on the basis of what the reader knows about language and the content of what he is reading, without sacrificing meaning. (p. 60)

Smith (1978) maintains a similar view of the reading process. Readers "predict" their way through the printed lines by using their knowledge of language redundancy. He defines prediction as the "prior elimination of unlikely alternatives" (p. 66). In his view, there are four types of redundancy: (a) visual, (b) orthographic (spelling), (c) syntactic (grammatical), and (d) semantic (meaning). The fluent reader depends less on graphic input than does the less fluent reader.

According to Smith (1979), prediction is the basis of comprehension. In his view, prediction is asking questions. He suggests that as students read, they are constantly asking questions, hypothesizing, and seeking answers to these

questions. Smith also contends that as long as these questions are answered, the reader comprehends. He asserts, therefore, that comprehension is relative; it depends on the questions which the reader happens to ask. Moreover, Smith (1979) states that "Comprehension is not a quantity, it is a state--a state of not having any unanswered questions" (p. 86).

Smith (1979) contends that "it is special practice at a specific task, with sympathetic help in meaningful situations, that makes the learning of any skill possible" (p. 146). Students, therefore, need to be given adequate opportunities to explore and test hypotheses in printed materials which appeal to them (Smith, 1978). In his view, the basic objective of reading teachers should be to ensure that students are given these opportunities. Where children have little interest in reading, teachers must motivate and encourage them to read. Where students have difficulty in reading, teachers must help them.

Active Comprehension

Ruddell (1974) proposed questioning strategies for directing the students' thinking whereby the teacher asks questions and students respond with answers. Teacher-posed questions may serve as a model of the way in which thinking during reading should occur. While some transfer may occur through imitating the teacher's questioning behaviour, the interaction strategy does not teach students how to become

independent in the reading process (Singer, 1978). In his view, the best way to facilitate transfer is to teach for it. His plan incorporates three important concepts for guiding instruction: (a) modeling behaviour, (b) phase-out and phase-in strategies, and (c) active comprehension.

Modeling behaviour. Teacher-formulated questions can serve as a model of the kinds of questions that are appropriate for a particular content area. The teacher, therefore, first models a process of comprehension by taking students through an entire lesson, a unit, and so forth, demonstrating what questions to ask and what process of thinking to go through in reading and comprehending the printed material.

Phase-out and phase-in strategies. In order to complete the instructional procedure, the students must be taught to formulate their own questions. To achieve this objective, the teacher must go through a succeeding lesson or chapter eliciting student-formulated questions before, during, and after reading. Thus the teacher is phased out and the students are phased in in formulating questions.

Active comprehension. As the students begin to formulate their own questions, they are developing a process of reading called active comprehension. They can then read actively to answer their own questions. Singer (1978) maintains that "The objective of teaching comprehension is to have students learn to ask their own questions and guide

their own thinking so that they can become independent in the process of reading and learning from text" (p. 904).

The Art of Questioning

The Significance of Questions

Questioning is the key to effective teaching. Smith (in Pennock, 1979) asserts that the great teacher, Socrates, used clever questioning to direct the learner in the discovery of knowledge. The questions a teacher asks determine the kind of thinking the students do (Gallagher, 1964). Wixson (1983) maintains that "both the type and the content of questions promote different learning outcomes" (p. 292).

Hunkins (1976) also suggests that without the question there is an absence of learning since the question is required for processing information. Moreover, Durkin (1981) contends that students retain more about a text when questions are used. As DeGarmo (1911) states:

> In the skillful use of the question more than in anything else lies the fine art of teaching; for in such use we have the guide to clear and vivid ideas, the quick spur to imagination, the stimulus to thought, the incentive to action. (p. 226)

In conjunction with story reading, questions are asked for at least three specific purposes. First, questions serve to evaluate learning. Teachers ask questions to discover how well children understand what they read, for comprehension occurs inside the head and is unobservable (Beck & McKeown,

1981). Good questions, therefore, can identify readers in need of special instruction (Olson & Dillner, 1982). Indeed, questions are the main instrument of teachers in their attempt to measure comprehension (Smith & Robinson, 1980).

Second, questions function as a diagnostic tool. When students are requested to give reasons behind their answers or statements, the thinking process they used to generate responses is revealed (Richek, List, & Lerner, 1983). Teachers can pose questions that will assist them in their examination of the student's thought patterns. Melnik (1972) agrees with this viewpoint:

> As a diagnostic tool, questions are formulated by the teacher to elicit the maximum response from an individual. In analyzing his response, the teacher gains insight into his process of reading, which provides a basis for planning appropriate individual instruction. (p. 267)

Third, questions can be utilized to enhance comprehension. Questions can focus and direct students' thinking (Singer, 1978). For example, purpose questions before reading determine the student's nature and depth of thinking while he or she is reading a selection. Lapp and Flood (1978) also suggest that "A second way to look at questioning as a stimulant for thinking is to think of questions as a tool for ordering thinking, for putting the pieces of a puzzle together" (p. 310). They contend that when a student misinterprets a passage, retracking procedures can be utilized through systematic questioning to help him or her discover the pieces of the puzzle that have been incorrectly interpreted.

Guidelines for Questioning

Guidelines for preparing questions. Because questions determine both the quantity and quality of a student's comprehension, the way in which teachers construct reading comprehension questions is very significant. Cunningham (1971) asserts that the wording determines both the function of a question and how well the teacher communicates with the students. Phrasing a question, therefore, requires careful attention. Questions which are not deliberately planned tend to be poorly worded and misleading to students (Burns, Roe, & Ross, 1984). As Turner (1983b) suggests, questions can be so complex that students are unable to comprehend them. In his view, preparation of questions should involve:

1. careful examination of the reading materials.
2. consideration of objectives involved (reading objectives, social growth objectives, knowledge mastering objectives, etc.).
3. purposeful decision making about the nature, purpose, and direction of the questioning strategy itself.
4. knowledge and understanding of the needs, levels of abilities, and likely reactions to different techniques of particular children.
5. consideration of the total instructional context. (p. 203)

Other specific guidelines are recommended by various authorities. The following suggestions may be of some benefit to teachers who wish to improve their questioning techniques:

1. Avoid "yes" or "no" type questions (Burns, Roe, & Ross, 1984; Cunningham, 1971; Napell, 1978).

2. Keep questions clear and concise (Cunningham, 1971; Hunkins, 1972; Hyman, 1982; Sanders, 1966).

3. Avoid questions that may lead students to the answer by supplying too much information (Burns, Roe, & Ross, 1984; Cunningham, 1971).

4. Structure passage-dependent questions. Avoid questions that can be answered correctly without first reading the selection (Culyer, 1981; Dauzat & Dauzat, 1981; Tuinman, 1971).

5. Prepare a variety of questions designed to reflect different levels of comprehension (Dallmann, Rouch, Char, & DeBoer, 1982; Lapp & Flood, 1978; Ruddell, 1978; Wilson & Hall, 1972).

6. Use language the readers can comprehend (Dauzat & Dauzat, 1981; Turner, 1983b).

7. When you ask "What do you think?" type questions, ask students to present evidence for their opinions (Burns, Roe, & Ross, 1984; Spiegel, 1980).

Guidelines for asking questions. The teacher's effectiveness in asking questions will depend on both the formation of good questions and also on the way the teacher uses these questions (Cunningham, 1971). He suggests that the way teachers manage questions and the students' answers will determine the quality of the students' responses. As

Stauffer (1970) contends, "a question well asked can be half the answer" (p. 138). In order to develop students' thinking and to motivate students to interpret and analyze the selections they read, the following guidelines are suggested.

1. Give the students time to think about the answers (Culyer, 1981; Gambrell, 1983; Heilman, Blair & Rupley, 1981). Students who are given three to five seconds to respond produce better answers (Rowe, 1978).

2. Call on both willing volunteers and non-volunteers (Cunningham, 1971; Hyman, 1982).

3. Ask the question before calling on someone to respond (Dauzat & Dauzat, 1981).

4. Give feedback for a response (Etten, 1978; Riley, 1979; Schwartz & Sheff, 1975). Praise the learner for appropriate answers (Spiegel, 1980; Turner, 1983b). Deal with incorrect responses in an understanding and sympathetic manner (Dallmann, Rouch, Char, & DeBoer, 1982; Spiegel, 1980).

5. Rephrase questions that evoke undesirable responses (Dauzat & Dauzat, 1981). As a general rule, repeating questions in the same form should be avoided (Cunningham, 1971; Davidson, 1969).

6. Have the students ask questions on the story or selection (Balajthy, 1984; Eeds, 1981; Ortiz, 1977; Singer, 1978).

Questioning strategies. Smith (in Pennock, 1979) maintains that "Improving comprehension involves more than asking of questions at the various cognitive levels" (p. 96). Ruddell (1978) asserts that teachers should be aware of various questioning procedures which can be utilized when involving students in verbal interaction. He stresses the following questioning strategies for effectively developing the students' comprehension abilities.

1. Focusing -- initiates discussion or refocuses on an initial question. Example: "What is this story about?"

2. Extending -- asks for more information on the same subject at a given comprehension level. Example: "What other information do we need about the visitor?"

3. Clarifying -- enables the teacher to encourage returning to a previous response for further clarification, explanation, or redefinition. Example: "Could you explain what you mean?"

4. Raising -- allows the teacher to obtain additional information on the same subject at a higher comprehension level. Example: "Why do you like this story best?"

Research on the Effects of Questioning

Research supports the theory that the use of questions while reading enhances learning. An early representative study is that of Walshburne (1929) who used five types of question placement in a high school social studies passage to

determine if the use of questions influences learning. Students read the passage under one of the following conditions: (a) all questions at the beginning of the selection, (b) questions interspersed at the beginning of target paragraphs, (c) questions interspersed at the end of target paragraphs, (d) all questions at the end of the passage, and (e) no questions. The questions focused on detail information as well as on generalizations about the text. Students took a test immediately following the reading of the passage. In most cases, the investigator found that the use of questions enhanced comprehension test performance when compared to the no-question group.

Savage (1972) examined the relationship of classroom questions and student achievement in social studies. All fifth-grade students in two randomly chosen schools participated in the experiment which was conducted over a six-week period. The subjects were randomly assigned to three groups. Group A received instruction which focused on 70% knowledge-level questions and 30% higher-level questions. Group B received instruction comprised of 70% higher-level questions and 30% knowledge-level questions. Group C was a control group. Utilizing analysis of variance procedures, he found statistically significant effects for the experimental groups.

Mays (1969) conducted a study to determine whether the curiosity levels of children would be increased and whether gains would be made in children's comprehension when

selected questioning procedures were used. A rotation-group design was used with 171 fifth-grade students. Experimental group-teachers utilized curiosity promoting questions in prequestioning of students before the reading of the selections. After analysis of the data, she concluded that the use of selected questioning techniques does produce significant increases in curiosity and in reading comprehension when compared to the gains made when regular classroom procedures are used.

Fincke (1968) investigated the relationship between asking children questions to develop purposes for reading and their achievement of higher levels of comprehension. Thirty-two Grade Three students from varying socioeconomic environments participated in the study. Two alternate forms of Temple University's informal Reading Inventory were administered, with sets of prepared questions to develop purposes for reading as the variable. The findings indicated that asking questions to develop purposes for reading resulted significantly in higher levels of comprehension: (a) with the entire population at the .02 level, (b) with children from middle reading-groups at the .02 level, and (c) with children from the socioeconomically average schools at the .01 level.

By contrast, Helfeldt and Lalik (1979) compared the effects of two questioning strategies on the development of interpretive reading. Twenty-two Grade Five students were randomly assigned to a unilateral teacher questioning group

or a reciprocal student-teacher questioning group. The 11 subjects in each group were then randomly assigned to instructional units consisting of three or four subjects. These subjects were taught interpretive reading skills during forty-five minute lessons presented on 14 consecutive school days. Following the final treatment session, they compared the performance of the two groups on a posttest. Analysis of the data indicated that the reciprocal student-teacher questioning groups were statistically superior to the groups where teacher questioning dominated.

Cohen (1983) conducted an investigation which focused on student-generated questions at the literal level of reading comprehension. Forty-eight Grade Three children were selected for the study and randomly assigned to experimental or control groups within classes. The examiner attempted to answer two questions: (a) Could elementary school children be trained to generate questions while reading a short story? (b) Would this self-questioning strategy improve their reading comprehension. The training program, therefore, consisted of two parts: (a) training in question generation, and (b) application of questioning skills to reading short stories. Results showed significant gains by the experimental groups on both a standardized test and a criterion test.

Although these studies contained many limitations and involved various questioning strategies, they do support the assumption that reading comprehension abilities can be improved through questioning.

Research Related to the Improvement of Reading Comprehension through Instruction

As indicated in Chapter One, there are relatively few studies available in the area of reading comprehension instruction. Those studies which do exist, however, tend to support the theory that students can indeed, through explicit instruction, be taught to acquire and apply reading strategies which will improve reading comprehension.

Davey and Porter (1982) reported a study in which they used a four-step instruction procedure with middle school students. These students were identified as poor comprehenders who viewed reading as a code process rather than a meaning process and lacked effective "fix-up" strategies to deal with comprehension problems. The steps in the program included enhancing a meaning orientation to print, focusing attention on meaning during silent reading, establishing criteria for understanding, and developing fix-up strategies. After six-week training sessions, this procedure was evaluated using comparison groups of fifth and sixth-grade students. The examiners found that students trained in the four-step procedure were more successful in overall posttest comprehension.

Doctorow (1974) predicted that retention of low frequency reading materials and reading comprehension would be increased by instructing elementary school students to

generate meaningful story relationships. To test her hypothesis, 366 fifth and sixth-grade students were randomly assigned to experimental and control treatments. Analysis of her data showed that reading comprehension and retention were significantly increased by the generation treatment in comparison to the control treatment in separate experiments for above and below average readers.

Tharp (1982) reported the assessment of the Kamehameha Early Education Program (KEEP) in terms of three experiments. This program which features systematic instruction in comprehension has been developed for Polynesian-Hawaiian children. It employs direct daily instruction with two-thirds of the instructional time in reading being allocated to comprehension. KEEP operates a research and demonstration school of one class each of Kindergarten through Grade Three.

Each experiment was designed to examine the effects of the KEEP program on students' total reading achievement (vocabulary plus comprehension). The first study was conducted entirely in the laboratory school and involved Grades One, Two, and Three. The KEEP program was compared to a phonics-based program which emphasized decoding objectives. A successive-cohorts analysis indicated that the KEEP program was superior to the phonics program.

In the second experiment, which also involved pupils in Grades One, Two, and Three, KEEP experimental groups in the laboratory school were compared with appropriate control

groups in eleven public schools. The control subjects were from twenty-four classrooms where standard basal reader series were used. Three-quarters of these classes utilized small, homogeneous ability groups for reading instruction. Results demonstrated superiority of the KEEP program over matched public school controls.

An experimental versus control group design was also utilized in experiment three. The study was conducted by installing the KEEP program in two public schools. In each school, all first-grade children were randomly assigned to the two experimental KEEP classes or to the two control groups. Analysis of the data indicated that the KEEP program was superior to the regular programs in both schools.

Palinscar and Brown (cited in Pearson & Gallagher, 1983) examined the effects of explicit instruction of four comprehension monitoring activities. The investigation involved learning disabled junior high school students who were efficient at decoding but deficient in comprehension. A reciprocal questioning procedure was used to teach the following activities: (a) question generating, (b) summarizing, (c) predicting what might be discussed next in the text, and (d) clarifying unclear text.

Two studies were included in the research. One of the investigators worked with six students, in pairs, in study one. In the second study, four reading teachers taught 21 remedial reading students. Results indicated that the

students' ability to answer comprehension questions improved significantly after 15 days of training. The effects were also evident on an eight-week delayed test.

Spiegel and Whaley (1980) reported a study conducted to investigate whether children's concept of story could be enhanced through instruction, and whether reading comprehension could be enhanced through instruction designed to develop concept of story. Twenty Grade Four readers with a poorly developed concept of story were selected and randomly assigned to two groups. The experimental group received six sessions of intensive instruction in structure of stories for thirty to forty minutes daily. The control group received instruction in various other language aspects. After the testing of the concept of story and comprehension of stories, the results reported were: (a) The concept of story for the experimental group was significantly better than that of the control group. (b) The experimental group performed significantly better on both story structure and reading comprehension.

Several research studies suggest that students can improve their critical reading and thinking skills and learn to make inferences if they receive systematic instruction in these skills. Wolf, King, and Huck (1967) conducted a study to determine whether or not critical reading could be taught to elementary school children. Grades One through Six participated in the study which lasted a full year and

included experimental and control groups in all six grades. The investigators found that groups of children who received critical reading instruction made significant gains over the control groups on the critical reading tests even in the primary grades. Moreover, they reported that children of all levels of intelligence profited from the instruction.

Patching, Kameenui, Carnine, Gersten, and Colvin (1983) compared a control and two experimental treatments in training three critical reading skills. The population consisted of 39 Grade Five students selected from two public schools and randomly assigned to one of three groups. A direct instruction approach was used with one experimental group and a workbook-with-corrective-feedback approach with the other. Students in the control group were given worksheets from a commonly used reading comprehension workbook program. Analysis of the results obtained on the critical reading posttest significantly favoured the direct-instruction approach.

To ascertain the effects of instruction on inferential reading comprehension, Hansen (1981) compared three groups of average second-grade readers. One experimental group received training in using an inferential thinking strategy. In the second experimental group, students were given guided-reading discussion questions, all at the inferential level. The third group, a control group, received traditional story introductions and the typical mix of literal to inferential

questions (about five to one). Instruction was applied to ten basal-reader stories. Utilizing four outcome measures, she found that students in both experimental groups performed better than students in the control group. It was concluded that both instruction and practice affect children's comprehension performance.

Carr, Dewitz, and Patberg (1983) used three procedures to help sixth-grade children increase inferential reading comprehension with expository text. The study which extended over a period of eight weeks involved instruction in three social studies units. Seventy-five pupils at a suburban elementary school were divided into three groups. One treatment group received instruction in only a cloze technique. The other received a combination of a structured overview and the cloze technique. Both treatment groups also learned to use a self-monitoring checklist. A control group read the same materials as the other two groups, but was not trained in any strategy. The study employed a pretest, three posttests, a transfer test, and a delayed transfer test. Growth in inferantial comprehension was not immediate. The results for the unit one posttest indicated that there were no significant differences among the groups on inferential questions. Results of the posttests for units two and three, however, indicated that there were significant differences among the groups. Subjects in the two experimental groups were reliably superior to those in the control group in

answering textually implicit questions. Moreover, this advantage was also evident in the results of both the transfer test and the delayed transfer test.

Summary

In the review of related literature, the following points were noted:

1. Reading comprehension has many possible meanings.

2. Background knowledge, intelligence, nature of the material, vocabulary development, purpose for reading, and interest are some of the factors which influence reading comprehension.

3. Some researchers have identified specific comprehension skills such as finding the main idea, drawing inferences, and so forth. Moreover, several reading authorities have developed ordered sequences of comprehension subskills.

4. Strategies have been developed for improving instruction in reading comprehension. Six of these strategies are: (a) the cloze procedure, (b) the guided reading procedure, (c) the directed reading activity, (d) the directed reading-thinking activity, (e) the psycholinguistic approach, and (f) active comprehension.

5. Questions play a major role in teaching reading comprehension. Further, various studies have shown that

there is a positive relationship between questioning and student behavior.

6. Research indicates that the students' reading comprehension skills can be improved through systematic instruction.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

Review of the related research has shown that students' reading comprehension can be enhanced through explicit instruction. With this in mind, the investigator designed a systematic questioning program and conducted an experiment in reading comprehension with groups of Grade Four and Five children. This chapter will present an overview of the procedures which were used in the study. It describes (a) the sources of the data and (b) the method and procedure in program implementation, pretesting, posttesting, and treatment of data.

Sources of Data

Needs Assessment

A questionnaire (Appendix A) was compiled by this investigator to obtain the views of primary and elementary grade teachers, relevant to the teaching of reading comprehension. Two copies of the questionnaire were mailed to each of seventy-one schools throughout the province of Newfoundland and Labrador. One hundred and eight were returned. The responses to the ten statements on the

questionnaire are shown in Table 1. At least four significant conclusions can be drawn from these responses. The majority of respondents stated that they were of the opinion that:

1. Reading comprehension has some influence on a pupil's progress at school.

2. More emphasis should be given to comprehension instruction in the primary and elementary grades.

3. Basal reader guidebooks do not give adequate suggestions for teaching reading comprehension.

4. Teachers in this province need strategies for teaching reading comprehension and would attempt to incorporate them in their reading programs.

Setting for the Study

This study took place in Bishop's Falls, a town located in the central area of Newfoundland, with a population of approximately 5000 persons. It was conducted within the Exploits Valley Integrated School Board, a board which presently employs 276 teachers and has a student enrollment of nearly 5000. The school district is divided into six zones, encompassing 20 schools in all categories, from primary, elementary, junior high and senior high schools to all-grade schools.

The investigator is presently principal of the Helen Tulk Elementary School in which this study took place. The school employs 18 teachers. It is located in the central section of the town and has a population of 324 pupils,

Table 1

Questionnaire Results

STATEMENTS N = 108	RESPONSES A	B	C	D	E
1. Reading comprehension abilities have little effect upon a student's progress from the primary to the elementary grades.	3	2	80	23	0
2. There will always be some students in each primary and elementary grade who will have some difficulty in comprehending what they read.	46	57	0	5	0
3. Reading without comprehension is of little value. Unless pupils understand what they read, they are doing very little but word calling.	89	16	1	2	0
4. The basal reader guidebooks give very little direction on <u>how</u> to teach students to comprehend (i.e., detailed teaching strategies on how to teach literal and inferential comprehension skills.)	21	63	1	20	0
5. As a teacher, I feel that I need strategies on <u>how</u> to systematically teach comprehension skills to developmental students.	37	61	0	8	2
6. There is a greater need to teach students how to pronounce words than to teach them to comprehend what they are reading.	0	5	38	65	0

Table 1 (continued)

STATEMENTS N = 108	RESPONSES A	B	C	D	E
7. Primary grade teachers (e.g., Kg. to Grade Three) need to stress comprehension development more in their reading programs.	24	71	0	8	5
8. Elementary grade teachers (e.g., Grades Four to Six) need to stress comprehension development more in their reading programs.	30	71	0	4	3
9. As a teacher, I would attempt to incorporate guidelines for specific questioning strategies into my existing reading program as a means of assisting me to teach students <u>how</u> to comprehend more effectively.	39	67	0	1	1
10. As a teacher, I feel that systematic inservice programs aimed at teaching me how to utilize specific questioning strategies, to improve my students' comprehension abilities, would be of some benefit.	30	76	0	1	1

<u>Note</u>: A indicates "strongly agree"; B indicates "agree"; C indicates "strongly disagree"; D indicates "disagree"; E indicates "no response".

ranging from Kindergarten to Grade Six. The building is relatively new, having opened for classes in September, 1977.

Selection of the Experimental and Control Groups

During the summer of 1983, the investigator approached the district superintendent of the Explofts Valley Integrated School Board, seeking his permission to test the reading comprehension program with two groups of students at the Helen Tulk Elementary School. The superintendent, being aware of the significance of reading comprehension in all areas of the curriculum, responded favourably. He agreed that the necessary arrangements should be worked out with the classroom teachers so that the investigation could proceed.

Generally, most pupils at the Helen Tulk Elementary are grouped homogenously for reading instruction on the basis of their achievement level. The emphasis is on placing each child on a reading level at which he or she can function, provided this can be achieved with the available personnel. Usually, therefore, there are three or more reading groups in each grade area.

For the 1983-84 school year, therefore, the administration and staff decided to organize seven reading groups in Grades Four and Five. Some pupils in both of these grades were ready to begin the basal reader Backpacks and Bumblebees (McInnes, Hearn, & Hanney, 1977), which is part of the Nelson Language Development Reading program.

For the purpose of reading instruction, therefore, it was decided to assign these students to one teacher. The remaining reading groups were ready to begin various other readers in the same basal program.

For the purpose of this study, the subjects included 66 Grade Four and Five students. There were two Grade Four groups and two Grade Five groups. These consisted of thirteen, twenty-five, six, and twenty-two students respectively, and were assigned to three teachers.

Two experimental groups were taught by the investigator. One of these consisted of thirteen Grade Four students; the other group was comprised of six Grade Five students. These groups were not taught separately, however, but were assembled for reading instruction. Furthermore, these students were given 160 minutes of instruction each week, the same as the reading instruction time allotted each of the control groups. The two control groups were comprised of 25 Grade Four students and 22 Grade Five students respectively.

The Testing Instrument

One standardized test was used in the study, the comprehension subtest of the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test (Canadian edition), Level D, Forms 1 and 2 (MacGinitie, 1979). It is designed for use with students from Grades Four to Six. Each form is comprised of 16 prose passages

of varying lengths and a total of 43 questions about these passages. It does not require any written response, since all items are multiple choice.

The Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test (GATES) measures the student's ability to read the passages with understanding. Some of the questions about these passages require an understanding of textually explicit information; others require an understanding of textually implicit information (MacGinitie, 1980). The GATES was specifically selected for the purpose of this study to determine a comparative mean gain score ratio so that the actual mean gain for each experimental group could be compared to the expected mean gain derived from this ratio.

Method and Procedure

Program Implementation

The program designed by the investigator is based on an adaptation of different philosophies pertaining to reading comprehension instruction. Instructional strategies incorporate some of the theories of Betts (1946), Singer (1978), and Stauffer (1969, 1975). It also utilizes questioning techniques advocated by Ruddell (1978), for developing abilities in comprehending written material. Throughout the program, emphasis was placed on the process approach to reading comprehension.

The basic objectives of the experimental program were to develop reading comprehension ability at the literal and inferential levels in the following specific skills:

1. to detect significant details
2. to follow sequence
3. to recognize cause and effect relationships
4. to make comparisons
5. to detect character traits
6. to find the main idea

To achieve these objectives, the investigator utilized 15 selections from Backpacks and Bumblebees (McInnes, Hearn, and Hanney, 1977), and one selection from Rowboats and Rollerskates (McInnes, Hearn, and Hanney, 1975).

The program is composed of the following stages:

Readiness. The readiness, or preparatory stage involves getting students ready to experience the reading selection. Basically, readiness enables a student to share personal experiences related to the story, be introduced to new vocabulary and concepts, and to be motivated enough to want to read the selection. Four components comprise the readiness phase.

1. Motivation: Based on the assumption that students need to be motivated to read a selection in order to maximize the comprehension and enjoyment of its content, the teacher needs to establish a form of extrinsic motivation.

2. Concept Development: Here, it is suggested that teachers attempt to establish a working understanding of concepts that will be used in the story selection.

3. Vocabulary Development: Here, the teacher's task is to introduce students to any words that may be outside of their listing, speaking, or reading vocabulary. Word meanings as well as word pronunciation will be emphasized.

4. Establishing Purposes for Reading: Here, a teacher first introduces a group of students to the story selection. In the program designed by the investigator, pupils set their own purposes for reading each segment of the selection. Self-initiated questions become their purposes for reading. Utilizing pictures, the first sentence, the title, or events to come in the selection, the teacher asks questions which get questions in return.

For motivation and concept development for stories included in the program, the investigator utilized the corresponding suggestions under the Focusing Children's Experience section of the Nelson Language Development Reading program. For vocabulary development, the investigator utilized the suggestions related to this component under Focusing Reading Strategies in the same basal program. No further reference will be made to motivation, concept development, and vocabulary development, therefore, in Appendices C and D.

Directed silent reading. The next step involves silent reading of each selection in one to five parts. Students are required to read each segment to find the answers to questions which were posed in the purposes for reading.

Verifying answers to pre-posed questions. After the silent reading of each segment of the selection, discussion centres around answering the pre-posed questions which were utilized to establish the purposes for reading. Students are required to determine the answers to these questions and sometimes prove their answers by quoting line(s) from the text.

Purposeful oral reading. This stage is utilized in conjunction with the previous stage, the verifying answers to pre-posed questions phase. Volunteers are sometimes asked to read orally certain portions of the selection for specific reasons (e.g., to read the line(s) which proves the answer.

Comprehension check. Following the verifying answers to pre-posed question stage for the last segment of the selection, the selection is re-examined for the purpose of further checking or developing the students' comprehension. Two steps are involved in this process. In the first step, students are encouraged to ask questions pertaining to the selection and have their classmates give possible answers.

This process is utilized to help students guide their own thinking so that they might become more independent in their reading. The second step involves the utilization of teacher-posed questions which require possible answers from the students.

Fundamental skill development. The final step involves systematic development and application of the students' reading-thinking abilities. Utilizing the story and/or other materials, specific skills are taught directly. The investigator attempts to direct the way in which the process of thinking during reading should occur. The process to be utilized in conjunction with each skill was identified and then taught to the students. These processes are outlined in Appendix B.

It is suggested that other components of the Nelson Language Development Reading program such as workbook activities, enrichment, and so forth, be utilized at the teacher's discretion. The foregoing plan to supplement the Nelson Language Development Reading program, however, is the main thrust of the program developed by the investigator. Specific strategies for teaching reading comprehension, utilizing each of the 16 selections from the basal readers, are outlined in Appendices C and D. They may be used as a guide for a teacher to follow. It is assumed that the line of questioning on the part of the teacher will be adapted

by the individual teacher. Student responses merely serve to lend continuity to the discourse.

Pretesting

Pretesting was carried out from September 21 to 23, 1983. Its chief purposes were: (a) to obtain a mean score in reading comprehension for each of the experimental and control groups at the outset of the study, and (b) to measure accurate gains made from pretesting to posttesting.

The pretesting of the Comprehension subtest of the GATES, Form D, Level 1, was the responsibility of the investigator. To avoid overcrowding, the test was administered in three group settings of 19, 22, and 25 students respectively. It was administered in the exact manner as prescribed in the test manual by MacGinitie (1980). Scorind regulations were also strictly adhered to.

Posttesting

Posttesting was carried out between May 21 and 23. All subjects were tested utilizing the Comprehension subtest of the GATES, Form D, Level 2. It was administered by the investigator employing the same group settings procedure that was used in the pretesting. The administration and scoring of the test was done in the exact manner as specified in the test manual by MacGinitie (1980).

Procedure in Treatment of Data

The pretest and posttest scores were utilized to calculate the mean for each grade group. By comparing the pretest means of the experimental and control groups, the investigator computed a ratio which was used to calculate the expected posttest mean for each of the experimental groups. Finally, the expected posttest means were compared to the actual posttest means of the experimental groups.

Summary

In order to achieve the objective of this study, to evaluate the effects of a systematic questioning program on the reading comprehension abilities of fourth and fifth graders, the procedures described in this chapter were employed. First, sources of data were examined: the needs assessment, the setting of the study, the selection of the experimental and control groups, and the testing instrument. The methods and procedures involved in program implementation, pretesting, posttesting, and in the treatment of data concluded the chapter.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

This chapter will present an analyses of the data, so that the effects of the experimental program can be assessed, and a discussion of these findings derived from the analyses of the data.

Analysis of Data

It was not possible to equalize reading ability by randomly assigning students to experimental and control groups due to the existing grouping procedures for the entire school and the duration of the experiment. It was anticipated at the outset, therefore, that differences existed between the experimental and control groups at both grade levels in their comprehension abilities.

Pre-treatment group differences on the GATES scores were assessed prior to testing the post-treatment effects. A comparison of the pretest means for each group confirmed that differences did exist between the experimental and control groups at both grade levels. Table 2 indicates that the means for the control and experimental groups at the Grade Four level were 17.96 and 12.23 respectively. At the Grade Five level, the means were 24.95 and 14.5.

Table 2 indicates that between group differences were also evident on the posttest means. Posttest means for the Grade Four control and experimental groups were 26.28 and 19.54 respectively. At the Grade Five level, the posttest means were 31.50 and 23.5. The mean of the Grade Four control group, therefore, rose by 8.32 throughout the course of the study, while that of the Grade Four experimental group increased by 7.31. For the Grade Five groups, however, the mean gains were 6.55 and 9.0 in favour of the experimental group.

For a more adequate comparison of the effects of the treatments, the following analysis was utilized:

$\frac{\text{mean gain}}{\text{pretest mean}}$ = gain ratio.

Utilizing this formula, the following results were established:

1. At the Grade Four level (see Table 3), the gain ratio for the control group was $\frac{8.32}{17.96} = .46$. The experimental group had a mean gain ratio of $\frac{7.31}{12.23} = .60$.

2. At the Grade Five level (see Table 4), the gain ratio for the control group was $\frac{6.55}{24.95} = .26$. The experimental group had a mean gain ratio of $\frac{9.0}{14.5} = .62$. The above analyses indicate that the ratio of the gain for the experimental group exceeded the ratio of the gain for the control group at both grade levels. In other words, the experimental groups did relatively better on the posttests using the GATES.

Table 2

Pretest and Posttest Means and Mean Gains for the Control and Experimental Groups on the Gates

Treatment Group	Pretest Mean	Posttest Mean	Mean Gains
Grade Four Control	17.96	26.28	8.32
Grade Four Experimental	12.23	19.54	7.31
Grade Five Control	24.95	31.5	6.55
Grade Five Experimental	14.5	23.5	9.0

Table 3

Ratio of Mean Gain to Pretest Mean for Grade Four Control and Experimental Groups on the Gates

Treatment Group	Ratio
Control	.46
Experimental	.60

Table 4

Ratio of Mean Gain to Pretest Mean for Grade Five Control and Experimental Groups on the Gates

Treatment Group	Ratio
Control	.26
Experimental	.62

Since differences existed between the experimental and control groups for both grades at the outset, the pretest means were utilized to find the ratio of the experimental group's measure to that of the control group, to determine the magnitude of the differences at each grade level. Consequently, the following analysis was utilized:

$$\frac{\text{Mean of experimental}}{\text{Mean of control}} = \text{ratio of experimental to control.}$$

Utilizing this formula, the following results were established:

1. At the Grade Four level (see Table 5), the ratio was $\frac{12.23}{17.96} = .68$.

2. At the Grade Five level (see Table 6), the ratio was $\frac{14.5}{24.95} = .58$.

The results of the above analyses indicate that at the Grade Four level the experimental group was .68 as effective as the control group in comprehending text, utilizing the GATES, at the outset of the study. At the Grade Five level, the experimental group was .58 as effective as the control group.

Under normal conditions, therefore, the Grade Four experimental group would have been expected to do .68 as well as the Grade Four control group on posttest measures. At the Grade Five level, the experimental group would have been expected to do .58 as well as the control group. The respective ratios were applied to the posttest means of the respective control groups. The following analyses were employed:

Table 5

Ratio of Pretest Mean for Grade Four Experimental Group to Pretest Mean for Grade Four Control Group on the Gates

Treatment Group	Pretest Mean	Ratio
Experimental	12.23	
Control	17.96	.68

Table 6

Ratio of Pretest Mean for Grade Five Experimental Group to Pretest Mean for Grade Five Control Group on the Gates

Treatment Group	Pretest Mean	Ratio
Experimental	14.5	
Control	24.95	.58

1. At the Grade Four level: posttest mean of the control group x .68 = posttest expected mean of the experimental group. This was computed as 26.28 x .68 = 17.87.

2. At the Grade Five level, the computations were 31.50 x .58 = 18.27. Table 7 indicates that at each grade level the posttest actual mean of the experimental group exceeded the posttest expected mean. Differences were computed as +1.67 and +5.23 respectively. It would appear, therefore, that the extent of the differences can possibly be attributed to the experimental treatment. It was felt that maturation and experiences outside of the school context would not likely cause this change in comprehension abilities.

Discussion

Data from the present study were subjected to a mean gain expectancy ratio analysis. The results suggest that the experimental reading comprehension instruction focusing on specific questioning strategies, systematic instruction on specific subskills of literal and inferential comprehension, and a process approach to reading comprehension was effective in improving the reading comprehension of fourth and fifth graders. Students in the experimental group at both the fourth and fifth-grade level differed from pupils in the control group on pretest measures. After receiving

Table 7

Comparison of Posttest Expected Means and Posttest Actual Means for the Experimental Groups

Group	Posttest Expected Mean	Posttest Actual Mean	Extent of Difference
Grade Four	17.87	19.54	+1.67
Grade Five	18.27	23.5	+5.23

systematic reading comprehension instruction, however, the experimental groups performed relatively better than the corresponding control groups on the posttests. The results of the present study, therefore, may provide some support to previous research (Davey & Porter, 1982; Spiegel & Whaley, 1980; Wolf, King, & Huck, 1967) which has suggested that comprehension can be improved through instruction.

There are several possible explanations for the beneficial effects of the experimental treatment. The positive results could be attributed to the deliberately structured format of the program. Structure appears to be a significant feature associated with effective teaching of reading. In a review of recent process-product investigations, Good (1979) generally concluded that structure is associated with higher achievement gains.

The treatment effect could be attributed to the combined effects of the instructional components. Conversely, it is possible that the procedures were effective due to one specific aspect of the instruction. For example, the specific questioning strategies may have been a critical factor in improving story comprehension. Anderson and Biddle (1975) suggested that questioning is an effective way of interacting with and learning from text. Further, Savage (1972) found a positive relationship between classroom questions and the achievement of fifth-graders in social studies.

In the experimental program, inferential type questions as well as tectually explicit questions were

utilized. Inferential questions are necessary since they stimulate a higher level of thinking (Turner, 1983a). Taba and Elzey (1964) found that improved comprehension is related to the cognitive levels of instructional questions. Further, Smith (in Pennock, 1979) suggested that "Higher cognitive questions and questioning strategies can improve comprehension in every area of knowledge" (p. 101).

The direct instruction component may have been primarily responsible for the positive findings. Carr, Dewitz, and Patberg (1983) found that training in a specific thinking strategy increased the students' inferential level of expository text. Further, research studies in comprehension instruction by Hansen (1981) and Hansen and Pearson (1983) support the assumption that comprehension subskills, which are directly taught, tend to be learned.

As pointed out in Chapter Three, the program developed by the investigator included a process approach to the teaching of reading comprehension. This component may have accounted for the favourable results. Harker (1973) suggested that a process for learning comprehension skills should be identified by the teacher and then taught to the students. The goal of teaching is to have readers acquire not only knowledge but also a process for learning how to learn (Buswell, 1956).

Finally, perhaps the positive findings could be attributed to the students' self-generated questions which

were utilized to establish their own purposes for reading. Manzo (1970) found that instructing readers to generate questions had a positive effect on the students' reading comprehension. André and Anderson (1978-79) concluded that self-directed study in asking questions about main ideas led to improved performance on a test of comprehension. Further, Cohen (1983) found that Grade Three students could be trained to generate questions and this self-questioning strategy improved their reading comprehension.

Summary

This chapter presented the specific findings relative to the analyses of the data. It also attempted to interpret and discuss these findings so that additional information pertinent to the study might be revealed. A more detailed summary of the conclusions, implications, and recommendations based on the foregoing findings will be presented in Chapter Five.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

Utilizing basal reader selections, the investigator developed a systematic instructional format for the instruction of fourth and fifth-graders in the process of literal and inferential comprehension. The purpose of the study was to examine the effects of a systematic questioning program on the reading comprehension skills of these elementary school students. The comparison groups were given instruction utilizing a traditional basal reader approach, where the teacher's manual is adhered to extensively. Sixty-six pupils participated in the study and were assigned to two experimental and two control groups. The study was conducted over an eight-month period with the investigator instructing the two experimental groups and two other regular classroom teachers providing instruction for the two control groups.

Raw scores from the Comprehension subtests of the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test (Canadian edition), Level D, Forms 1 and 2, were subjected to statistical analyses. Data were analyzed by applying a mean gain expectancy ratio to measure possible treatment effects. Results indicated that

at both grade levels the experimental group did relatively better than the control group on posttest measures.

Conclusions

This investigation expanded upon previous research in the area of comprehension which suggested that comprehension skills can be systematically taught (Adams, Carnine, & Gersten, 1982; Brown, Campione, & Day, 1981; Nardelli, 1956). The results of this study suggest that a deliberate, procedural method, employing specific questioning strategies, on the part of both the teacher and students, is particularly useful for improving the readers' processes of literal and inferential comprehension.

This study attempted to investigate the total program effects on the comprehension abilities of fourth and fifth-graders. No attempt was made, therefore, to evaluate the separate elements individually. In this respect, the present study is similar to that of Fitzgerald and Spiegel (1983). They found that systematic instruction had a positive effect on the literal and inferential comprehension of fourth-graders. They did not, however, attribute the positive effects of their treatment to any one program component. In their view, however, the "demonstration of effects of controlled, yet practical and ecologically valid instruction, is a worthwhile endeavour" (p. 15).

It would appear from the present study, therefore, that systematic instructional planning, incorporating teacher/student questioning strategies, is necessary when utilizing a basal reader. The combination of program components in the present study was possibly effective due to the fact that it systematically presented the instruction process to the students. It appeared that the subjects already possessed some of the cognitive abilities for higher order comprehension and that the experimental program provided specific learning opportunities that further developed these abilities. As Wertsch (cited in Zetlin & Gallimore, 1983) suggested:

> One of the most important functions of adults is to provide the strategic assistance needed to carry out a task. In many cases children are fully capable of carrying out the steps of a task once those steps have been identified by adults. Left to their own resources, however, children could not organize and structure their efforts in a task appropriate manner. (p. 177)

Implications

Durkin (1978-79), in her observations of fourth-grade classrooms, found that teachers devoted less than one percent of instruction time to direct instruction in the process of reading comprehension. Children spent considerable time on non-instructional activities, such as answering teacher-made questions in writing and completing pages in workbooks. In the present study, however, the experimental program focused

on direct instruction in the process of literal and inferential comprehension. Moreover, it emphasized the process of comprehension (i.e., how one comprehends) rather than the assessment of comprehension (i.e., what is to be comprehended). It would appear, therefore, that the instructional strategies of this program have the potential of improving teacher-based instruction as it now exists in some classrooms that utilize a basal reader as a component of the reading program.

Based on the results of this study, and supported by earlier research and current philosophies related to the teaching of reading comprehension, a number of implications for teacher and program developers become evident. They are as follows:

1. Literal and inferential comprehension skills need to be taught directly in a systematic and procedural manner (Heilman, Blair, & Rupley, 1981).

2. Active participation on the part of students is required, possibly through the setting of purposes for reading (Singer, 1978; Singer & Donlan, 1982).

3. Effective reading comprehension instruction should involve the teaching of skills that are prerequisite for an understanding of the text (Baumann, 1983).

4. Students should be encouraged to ask each other questions to facilitate story comprehension (Frase & Schwartz, 1975).

5. Instructors should teach a process approach to comprehension. Students need to be given a process to follow in order to facilitate their understanding (Nist, Kirby, & Ritter, 1983).

6. Teacher-posed questions should be utilized for developing the students' literal and inferential comprehension abilities (Lapp & Flood, 1978).

7. The components of the Directed Reading-Thinking Activity should be incorporated into the basic instructional format when utilizing a basal reader as part of the reading program (Stauffer, 1969).

The foregoing considerations can be used by teachers to guide their preparation of a basal reader selection. In order to implement these procedures in the classroom, however, teachers will need inservice programs. As Otto and Chester (1976) suggest, "sensible guided inservice programs provide a vehicle for directing and implementing change" (p. 232).

A possible way to implement this change is via a three-part workshop. The first part being that of a conference between a member of the support team (i.e., the person knowledgeable in the Directed Reading-Thinking approach) and the teachers. This meeting would establish a rationale for incorporating such an approach into their reading program. The second phase of the workshop would be the utilization of a simulated Directed Reading-Thinking Activity lesson, with the teachers assuming the role of

students. This would create a "learning by doing" environment to help enable the teachers to learn the systematic use of questioning strategies and direct comprehension instruction. The last phase of the workshop would utilize follow-up conferences between individuals or small groups of teachers and the support staff as a means of on-going assessment of the program.

With respect to questioning strategies, Gall (1970) suggested that teacher training should involve study of these techniques and guided practice in their use. Moreover, he stated that:

> Secondly, teachers cannot be expected to learn the inquiry method or any new pedagogy if it is presented to them in vague, general, undefined terms; they can be expected to learn new methods if the methods are presented, at least in part, as sets of specific types of questions asked in specific classroom situations. (p. 719)

In the view of the investigator, these suggestions for training teachers in the art of questioning are applicable for both the pre-service teacher still in university as well as the in-service teacher in our classrooms.

Recommendations for Further Research

The following recommendations are proposed for further research:

1. Basal reader selections were utilized to instruct pupils in the process of comprehension. Further research

should be conducted to investigate the effects of the instructional format with expository writing across a variety of content areas.

2. In this study, treatment effects may be attributed to the combination of various instructional components (e.g., student-generated questions, explicit instruction, and a process approach to comprehension). Follow-up studies should be conducted to determine which instructional technique, or combination of techniques, best provides a model for the mastery of literal and inferential comprehension skills. Also, which teaching procedures provide the best guides for helping students utilize these techniques should be examined as well.

3. This study focused on instruction in literal and inferential comprehension. Instruction in critical level comprehension should be included in a follow-up study.

4. Only 66 pupils were involved in the present study. A study should be conducted to test the design with a sufficiently large group of students in order to make any such study more statistically valid and reliable.

5. The only criteria for selection of subjects were their achievement in the area of reading comprehension. In view of the findings it would appear that the instructional format should be tested with different ability groups.

6. Although the students were assigned to experimental and control groups, the statistical equalization of

reading ability was not employed in this study. A further study needs to be undertaken using random selection procedures to ensure for valid statistical analyses.

7. The sample was drawn from a single school in a Central Newfoundland community. A further study should be undertaken to gather comparative data from subjects in various schools in urban, as well as rural areas.

8. The specific findings at the fourth and fifth-grade levels suggest a need to replicate the study with students of different grade levels. Studies could examine the effects of such a design at the primary and upper elementary levels.

9. This study needs to be replicated to determine if the approach is more effective with boys than with girls.

The research to date needs to be utilized as a guide for the research designs in the near future, in an attempt to add to the body of knowledge in the area of systematic instructional planning and the development of comprehension strategies.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE

Teachers' basal reader guidebooks contain a variety of questions which teachers may utilize in helping students to comprehend what they read. While it is the objective of these questions to facilitate and encourage the processing of print into meaning, often times there is no detailed process as to how this questioning strategy is to be utilized. Merely asking a student to read and produce an answer does not teach a student how to comprehend what he/she has read.

As a primary or elementary grade teacher, you are asked to circle one of the letters for each of the following ten questions as a way of ascertaining your views on the matter of the need for the design of a developmental level reading comprehension program.

These responses are to be kept anonymous. Merely state what grade or grades you are presently teaching without any reference to your school district or any other personal references.

A. strongly agree
B. agree
C. strongly disagree
D. disagree

1. Reading comprehension abilities have little effect upon a student's progress from the primary to the elementary grades.	1.	A B C D
2. There will always be some students in each primary and elementary grade who will have some difficulty in comprehending what they read.	2.	A B C D
3. Reading without comprehension is of little value. Unless pupils understand what they read, they are doing very little but word calling.	3.	A B C D
4. The basal reader guidebooks give very little direction on <u>how</u> to teach students to comprehend (i.e., detailed teaching strategies on <u>how</u> to teach literal and inferential comprehension skills).	4.	A B C D
5. As a teacher, I feel that I need strategies on <u>how</u> to systematically teach comprehension skills to developmental students.	5.	A B C D
6. There is a greater need to teach students how to pronounce words than to teach them to comprehend what they are reading.	6.	A B C D
7. Primary grade teachers (e.g., Kg. to Grade Three) need to stress comprehension development more in their reading programs.	7.	A B C D

8. Elementary grade teachers (e.g. Grades Four to Six) need to stress comprehension development more in their reading programs. 8. A B C D

9. As a teacher, I would attempt to incorporate guidelines for specific questioning strategies into my existing reading program as a means of assisting me to teach students <u>how</u> to comprehend more effectively. 9. A B C D

10. As a teacher, I feel that systematic inservice programs aimed at teaching me how to utilize specific questioning strategies, to improve my students' comprehension abilities, would be of some benefit. 10. A B C D

<u>In your opinion</u>

A. Instruction in reading comprehension is most important in what grade or grades? _____

B. Instruction in word recognition is most important in what grade or grades? _____

C. What grade or grades are you presently teaching?

_____

APPENDIX B

PROCESS APPROACH TO COMPREHENSION

Sometimes teachers are more concerned with the answer to a question (i.e., the final product) than with the process that a student goes through in attempting to find the answer. The program developed by this investigator, however, emphasizes the process approach to comprehension. For example, pupils are requested to verify their inferences by telling how they reasoned from the available information in arriving at their answers. This technique has two significant advantages, which are that good inferences provide a model of the reasoning process for the class and if a student's answer is not a good response, the teacher redirects his or her thinking by utilizing additional strategies such as pointing out clues which the student overlooked.

Moreover, the process associated with various skill competencies are directly taught. The processes involved in identifying and inferring details will be taught prior to introducing the first story in the basal reader. Processes associated with other skill competencies will be taught under the Fundamental Skill Development section of the program.

Identifying Details

Before pupils are asked questions pertaining to details, they must be taught what these questions mean and how to answer them. They should have an understanding of the process involved in answering the following types of questions:

Who -- which refers to a person or character.

What -- which refers to an object.

Where -- which refers to place.

When -- which refers to time, either clock or calendar.

How -- which refers to procedure or process.

How many -- which refers to amount.

To establish a working definition for the aforementioned terms, the following examples should be provided by the teacher:

Who: Begin by relating to people and citing many examples such as "_____ went to the store with me." "Who" can refer to he, she, we, they, postman, boys, girls, Mary, or Tom, etc. Students need to realize that "who" in a question refers to a specific character in the story.

What: This generally refers to objects, such as book, desk, ruler, cup, hammer, kit. "There was a _____ in the box." Examples: (a) What was in the box? (b) What did Mary buy? Students need to realize that "what" in a question refers to a specific object or feeling in the story.

Where: This generally refers to places, such as zoo, school, home, library, Bishop's Falls, etc. Examples: (a) I am going to the zoo. (b) Where was the boy or girl going? Students need to realize that "where" in a question refers to a specific place in the story.

When: This generally refers to "~~clock~~ time," such as 10:30, morning, or any time within a 24 hour period, or "calendar time," such as last week, Christmas, or next year, etc. Example: (a) Last year I went to visit my grandmother. (b) When did you visit your grandmother?

How: This generally refers to procedures, manners, routes, such as by car, by plane, with a pencil, one step at a time, through the town, etc. Example: (a) I went to St. John's by car. (b) How did you go to St. John's?

How many: This generally refers to an amount, such as two, six, a few, many, a lot, several, etc. Example: (a) Tom caught six trout. (b) How many trout did Tom catch?

Inferring Details

Explain to the students that the answer to some questions are not stated directly in a selection. To make an inference, they must take the details given and think about them before deciding on an answer. Have the pupils read short passages. Through discussion, help the students

make inferences utilizing details given in the passage.

Example:

> Tom Martin sat erect in the front of the motorboat. He watched in terror as the waves of Notre Dame Bay smashed against the bow. Gripping the seat, he turned cautiously until he could see his Dad at the wheel.
>
> Question: "How did Tom feel sitting in the front of the boat?"
>
> Answer: Frightened.
>
> Clues: sat erect, watched in terror, waves smashed against the bow, gripping the seat, turned cautiously.

Identifying Sequence of Events

Teach the children that events occur in a sequence, that one thing happens after another in a logical order. One way to do this is by using a time line. Have the students make a list of all the things they have done since they got up. Example: (a) I got up. (b) I got dressed. (c) I washed my face. (d) I ate my breakfast. (e) I brushed my teeth. Then relate this to the story they are reading and the events which occur in the story.

Recognizing Cause and Effect Relationships

Explain to the students that an event "causes" something else to happen or that one event is the "effect" of another. Have the students identify what happened to them

in a day such as, I broke something. What caused you to break something? What was the result of this? Probable responses might be, "I broke the lamp in the living room because I was running and I wasn't watching where I was going, so Mommy put me in my room for an hour." Let the students see that cause and effect relationships are a chain of events which are connected. For example, "I was playing tag with my sister. I wasn't watching where I was going. I broke Mommy's lamp. I was put in my room."

Recognizing Comparisons

Explain to the students that in order to make a comparison, it is necessary to tell how people, ideas, events, etc., are alike or different. Through discussion, have the class determine who or what is being compared in each of the following and decide which comparisons indicate likenesses and which comparisons suggest differences:

1. Joan is young. Grandmother is old.
2. This water tastes as salty as the sea.
3. The pond is like a mirror.
4. Lisa is tall. Jack is short.
5. Janes likes to watch T.V. Harry likes to look at T.V. too.

Relate the idea of comparing to their own day-to-day experience, such as if a boy or girl plays hockey and baseball, or has seen it played, get him or her to tell you:

1. Who plays it?
2. How do they play it?
3. Where do they play it?
4. What do they use when they play it?

Example: Hockey and baseball.

Same	Different
1. Both sports.	1. One is played on ice; the other is played on a field.
2. Played by men or women.	2. One uses a puck and a stick; the other uses a ball and bat.

Recognizing Character Traits

Have the students make up a story with characters and have them tell something about the characters, such as a story about a honest boy or girl. Have the students tell about how the boy or girl is honest. What does he or she do that is honest?

Ask the students to come up with physical or personality traits about themselves. Then have them look for a character in a story to see what it says about the character.

Identifying the Main Idea

Explain to the students that sometimes a paragraph or story has a main idea or key thought. It is the most important idea developed in the paragraph or story. Sometimes it is identified or stated directly by the author. All other details complete and support the main idea.

The teacher will identify paragraphs in the social studies or health text for Grade Four in which the main idea is directly stated, usually in the first or last sentence. Have the pupils examine and discuss the paragraph. As they identify supporting details, list them on the board. Then write the main idea.

Have the pupils bring copies of newspaper articles. Get them to examine the headlines. A headline usually gives the main idea. Have the students find the supporting details. List them on the chalkboard.

Inferring Sequence of Events

Explain to the students that sometimes it is necessary to add something to the ideas given by an author. Tell them that sometimes they will be required to predict events which might have occurred before or after the events in a story.

Begin the process by asking the students to predict what happened in the order of events which are missing.

Example:

1. Got out of bed.
2. ?
3. Went to school.
4. ?

Ask "What do you think happened in events two and four?"

Give the students an event and ask them to supply the rest of the events that they think might have happened because of that event. Example:

1. I fell down the stairs.
2. ?
3. ?
4. ?

Read part of a story to the class and have the students decide through discussion how the story might end. The teacher might also omit the beginning of a story and read the rest of the story to the class. Through discussion, have the pupils determine the events which might have occurred at the beginning of the story.

Inferring Cause and Effect Relationships

Select pictures from magazines or from children's books. Ask for cause and effect relationships. For example, there is a picture of a small boy in his bedroom. His mother is helping him take off his clothes. Ask the students why

the boy is taking off his clothes. Some responses might be: "It was raining outside and he got wet." "He fell into a puddle and got wet." "He's getting ready for bed."

Have the students look at something that has happened and ask them what they think has caused this.

Example:

Cause

?

Effect

I was rushed to the hospital.

Or:

Cause	Effect
I fell off my bike.	?

Inferring Comparisons

Choose pictures of two horses. Through discussion, have the class decide ways in which the horses are alike and different.

Read a story to the class and have the students determine how two characters in the story are alike and/or different in personality or behavior. Then have the pupils make inferences on their own lives in comparison to an event which occurred in the story.

Inferring Character Traits

Select a picture of each of the following: (a) a boy, (b) a girl, (c) a man, and (d) a woman. Write words

describing physical traits on the board (e.g., tall, short, fat, thin). Have the class decide the physical trait depicted by each person.

Write words describing personality traits on the board (e.g., mean, kind, curious, patient, shy, thoughtful). Then read a story to the class. Have the students tell how a person behaved in the story and the things he or she did which support the students' answers.

Inferring the Main Idea

Show pictures to the students and have them identify the details. List the details on the chalkboard. Explain to the students that we need to give the picture a name but we do not want to use very many words. Then ask, "What can we call it?" "It's a picture of what?" Names like "A Fishing Village" and "Building a Boat" are samples of names that deal with main ideas.

When pupils are successful with pictures, short paragraphs should replace them. Pose similar types of questions, this time to get ideas for titles. Then proceed to the main idea for stories.

Explain to the students that in most of the stories we read the main idea is not identified for us. Authors expect their readers to read what has been written and discover the main idea for themselves. Sometimes, however,

the title of the story is the key to the main idea. Read a short story to the class. Have the students identify the relevant details, important characters, what happened to them, where it took place, and when it took place. Through discussion, hopefully you will get the students to summarize the main idea in one or two sentences.

APPENDIX C

TEACHING READING COMPREHENSION UTILIZING
THE BASAL READER
BACKPACKS AND BUMBLEBEES

Selection #1: Weird (pp. 6-16)

Setting the Purposes for Reading (Part 1):

Teacher: Look at the picture on page 6. What questions would you like to ask just from the picture alone?

Student questions:

"What are the children's names?"

"Why are they riding fast?"

"Where are they going?"

"Are they in a race?"

Directed Silent Reading (Part 1):

Teacher: Read pages 6 and 7 to find the answers to your questions.

Verifying Answers to Pre-Posed Questions (Part 1):

Teacher: From what you have read so far, can you give me the answers to your questions?

Mary: They were heading down to the lake.

John: They were Wilma, David and Marianne.

Sally: They are riding fast because they are in a hurry to get where they are going to play.

Teacher: Very good! Now, were they in a race?

Jane: Not a real race, but they wanted to hurry and get there.

Teacher: Right!

Setting the Purposes for Reading (Part 2):

Teacher: Look at the picture on page 9. What questions would you like to ask?

Student questions:

"What are they doing?"

"What is the boy going to do with the axe?"

"Who's the girl sitting alone?"

"What made the roots stick out?"

Directed Silent Reading (Part 2):

Teacher: Read pages 8 and 9 and the first two sentences on page 10.

Verifying Answers to Pre-Posed Questions (Part 2):

Teacher: Tell me the answers you found to your questions.

Tom: David cut off some roots with the axe.

Martha: Wilma was sitting by herself.

Ida: They were making the hole, the fort bigger.

Harry: The waves made the roots stick out.

Teacher: Who would like to read the lines which tell that the waves did this?

Harry: "The waves had washed away most of the bank and left the roots hanging in the air."

Teacher: Good! Now, let's look at the picture on page 11.

Setting the Purposes for Reading (Part 3):

Teacher: What questions would you like to ask?

Student questions:

"What are they eating?"

"What are they drinking?"

"What is that on the ground in front?"

"What are they going to do now?"

Directed Silent Reading (Part 3):

Teacher: See if you can find the answers on pages 10 and 11.

Verifying Answers to Pre-Posed Questions (Part 3):

Teacher: What answers did you come up with?

Maisie: The children were eating sandwiches and drinking pop.

Larry: They are going to finish the fort now.

Sarah: That's clam shells on the ground.

Teacher: Very good! You found the answers.

Setting the Purposes for Reading (Part 4):

Teacher: Look at the picture on pages 12 and 13. What questions come to your mind?

Student questions:

"What happened?"

"Who's stuck under the tree?"

"Will the children be able to get her out?"

Directed Silent Reading (Part 4):

Teacher: Maybe we will find the answers as we read pages 12 and 13.

Verifying Answers to Pre-Posed Questions (Part 4):

Teacher: What answers did you discover?

Tom: The tree fell.

Teacher: Who would like to read the lines which tell that the tree fell?

Jane: "The monster fangs bit the sand as the willow toppled into the lake."

Teacher: Good!

Ida: Marianne was stuck under the tree and they couldn't get her out.

Teacher: Right!

Setting the Purposes for Reading (Part 5):

Teacher: What would you like to find out in the rest of the story?

Student questions:

"Will the men come to help her?"

"Will Marianne be rescued?"

Directed Silent Reading (Part 5):

Teacher: Read the rest of the story to find the answers.

Verifying Answers to Pre-Posed Questions (Part 5):

Teacher: What did you find out?

Maisie: The men came and rescued her.

Teacher: Right! Can you tell us a little more about how she was rescued?

Maisie: First they cut off the roots. Then they pulled her out.

Teacher: Very good!

Comprehension Check:

Student-Posed Questions: Students will be given an opportunity to question the class. Initially, the teacher will give the answers to a number of literal level questions and have the pupils construct a question for each. In subsequent lessons, however, when pupils become familiar with this process, they will be required to pose questions on their own -- without the teacher's assistance.

The teacher will write the following quoted sentences on the chalkboard:

1. "There's a magic horseshoe around the entrance. It's made of clam shells" (p. 10).
2. "A big wave rolled up the beach" (p. 12).
3. "The three of us zoomed along on our ten-speed bicycles" (p. 6).
4. "Our parents were still setting up the tents at the campgrounds" (p. 7).

Teacher: Look at the first sentence. I will write the answer to a question on the chalkboard. Then I will write the question. Follow carefully.

Answer: Clam shells.

Question: What was the magic horseshoe made of?

Teacher: Let's try the next one together.

Answer: A big wave.

Teacher: Who can give me a question for this answer?

Joe: What rolled up the beach?

Teacher: Good! Let's try the other sentences.

Teacher: Zoomed along. (Pause) John, can you give me a question?

John: How fast were they going on their bicycles?

Teacher: At the camp grounds. (Pause) Sarah, can you give me a question?

Sarah: Where were the parents setting up the tents?

Teacher: Very good! I think you have the idea. We shall try more of these in our next story.

Teacher-Posed Questions: The teacher will ask other questions to check the students' understanding of the story and further develop their comprehension abilities.

Teacher: Why did Marianne paddle faster by the apple orchard? (Pause) Jane, can you tell us the answer?

Jane: To get away from the noise.

Teacher: What was making the noise?

Jane: The chain saw.

Teacher: Right! (Pause) Now, I want you to think back to the beginning of the story. How did the children feel then?

Martha: Happy.

Larry: Excited.

Teacher: Why were they happy and excited? (Pause) Tom, can you tell us?

Tom: They were on their way to their favourite place to play.

Teacher: Right! (Pause) Now, look at the picture on pages 12 and 13. How do you think they felt then?

Jane: Scared.

Teacher: Why do you think they were scared?

Jane: Because Marianne was trapped.

Teacher: Can you tell us a little more about why they were scared?

Jane: The children couldn't get her out.

Teacher: Very good thinking!

Fundamental Skill Development:

Recognition of Cause and Effect Relationships: The teacher will first use the method previously outlined for this skill in the process approach. After the process has been taught, the teacher will relate it to the story in the following manner:

Teacher: I will write some sentences on the board. I want you to identify the "cause" and "effect" in each example.

1. "I didn't feel like the leader anymore. I was scared" (p. 13).
2. "When they set me on my feet my legs wobbled so much I had to sit down" (p. 16).

Teacher: Who can tell me what caused something to happen in the first example?

John: I was scared.

Teacher: Good! Who can tell me what happened as a result of this?

Sally: I didn't feel like the leader anymore.

Teacher: Right! Look at the second example. (Pause) What happened? (Pause) Can you tell us, Mary?

Mary: They set me on my feet.

Teacher: Look at the example again. (Pause) Think carefully. Remember something happened and something caused it to happen. (Pause) Was this what happened, or was it what caused something to happen?

Mary: That was what caused something to happen.

Teacher: Right! Can you tell me what happened?

Mary: My legs wobbled.

Teacher: Good!

Recognition of Comparisons: The teacher will utilize the method outlined for this skill in the process approach. After the process has been taught, the teacher will relate it to an example in the story. Pupils will be asked to look at the picture on page 9 and the teacher will write the following sentence on the board:

"It looks like a monster mouth -- with ugly fangs," said Wilma (p. 10).

Teacher: Who can tell us what is being compared?

Harry: The hole under the tree and a monster mouth.

Teacher: How are they alike?

Joe: They are both big.

Ida: The roots of the tree are like a monster's ugly fangs.

Teacher: Very Good!

Inferring Comparisons: Use the method outlined for teaching the process approach to this skill. Have the pupils make inferences on their own lives in comparison to what happened to Marianne in the story.

Selection #2: The Visitor (pp. 18-27)

Setting the Purposes for Reading (Part 1):

Teacher: Look at the picture on page 18. What questions would you like to ask?

Student questions:

"What is the boy's name?"

"Who is the man?"

"What kind of boat is out there?"

"What's that in the air above the water?"

Directed Silent Reading (Part 1): Have the pupils read pages 18 and 19 to find possible answers to their questions.

Verifying Answers to Pre-Posed Questions (Part 1):

Teacher: What answers did you find? (Pause) Mary, can you tell us one?

Mary: The boy's name is Robbie.

John: The man is Robbie's father.

Fay: The boat is an oil tanker.

Sally: It is a "V" of ducks in the air.

Teacher: Who would like to read the lines which tell there was a "V" of ducks and an oil tanker out there?

Joe: "A 'V' of ducks was flying low across the water, and the light of an oil tanker could just be seen in the dusk."

Teacher: Very good!

Setting the Purposes for Reading (Part 2):

Teacher: Look at the picture on page 20. What questions would you like to ask?

Student questions:

"How did the duck get covered with oil?"

"What will Robbie do with the duck?"

"What kind of duck was it?"

Directed Silent Reading (Part 2):

Teacher: What answers did you find?

Clara: It was a mallard duck.

John: Robbie carried the duck to the house.

Maisie: The duck had gotten in some oil that came from the boat.

Teacher: Good!

Setting the Purposes for Reading (Part 3):

Teacher: What questions would you like to ask about the rest of the story?

Student questions:

"Where will they keep the duck?"

"Will the duck get it's natural oil back?"

"Will they let the duck go free again?"

Directed Silent Reading (Part 3): The pupils will read the remainder of the story to find possible answers to their questions.

Verifying Answers to Pre-Posed Questions (Part 3):

Teacher: What answers did you find? (Pause) Can you tell us one, Ida?

Ida: The duck got its natural oil back.

Teacher: Right! Who found another answer?

Dick: They kept the duck in a dog's pen.

Sarah: They let the duck go free.

John: They took care of it for awhile and then let it go.

Teacher: Right! Who would like to read the lines that tell the duck was free again?

Maisie: "In a flurry of feathers the duck was out and flying--a bit shakily at first, but soon his wings beats were strong and steady. He flew straight down the bay, heading south, and then he was gone."

Teacher: Very good!

Comprehension Check:

Student-Posed Questions: The teacher will have the pupils construct questions from the following sentences:

1. "It was early November" (p. 19).
2. "As he drew near a marshy spot by the shore he saw something dark among the reeds" (p. 19).
3. "Then he drew his bill up around his tail to get it well coated with oil" (pp. 23-24).
4. "As they disappeared out over the bay he flew against the wire mesh, beating his wings in his efforts to get out" (p. 26).

Teacher-Posed Questions:

Teacher: Why didn't the duck fly away when Robbie found it in the reeds?

Fay: It was covered with oil and frozen fast in the ice.

Teacher: Why didn't the family let the duck go free as soon as they cleaned it?

Joe: They didn't know if it would get its natural oil back.

Teacher: Why was that important?

Joe: Because if it didn't get its natural oil back it would not be waterproof.

Teacher: Can someone tell us a little more about that?

Ida: If its feathers were not waterproof, it might drown or freeze to death.

Teacher: Right.

Fundamental Skill Development:

Recalling and Inferring Sequence of Events:

Use the methods outlined for teaching the process approach to sequence of events at both the literal and inferential level of comprehension.

Then have the pupils name five things which happened to the duck in the story. List the events on the board and have the pupils decide on the order in which they occurred in the story. Then proceed to inferring sequence of events.

Teacher: What do you think might have happened to the duck after Robbie set it free?

Tom: It might have died.

Teacher: Why do you think it might have died?

Tom: Well it could have gotten into some more oil and drowned.

Teacher: Good! Does someone else have another idea?

Jane: It could have been shot by some hunter as it was flying overhead.

Teacher: Very good!

Recalling and Inferring Character Traits:

Teach the children the processes associated with determining character traits at the literal level. Proceed to inferring character traits, relating the process to the story.

The teacher will write some character traits on the board (e.g., gentle, shy, cautious, mean, kind, greedy).

Teacher: I have written some character traits on the board. Which of these do you think describe how Robbie behaved in the story?

Maisie: Gentle.

Teacher: How can you tell he was gentle?

Maisie: Because he gently slid his hand under the duck when it was stuck in the ice.

Teacher: What other words describe Robbie?

John: Cautious.

Teacher: How can you tell he was cautious?

John: He took up the duck carefully in both hands.

Martha: Robbie was kind, too.

Teacher: How can you tell he was kind?

Martha: He washed off the oil that was on the duck.

Teacher: Does someone have another reason?

Tom: He didn't keep the duck when it was time to let it go free.

Teacher: Very good thinking!

Inferring Cause and Effect Relationships:

The teacher will utilize the method outlined for this skill in the process approach. Then the process will be related to the story.

To relate the process to the story, the teacher will write the following sentences on the board:

1. "At school that day he found it hard to keep his mind on his work, and when the three-thirty bell rang he was the first one out" (p. 23).

2. "Robbie reached for the latch of the pen, hesitated for a moment, then flung it open" (p. 26).

Teacher: Why did Robbie find it hard to keep his mind on his work?

Sally: Because he was thinking about the duck.

Teacher: Why was he thinking about the duck?

Sally: Because when he went to see it that morning it hadn't touched the water and corn.

Teacher: Right! Can someone else tell us a little more about it?

Joe: If it didn't eat and drink it would die.

Tom: It would have to waterproof its own feathers, too.

Teacher: Why was that important?

Jane: If it didn't get its natural oil back it would die.

Teacher: Very good! Now, look at the second sentence. Can someone tell me what caused Robbie to hesitate for a moment?

Larry: He was thinking about whether or not he should let the duck go.

Teacher: Think back to what his father had said earlier. Can you tell me what it was?

Larry: He said he would have to let the duck go.

Teacher: Good! So had he already decided to let it go?

Larry: Yes.

Teacher: What was he really thinking about?

Martha: I think I know. He was thinking about how much he was going to miss it because it was like losing a friend.

Teacher: That's good thinking.

Selection #3: Close-up on Bees (pp. 30-35)

Setting the Purposes for Reading (Part 1):

Teacher: Look at the heading on page 30 and the pictures on page 31. What questions would you like to ask about bees?

Student questions:

"What are the two long things on its head?"

"What are the two long things for?"

"How do bees get nectar from flowers?"

Directed Silent Reading (Part 1):

The pupils will read page 30 to see if they can find the answers to their questions.

Verifying Answers to Pre-Posed Questions (Part 1):

Teacher: What answers did you find?

Maisie: The two long things are feelers.

Joe: They're called antannae.

Sally: The antannae are used as ears and nose.

Teacher: Can you tell us a little more about that?

Martha: The bee can smell, hear, bite, and feel with them.

Teacher: Right! Did anyone find out how bees get the nectar from flowers? (Pause) Ida, can you tell us?

Ida: A bee uses her tongue like a straw to drink the nectar.

Teacher: Right!

Setting the Purposes for Reading (Part 2):

Teacher: Look at the heading at the top of page 32. What questions would you like to ask?

Student questions:

"Do bees lay eggs in the hive?"

"How many bees live in a hive?"

"Where do they put the honey?"

Directed Silent Reading (Part 2):

Have the pupils read page 32 to see if they can find the answers to their questions.

Verifying Answers to Pre-Posed Questions (Part 2):

Teacher: Tell me the answers you discovered.

Mary: The queen bee lays eggs in the hive.

Maisie: Many bees live in a hive.

Teacher: Right! Can you tell us approximately how many?

Maisie: About eight thousand.

Teacher: That's right. Now, can someone tell me where they put their honey? (Pause) John, can you tell us?

John: It doesn't say.

Teacher: There's one clue about honey in the long paragraph. Try to find it. It should help you answer the question.

John: It says they build a honeycomb. So they must put their honey in a honeycomb.

Teacher: Very good!

Setting the Purposes for Reading (Part 3):

Have the children look at the two headings on page 34 and develop (predict) questions about what information might follow.

Directed Silent Reading (Part 3):

Have the pupils read page 34 to see if they can find the answers to their questions.

Verifying Answers to Pre-Posed Questions (Part 3):

The teacher will have the pupils give the answers to the questions and keep the process active and alive. When only partial answers are given, the teacher will redirect the discussion so that the best possible answers are obtained from the information available.

Comprehension Check:

Student-Posed Questions: Give the student an opportunity to question the class and have the class supply the answers. The teacher will redirect the discussion when it becomes necessary.

Fundamental Skill Development:

Recognition of Comparisons: Teach the process approach to making comparisons by comparing the honeybee and the bumblebee. Have the pupils tell ways in which they are alike or different.

Same	Different
1) Both are insects.	1) Bumblebees are larger and fuzzier.
2) Eat honey.	2) One stores honey; the other doesn't.
	3) Bumblebees don't work as hard.
	4) One's family 50-100 other's family 80,000.

Recognizing the Main Idea:

The teacher will use the procedures previously outlined for teaching the process approach associated with this skill.

In the next step, the teacher will utilize the longest paragraph on page 32 to continue the teaching process. Have the pupils go back and re-read the paragraph. Ask the pupils to identify all of the supporting details. The teacher will list each of them on the board. After the main idea has been determined through discussion, the teacher will write it on the board.

Selection #4: Tina's Breakaway (pp. 36-45)

Setting the Purposes for Reading (Part 1):

Teacher: Look at the title on page 36 and the picture on page 37. What questions would you like to ask about the story?

Student questions:

"What teams were playing?"

"Where were they playing?"

"What is the score?"

Directed Silent Reading (Part 1):

Have the students read pages 36 and 37 to find possible answers.

Verifying Answers to Pre-Posed Questions (Part 1):

Teacher: What answers did you find? (Pause) Tom, can you tell us one?

Tom: They were playing on a dead-end street.

Teacher: Would you like to read the sentence which tells us this?

Tom: "She scraped her hockey stick along the sidewalk as they watched the boys and girls playing ball hockey on the quiet, dead-end street."

Teacher: Good!

Mary: It doesn't tell what teams were playing.

Maisie: It doesn't tell what the score was either.

Teacher: Maybe we'll find the answers when we read the next part of the story.

Setting the Purposes for Reading (Part 2):

Teacher: What other questions would you like to ask about the next part of the story?

Student questions:

"What will they do now that they have lost the ball?"

"How will the other children react to George because he missed the ball?"

Directed Silent Reading (Part 2):

The pupils will read pages 38-42 to see if they can discover the answers.

Verifying Answers to Pre-Posed Questions (Part 2):

Teacher: What answers did you find? (Pause) Can you tell us one, Joe?

Joe: The teams were the Leafs and the Canucks.

Maisie: The score was eight to seven for the Canucks.

Jane: At first they were angry with George because he missed the ball.

Teacher: Right! Who would like to read the lines which tell us this?

Martha: "Hey, what do you think you're doing?" said the boy. "You just lost our ball!"

Teacher: Very good! What did they do then?

Joe: Tina had a ball so they started to play again.

Teacher: Right!

Setting the Purposes for Reading (Part 3):

Teacher: What questions would you like to ask about the rest of the story?

Student questions:

"What team will win?"

"Who will score the winning goal?"

Directed Silent Reading (Part 3):

Teacher: Read the rest of the story to see if you can find the answers.

Verifying Answers to Pre-Posed Questions (Part 3):

Teacher: What answers did you find? (Pause) Sally, can you tell us one?

Sally: Tina scored the winning goal.

Teacher: Right!

John: The Canucks won the game.

Teacher: Good!

Comprehension Check:

Student-Posed Questions: Have the students ask questions and the rest of the class answer them.

Teacher-Posed Questions:

Teacher: At the beginning of the story, why did Tina and George feel that the other children were unfriendly?

Tom: Because they didn't ask Tina and George to get in the game.

Teacher: Good! How can you tell they changed their minds later?

Maisie: Because they let Tina and George play with them.

Teacher: Why do you think Tina was pleased when one of the boys passed the ball to her?

Ida: Because she got a breakaway.

Teacher: Think carefully. It was just after she got in the game.

Joe: It made Tina feel she was in the game and part of the gang.

Teacher: Very good!

Fundamental Skill Development:

Recalling Sequence of Events:

Have the pupils name eight events which occurred in the story. List them on the board. Have the pupils decide (through discussion) the order in which they occurred.

Recalling and Inferring Character Traits:

List the following character traits on the board and have the class discuss the meaning of each:

brave	patient
proud	intelligent
quick-thinking	alert
determined	appreciative

Have the students locate the following quoted sentences in the story and decide on the best word to match the character revealed in the quotation. The pupils must give a reason for their choice of words:

1. "It looked like a whole wall of players, but it didn't scare her" (p. 43).
2. "As Steve made a stab ... but Tina was ready for the move" (p. 41).
3. "She knew the others would remember it was her idea to put the skateboard there" (p. 42).
4. "I just thought that if we put it in front of the storm drain, we wouldn't lose another ball" (p. 39).
5. "That was a nice shot, Steve," Tina said. (p. 40).
6. "Instead of taking a hard shot, she just pushed the ball gently (p. 45).

Inferring the Main Idea:

More than one teaching period will be required to teach this skill. The procedures previously outlined, starting with pictures, will be utilized. The teacher will use the pictures on pages 20, 22, 24, and 27.

Proceed to short paragraphs. Duplicate pages from the social studies or health text at the grade four level, omitting the topic sentence. Through discussion, have the pupils decide on an appropriate topic sentence for each paragraph.

Next, the teacher will utilize newspaper headlines to teach the process. At least one example using a headline from a sports section should be included.

Finally, relate the process to the story. Refer to the clues in the title. Have the class decide on (through discussion) an appropriate headline for this story if it were to appear in the sports section of a newspaper.

Selection #5: Sports to Dream About (pp. 46-51)

Setting the Purposes for Reading (Part 1):

Teacher: Look at the pictures on pages 46 and 47. What questions would you like to ask?

Student questions:

"Why is the skier using poles?"

"What kind of skates is the man wearing?"

"Why is he bent over?"

Directed Silent Reading (Part 1):

Teacher: Read the captions on pages 46 and 47. See if you can find the answers.

Verifying Answers to Pre-Posed Questions (Part 1):

Teacher: What answers did you find? (Pause) Ida, did you find one?

Ida: The man is wearing special skates for speed-skating.

Mary: It doesn't give the answers to the other questions but I think the skier is using the poles to help her ski down the hill.

Teacher: How do you think the poles might help her ski down the hill?

Mary: To take the turns faster.

Teacher: Right! Who has another idea?

Martha: To keep her balance.

Teacher: Good!

Sally: I think the skater is bent over to help him go faster.

Teacher: Good thinking!

Setting the Purposes for Reading (Part 2):

Teacher: Look at the pictures on pages 48 and 49. What questions would you like to ask?

Student questions:

"Where is the man?"

"What is he doing?"

"What kind of sport is the woman taking part in?"

Directed Silent Reading (Part 2):

The teacher will have the pupils read the captions on pages 48 and 49 to find possible answers.

Verifying Answers to Pre-Posed Questions (Part 2):

Teacher: What answers did you discover?

Ida: The man is in a gym.

Harry: He is doing a flip.

Larry: The woman is doing a high-jump.

Teacher: Very good!

Setting the Purposes for Reading (Part 3):

Teacher: What questions would you like to ask about the pictures on pages 50 and 51?

Student questions:

"What is the lady playing?"

"What is that on the water back of the swimmer?"

Directed Silent Reading (Part 3):

Teacher: Read the captions on pages 50 and 51 to find possible answers.

Verifying Answers to Pre-Posed Questions (Part 3):

Teacher: Did you find the answers?

Fay: The lady is playing tennis.

Teacher: Right!

Joe: It doesn't say what is back of the swimmer.

Teacher: No, it doesn't. But think about pools where swimmers have races. Do several swimmers race at the same time?

Mary: Yes.

Teacher: How do they line up to start the race?

Sally: Each one gets ready in a different lane.

Teacher: Right! So what do you think might be stretched along the top of the water to divide the lanes?

John: Oh, I think I know, it's floats or something like that.

Teacher: Very good!

Fundamental Skill Development:

Identifying and Inferring Details: Have the pupils study the picture of the skier on page 46.

Teacher: How can you tell she is going fast?

Sally: The skiis are making the snow fly.

John: She's leaning to one side.

Teacher: Very good!

Have the pupils study the picture of the speed-skater on page 47.

Teacher: How are his skates different from a hockey player's skates?

Ann: The blades are longer and they are not rounded on the front.

Teacher: How can you tell he is moving fast?

Larry: He has one skate lifted up and he's pushing down hard with the other.

Teacher: Very good! Now, study the picture of the gymnast on page 48.

Teacher: What special clothing is he wearing?

Ida: A sleeveless shirt and gym pants.

Teacher: What country is he from?

Maisie: Canada.

Teacher: How can you tell he's from Canada?

Maisie: There's a maple leaf on his shirt.

Teacher: Very good!

Have the pupils study the picture of the high-jumper on page 49.

Teacher: Do you think the girl is going up or down?

Mary: She's going up.

Teacher: Study her face. What do you think she's feeling?

John: She's feeling the strain.

Teacher: Why do you think so?

John: Because she's trying very hard to go over the bar without touching it.

Teacher: That's good thinking.

Have the pupils study the picture of the tennis player on page 50.

Teacher: Is she right-handed or do you think she's left-handed?

Larry: She's right-handed.

Teacher: How might her short hair help her?

Martha: It's cooler.

Teacher: Does someone else have another idea?

Tom: It won't get in her eyes.

Teacher: How will that help her?

Tom: She will be able to see the ball better.

Teacher: Very good!

Have the pupils study the picture of the swimmer on page 51.

Teacher: Why does the swimmer have his mouth open in this way?

Ida: To help him breathe.

Teacher: How do you know that he is moving fast?

Joe: He's stirring up the water.

Teacher: Good thinking!

Inferring Character Traits:

Ask the pupils to come up with physical traits about themselves such as tall, slim, short, fat, thin, and big. Write these on the board.

Relate the process to the story. Get the pupils to look carefully at the picture of the speed-skater on page 47. Through discussion, have them determine which of the traits listed on the board might apply to the skater.

Making Comparisons:

Review the process related to this skill. Then have the pupils compare the clothing of the skier and the skater. Next, have them compare the clothing of the gymnast and the high-jumper.

Selection #6: When the Game is Over (pp. 53-57)

Setting the Purposes for Reading:

Ask the children to imagine themselves as newspaper or TV reporters who have to interview a person who once played a professional sport and was a famous star. Have them compose questions which would create the most interesting responses.

Student questions:

"How long were you a professional player?"

"How did you get started in your sport?"

"Have you ever played other sports?"

"Why did you like being an athlete?"

"Did you have many injuries when you were playing?"

"Why did you decide to retire when you did?"

Directed Silent Reading:

Have the pupils read the whole selection to find out which of these questions Debbie asked the football player.

Verifying Answers to Pre-Posed Questions:

Teacher: Which of your questions did Debbie ask the football player?

John: She asked five of the questions.

Jane: She didn't ask him why he decided to retire.

Teacher: Good!

Comprehension Check:

Student-Posed Questions: Have the pupils ask questions and the rest of the class answer them.

Teacher-Posed Questions:

Teacher: How did Doug get started in football?

Ida: He was always interested in sports.

Teacher: Can someone give us a little more information about it?

Maisie: He played football during high school.

Teacher: Very good!

Teacher: According to Doug, what were the good things about playing football?

Jane: You travel and meet all sorts of interesting people.

Teacher: Can someone tell us a little more about it?

Tom: He enjoyed the friendship and teamwork.

Teacher: Very good!

Teacher: What are some of the unpleasant things about playing football?

Mary: Training camp can be hard. You have to stay in shape.

Teacher: Does someone have another idea?

Joe: You might get injured.

Teacher: Right!

Fundamental Skill Development:

Recalling and Inferring Cause and Effect Relationships:

Review the process associated with teaching that cause and effect relationships are a chain of events which are connected. Then relate the process to sentences in the story. Ask the pupils to locate the following sentences in the story:

"Sports gave me determination. I 'grew' as a person. I became more understanding of other people" (p. 56).

Teacher: Read the sentences carefully.

Teacher: These sentences refer to Doug. Who can tell us what made him "grow" as a person? (Pause) Can you tell us, Maisie?

Maisie: Sports gave him determination.

Teacher: Right! What caused him to become more understanding of other people?

Ida: He grew as a person.

Teacher: Very good!

Review the process approach to inferring cause and effect relationships. Then write the following sentence on the board. Have the students read it carefully:

"Well, for many people, four years is often a whole career, especially in football" (p. 54).

Teacher: Why do you think Doug felt that four years was often a whole career, especially in football?

Jane: Because some players don't play professional football any longer than four years.

Teacher: Right! Why do you think a player might retire after four years?

Jane: Perhaps he can't play any more because of a serious injury.

Teacher: Yes, that's possible. Does someone have another idea?

Joan: It's hard on him. There's lots of strain and pressure. After four years he may decide he has had enough.

Sally: As he gets older, he may not be as good at it and decide it's time to quit.

Teacher: Very good thinking!

Selection #7: One Good Turn (pp. 58-67)

Setting the Purposes for Reading (Part 1):

Teacher: Look at the picture on pages 58 and 59. What questions would you like to ask?

Student questions:

"Where are the children?"

"What are they doing?"

"Why is the policeman there?"

Directed Silent Reading (Part 1): Have the pupils read pages 58 to 61 to find the answers.

Verifying Answers to Pre-Posed Questions (Part 1):

Teacher: What answers did you discover? (Pause) Can you tell us one, Larry?

Larry: The children are on a supermarket parking lot.

Martha: There are policemen there to make sure that no cars would get in the way.

Sally: The children are going to have a skateboard race.

Teacher: Who would like to read the lines which tell us this?

Joe: "All of them had skateboards and that wasn't really strange, because it was the day of Lethbridge's first skateboard race."

Teacher: Good!

Setting the Purposes for Reading (Part 2):

Teacher: What would you like to find out about the rest of the story?

Student questions:

"Will Rollie try to bump anyone?"

"Will Rollie try to make turns the way Tracey told him?"

"Who will win the race?"

Directed Silent Reading (Part 2):

Teacher: Read the remainder of the story to find the answers.

Verifying Answers to Pre-Posed Questions (Part 2):

Teacher: What answers did you find?

Ida: Rollie didn't try to bump anyone.

Ann: Rollie made the turns the way Tracey told him.

John: Rollie won the race.

Comprehension Check:

Student-Posed Questions: Give the pupils an opportunity to ask questions and have the rest of the class give the answers.

Teacher-Posed Questions:

Teacher: At the beginning of the story, what was Rollie's plan for winning the race?

John: He was going to bump anyone who started to pass him.

Teacher: What was Tracey's plan for skateboarding?

Maisie: To be fast and smart.

Teacher: What suggestions or advice did Tracey give Rollie which helped him take the sharp turns?

Larry: She told hi[redacted]ot to stand up too straight.

Mary: She told him to bend his knees and lean into the turn.

Joe: She told him to relax, stay loose.

Teacher: Very good!

Teacher: Why do you think Rollie decided not to bump anyone in the race?

Sally: He wanted to win so he decided to follow Tracey's advice.

Teacher: Yes, but was he sure that he would win by following Tracey's plan?

Ann: No.

Teacher: Why, then, did he decide to do it her way?

Sarah: If he bumped the others, he might have won the the race but he wouldn't have any friends left.

Teacher: Very good! Why do you think he would have lost his friends?

Harry: Bumping anyone who started to pass him was a dirty way of trying to win the race.

Teacher: Right!

Fundamental Skill Development:

Recalling Sequence of Events:

Have the pupils name eight events which occurred in the story. Through class discussion, have them decide on the order in which the events occurred in the story.

Inferring Sequence of Events:

Review the process associated with teaching this skill. Then relate the process to the story. Based on the events which occurred in the story, have the pupils predict at least two events which might have occurred after the story. Through discussion have the pupils decide the order in which they may have occurred.

Recalling Character Traits:

Write the following physical traits on the board:

stocky	thin
lanky	big
strong	stout
dumpy	tough

Have the class discuss the meaning of each.

Relate the process to the story by having the children decide which of these words are used to reveal Rollie's physical traits.

Inferring Comparisons:

Have the pupils make inferences on a race they have taken part in or seen in comparison to the skateboard race in the

story. Guiding questions should include the following:

1) Who races?

2) How do they race?

3) Where do they race?

4) What do they use when racing?

Inferring the Main Idea:

Review the process associated with teaching this skill, utilizing a headline from the sports section of a newspaper.

Relate the process to the story in the reader. Refer to the clue in the title. Through discussion have the class decide on an appropriate heading for the story, if it were to appear in the sports section of a newspaper.

Selection #8: Blue Moose (pp. 70-79)

Setting the Purpose for Reading (Part 1):

Teacher: Look at the picture on pages 70 and 71. What questions would you like to ask?

Student questions:

"Who is the man?"

"What kind of building is that?"

"Why is the moose there?"

"Why is the rabbit there?"

Directed Silent Reading (Part 1):

Have the pupils read pages 70 and 71 to find the answers.

Verifying Answers to Pre-Posed Questions (Part 1):

Teacher: What answers did you find?

Sally: The building is a restaurant.

John: The man is Mr. Breton.

Maisie: Sometimes rabbits came out of the woods to watch Mr. Breton.

Tom: It doesn't say why the moose was there.

Teacher: Right! Maybe we will find the answer in the next part of the story.

Setting the Purpose for Reading (Part 2):

Teacher: Look at the picture on page 73. What questions would you like to ask?

Student questions:

"How did the moose get in the kitchen?"

"What is he drinking?"

Directed Silent Reading (Part 2):

Have the pupils read pages 72 and 73 to find the answers.

Verifying Answers to Pre-Posed Questions (Part 2):

Teacher: Tell us the answers you discovered. (Pause) Larry, can you tell us one?

Larry: The moose walked into the kitchen.

Teacher: Right!

John: The moose was drinking coffee.

Martha: Now I know why the moose was there. He wanted to go into the kitchen to get warm.

Teacher: Good! Who would like to read the sentences which tell us this?

Ida: "Do you mind if I come in and get warm?" said the moose. "I'm just about frozen."

Teacher: Very good!

Setting the Purposes for Reading (Part 3):

Teacher: Look at the picture on pages 74 and 75. What questions would you like to ask?

Student questions:

"What is the moose doing?"

"Why didn't the people run away?"

"What does the moose have on the top of his horns?"

Directed Silent Reading Part 3):

Have the pupils read pages 74-77 to find the answers.

Verifying Answers to Pre-Posed Questions (Part 3):

Teacher: What answers did you find?

Jane: The moose is serving the people in the restaurant.

Joe: The people didn't run away because they were too surprised.

Mary: The moose has bowls of clam chowder on the top of its horns.

Teacher: Right!

Setting the Purposes for Reading (Part 4):

Teacher: What questions would you like to ask about the remainder of the story?

Student questions:

"Will the moose stay with Mr. Breton all winter?"

"Will the moose go back into the woods again?"

"Will the moose come back to the restaurant again?"

Directed Silent Reading (Part 4):

Have the pupils read the remainder of the story to find the answers to their questions.

Verifying Answers to Pre-Posed Questions (Part 4):

Teacher: What answers did you find?

Sarah: The moose stayed with Mr. Breton all winter.

Harry: The moose decided to go back into the woods to visit his uncle.

Jane: The moose planned to come back to the restaurant.

Teacher: Right!

Comprehension Check:

Student-Posed Questions:

Give the students an opportunity to question the class and have the class supply the answers.

Teacher-Posed Questions:

Teacher: Where did the story take place?

Sally: On the edge of the big woods.

Teacher: Why did Mr. Breton go out behind his house every morning?

Harry: To get firewood.

Teacher: Why did the moose sit down near the stove?

Joe: He sat there to warm himself.

Teacher: Why were the people from town surprised to see the moose?

Ida: Because he was in the restaurant.

Teacher: Why did that surprise them?

Ann: They were surprised because you don't usually see a moose in a restaurant.

Teacher: Right!

Teacher: How can you tell that Mr. Breton was sorry that the moose was leaving?

Martha: He said that he would miss the moose.

Tom: He wanted to know if the moose would ever come back again.

Teacher: Very good!

Fundamental Skill Development:

Identifying and Inferring Details:

Have the pupils tell whom each of the following sentences refers to (McInnes, Wheatley, Blackburn, Houghton, & Welland, 1978):

1) _____ had a little restaurant on the edge of the woods.
2) _____ stood in the yard looking at the back door.
3) _____ ate seventeen bowls of clam chowder.
4) _____ were surprised to see the new waiter.
5) _____ suggested gingerbread for dessert.
6) _____ walked away on snowshoes.
7) _____ sat outside without a coat on.
9) _____ packed parcels of food.
10) _____ said he would send a postcard. (p. 108)

Have the pupils tell all the things the moose did that were different from what an ordinary moose might do.

Recalling Sequence of Events:

Have the pupils name ten events which occurred in the story and through discussion, decide on the order in which they occurred.

Inferring Sequence of Events:

Review the process associated with teaching this skill. Then relate the process to the story. Have the pupils predict at least two events which might have occurred after the story and decide the order in which they may have occurred.

Selection #9: Supertalk Calling Milkman (pp. 80-93)

Setting the Purposes for Reading (Part 1):

Teacher: Look at the picture on pages 80 and 81. What questions would you like to ask?

Student questions:

"What is the boy's name?"

"What is he doing?"

"What is that inside the milk box?"

"Who put it there?"

Directed Silent Reading (Part 1):

Have the pupils read pages 80 and 81 to find the answers.

Verifying Answers to Pre-Posed Questions (Part 1):

Teacher: What answers did you find? (Pause) Martha, what answer did you find?

Martha: The boy's name is Frank.

John: He is looking inside the milk box.

Maisie: There's a note and a walkie-talkie inside the milk box.

Teacher: Right! Who would like to read the sentences which tell us this?

Maisie: "When he opened the milk box again and looked carefully, Frank found a piece of paper with some writing on it."

Teacher: Yes, this sentence tells us there was a note in the milk box. Who would like to read the sentence which tells that there was a walkie-talkie in the milk box?

Jane: "Now I know," Frank said, excited. "It's not just a radio. It's a walkie-talkie."

Ida: It doesn't say who put it there.

Teacher: That's right. Perhaps we will find out when we read the next part of the story.

Setting the Purposes for Reading (Part 2):

Teacher: Look at the picture on pages 82 and 83. What questions would you like to ask?

Student questions:

"Who is the girl?"

"Why is Frank pointing to the note?"

"Will anyone call on the walkie-talkie?"

Directed Silent Reading (Part 2):

Have pupils read pages 82 to 85 to find the answers.

Verifying Answers to Pre-Posed Questions (Part 2):

Teacher: What answers did you find? (Pause) Can you tell us one, Joe?

Joe: The girl is Frank's sister.

Mary: Her name is Sandy.

Larry: Frank is showing her the note and telling her what he had figured out.

Sarah: Someone called on the walkie-talkie.

Teacher: Right!

Setting the Purposes for Reading (Part 3):

Have the pupils look at the picture on pages 86 and 87. Get them to pose questions about the next part of the story.

Student questions:

"Will Supertalk call again?"

"Where are they going?"

"Why are they running?"

Directed Silent Reading (Part 3):

Teacher: Read pages 86 and 87 to find the answers.

Verifying Answers to Pre-Posed Questions (Part 3):

Teacher: What answers did you find?

Jane: Supertalk called Frank again.

Teacher: Right! Who would like to read the line which tells what Supertalk said when he called?

Joe: "MAYDAY ... MILKMAN ... FRANK ... HELR ..."

Teacher: Good! Who can tell us the answers to the other questions?

Ann: They are going to apartment 808.

Harry: They are running because Supertalk said there was an emergency.

Teacher: Very good!

Setting the Purposes for Reading (Part 4):

Teacher: Look at the picture on pages 88 and 89. What questions would you like to ask?

Student questions:

"Who is the boy in the wheelchair?"

"Why is the woman on the floor?"

"How will Frank and Sandy help them?"

Directed Silent Reading (Part 4):

Have the pupils read pages 88 and 90 to find the answers.

Verifying Answers to Pre-Posed Questions (Part 4):

Teacher: What answers did you find? (Pause) Sally, did you find one?

Sally: The boy in the wheelchair is Jim.

Teacher: Who would like to read the sentences that tells us this?

Sally: "Jim," the woman called as her eyes opened wide and she saw the smoke. "Are you all right?"

Teacher: Good!

Martha: The woman is on the floor because she is hurt.

Tom: Sandy and Frank helped the woman to stand.

Ida: Sandy helped the woman get through the smoke and out the door.

Larry: Frank pushed Supertalk's wheelchair.

Teacher: Very good!

Setting the Purposes for Reading (Part 5):

Teacher: What questions would you like to ask about the remainder of the story?

Student questions:

"Who put the note and walkie-talkie in the milk box?"

"Why did someone put it there?"

"How did the fire start?"

Directed Silent Reading (Part 5):

Teacher: Read the rest of the story to find the answers.

Verifying Answers to Pre-Posed Questions (Part 5):

Teacher: What answers did you discover?

Joe: Jim put the note and walkie-talkie in the milk box.

Harry: The fire started when the curtain caught fire.

Teacher: Yes, the curtain caught fire, but didn't the the fire start somewhere else?

No response.

Teacher: Think of what Jim's mother was doing when she got the shock.

Harry: She was trying to fix the stove.

Teacher: If she was trying to fix it, what does this tell us about the stove?

Harry: There was something wrong with it.

Teacher: What then, do you think actually happened?

Harry: Some part of the stove caught fire when she was trying to fix it.

Teacher: Very good! Who would like to read the lines which tell the whole problem started with the stove?

Ida: "It was just the electric stove. The building isn't on fire."

"I was fixing the thing," Supertalk's mother told one of the firemen. "I felt the shock and that's all I know."

Teacher: Very good!

Comprehension Check:

Student-Posed Questions:

Give the pupils an opportunity to ask questions and have the class answer them. Encourage the use of "why" or "how" types of questions.

Teacher-Posed Questions:

Teacher: How was Frank able to figure out that Supertalk lived in the same building that Frank lived in?

Mary: Supertalk gave him a clue.

Teacher: What was the clue?

Mary: He said he lived high up in a square mountain.

Teacher: In what way was this a clue?

Mary: If he lived high up, he couldn't be living in a one story house.

Teacher: Good thinking! Can someone give us a little more information about the clue?

Harry: The square mountain was the apartment building because it was sort of square shaped and big and high like a mountain.

Teacher: Very good!

Teacher: How can you tell that Jim had not made many friends before he met Frank?

Tom: He wished Frank was his friend. That was the first person he ever said that about.

Teacher: Right! What other clue is given in the story?

Martha: Near the end of the story, Jim's mother said Jim was ready to make friends now.

Teacher: Good!

Fundamental Skill Development:

Recalling and Inferring Details:

List the following words on the board and have the class discuss the meaning of each:

happy	excited	worried
surprised	sad	frustrated
relieved	puzzled	calm

Have the class find the following sentences in the story and decide the word from the list which best describes the character's feelings. Before deciding, the pupils may have to read the sentences in the story which come before or after the sentence given. The pupils must tell how they reasoned to get the answers:

1. "Now I know," . . . (p. 84).
2. "I'll never be able to learn all this," Frank said as he looked at the walkie-talkie (p. 84).
3. "A square mountain!" . . . (p. 85).
4. "Darn it, Sandy," . . . (p. 86).
5. "Jim," the woman called . . . (p. 88).
6. "In here, Frank," Supertalk called (p. 88).
7. "Yes, Mom, I'm right here," . . . (p. 88).
8. "What's wrong with your legs?" Frank asked Supertalk (p. 91).
9. "I'm not very good at playing," . . . (p. 92).
10. "Neat-O!" . . . (p. 93).

Write the following sentences on the board. Through discussion, have the pupils determine what is meant by each. Have them give a reason for each answer:

"My legs don't work too well. I guess they were short of the right pieces when I was being made," . . . (p. 91).

Recalling Cause and Effect Relationships:

Let the children see again that events or happenings may lead to (cause) other events or happenings. Each "effect" in turn becomes the "cause" of the next event. For example, if the road is icy and slippery (event 1), this could lead to (cause) your falling down (event 2), which could lead to (cause) a broken leg (event 3), which could lead to (cause) your going to hospital (event 4), which could lead to (cause) your missing some school work (event 5).

Cause	Effect
Road is icy and slippery	You fall down
You fall down	You break a leg
You break a leg	You go to hospital
You go to hospital	You miss some school work

Relate the process to the story, utilizing the following sentences:

1. Supertalk's mother was fixing the electric stove.
2. She felt an electric shock.
3. It threw her across the room.
4. She bumbed her head on the wall.
5. She fell to the floor.

Inferring Cause and Effect Relationships:

Have the students look at something that has happened and ask them what they think has caused it.

Example: Willie ran into the house because . . . . .

Relate this process to the story by having the students look at each "result" and tell what they think has caused this.

1. Frank was puzzled when he opened the milk box because . . . .
2. Sandy told Frank about the code used on CB radio bacause . . . .
3. Supertalk told Frank where he lived because . . . .
4. Frank listened to the other children's voices because . . . .

Selection #10: The Golden Key (pp. 94-108)

Setting the Purposes for Reading (Part 1):

Have the pupils read the title and look at the picture on page 94. Ask them to pose questions about the story.

Student questions:

"What is the key for?"

"What does it look like?"

"Where is the house located?"

Directed Silent Reading (Part 1):

Ask the pupils to read pages 94-97 to find the answers.

Verifying Answers to Pre-Posed Questions (Part 1):

Teacher: What answers did you find? (Pause) Jane, can you tell us one?

Jane: The house was located on the Bay of Fundy.

Teacher: Right!

Sally: The key was shiny and gold.

Teacher: Good! What else did you find out about the key?

Maisie: It was big and old fashioned.

Joe: It had a large, round handle on one end.

Mary: It doesn't tell us what the key was for.

Teacher: Right! Perhaps we will find out when we read another part of the story.

Setting the Purposes for Reading (Part 2):

Teacher: Look at the picture on page 97. What questions would you like to ask?

Student questions:

"Who put the key in the sack?"

"What will Barry do with it?"

"Will he find a lock that it fits?"

Directed Silent Reading (Part 2):

Have the students read pages 98-102 to find the answers.

Verifying Answers to Pre-Posed Questions (Part 2):

Teacher: What answers did you find? (Pause) Martha, did you find an answer?

Martha: He took the key up to the third floor.

Jane: Now I know what the key was for. It fitted a lock on one of the doors on the third floor. Barry used it to open the door.

Teacher: Right!

John: It doesn't tell us who put the key in the sack.

Teacher: Maybe we will find out when we read another part of the story.

Setting the Purposes for Reading (Part 3):

Teacher: Look at the picture on page 103. What questions would you like to ask?

Student questions:

"Where are they going?"

"Where did grandfather get the key?"

Directed Silent Reading (Part 3):

Teacher: Read pages 103 to UNTIL TOMORROW on page 106 to find the answers.

Verifying Answers to Pre-Posed Questions (Part 3):

Teacher: What answers did you discover?

Sarah: They were going up to the room on the third floor.

Ida: The grandparents had a key to fit all the locks in the house.

Teacher: Right! Who would like to read the lines which tell us this?

John: "I'll get the master key," Barry's grandmother said. "We'll need it if the door is locked."

Teacher: Very good!

Setting the Purposes for Reading (Part 4):

Teacher: What questions would you like to ask about the rest of the story?

Student questions:

"Who was the boy that Barry saw on the third floor?"

"Will Barry meet him again?"

"When will the MacTaggarts arrive?"

Directed Silent Reading (Part 4):

Teacher: Read the remainder of the story to find the answers to your questions.

Verifying Answers to Pre-Posed Questions (Part 4):

Teacher: What answers did you find?

John: The boy was James MacTaggart.

Larry: The MacTaggarts arrived the next morning.

Ann: Barry met James again when the MacTaggarts arrived.

Teacher: Right! Now, whom do you think put the key in the sack?

John: James.

Teacher: Why do you think this?

John: Because he wanted Barry to meet him in the room upstairs.

Teacher: How can you tell this?

John: When Barry unlocked the door, James was waiting inside the room.

Teacher: Very good thinking!

Comprehension Check:

Student-Posed Questions:

Let the students ask "why" or "how" types of questions and have the class answer them.

Teacher-Posed Questions:

Teacher: What part of the house looked like unblinking eyes?

Tom: The windows.

Teacher: Right! In what ways were they like eyes?

Tom: Their trims were white and they looked out to sea.

Teacher: Good! Now, in what way were they unblinking?

No response.

Teacher: What does the word "unblinking" mean?

Ida: It means not closing and opening your eyes like you do most of the time.

Martha: The windows were like that, like they were just staring.

Teacher: Very good!

Teacher: Whom do you think wrote UNTIL TOMORROW on the board?

Larry: James.

Teacher: Why do you think it was James?

Larry: James was still in the room when Barry ran downstairs. When Barry went back to the room UNTIL TOMORROW was written on the board.

Teacher: Right! Why do you think James wrote this on the board?

Martha: James wanted to let Barry know that he would see him again the next day.

Teacher: Very good!

Teacher: In what season do you think the story took place?

Sally: Summer.

Teacher: Why do you think it was in the summer?

Sally: It says the grandparents went down to open the summer house.

Teacher: Right! Does someone have another reason which makes you think it was summer?

Joe: It was supposed to be a summer holiday for Barry.

Teacher: Very good!

Fundamental Skill Development:

Recalling Cause and Effect Relationships:

Write the following sentences by McInnes, Wheatley, Blackburn, Houghton, and Welland (1978) on the board and have the class decide through discussion which part is the "cause" and which part is the "effect" in each sentence:

1. The door was locked so Barry tried the golden key.
2. Since Barry didn't know how the strange boy got into the house, he was scared.
3. Barry slept badly that night because he kept dreaming of the boy he had met in the room.
4. Mc. MacTaggart wanted Barry to meet his son so Barry walked over and looked in the car.
5. Barry expected the room to be empty and as a result he jumped when he heard the boy's voice.
6. Barry was always in their way, therefore his grantparents told him to go and play on the beach. (p. 125)

Inferring Cause and Effect Relationships:

Write the following sentences on the board. Have the class determine through discussion what they think caused each "effect" in each sentence:

1. Barry didn't like the idea of spending the summer at the Bay of Fundy because . . . . .
2. Barry wondered what was on the third floor because . . . . .
3. Barry was cautious when he opened the locked door because . . . . .
4. Barry was confused when he met the boy in the room on the third floor because . . . . .

Selection #11: A Fish Tale (pp. 109-119)

Setting the Purposes for Reading (Part 1):

Write the title on the board. Have the pupils pose questions they would like to ask just from the title alone.

Student questions:

"Who went fishing?"

"Where did they go fishing?"

"What kind of fish did they catch?"

Directed Silent Reading (Part 1):

Have the pupils read pages 109-114 to find the answers.

Verifying Answers to Pre-Posed Questions (Part 1):

Teacher: What answers did you find? (Pause) Can you tell us one, Maisie?

Maisie: William and his crew used to go fishing.

Larry: They would catch codfish.

Ida: They went outside Herring Harbour, about thirty kilometres off shore to fish.

Teacher: Who would like to read the sentence which tells where they went to fish?

John: "Every day, William would go out with a crew of two (plus a cook) and fish about thirty kilometres off shore."

Teacher: Good!

Setting the Purposes for Reading (Part 2):

Teacher: What questions would you like to ask about the remainder of the story?

Student questions:

"What was Elizabeth's secret?"

"What will she do with the two coils of rope?"

"Will they get a boat-load of fish to take to St. John's?"

Directed Silent Reading (Part 2):

Have the students read the rest of the story to find the answers to their questions.

Verifying Answers to Pre-Posed Questions (Part 2):

Teacher: What answers did you find?

Joe: They got the boat-load of fish to take to St. John's.

Mary: Elizabeth used the rope to make lines in the house to hang the fish on.

Tom: Her secret was a plan for drying the fish.

Teacher: Right! What was this plan?

Tom: She decided to hang the fish in the house and dry them by lighting fires in the stoves.

Teacher: Very good!

Comprehension Check:

Student-Posed Questions:

Give the pupils an opportunity to ask "why" or "how" types of questions and have the class answer them.

Teacher-Posed Questions:

Teacher: After Elizabeth told William her secret, why did they both laugh? (Pause) Harry, can you tell us?

Harry: It was a funny idea.

Teacher: Can you explain what you mean?

Harry: They hadn't tried to dry fish that way before. Usually they dried the fish in the sun.

Teacher: Very good!

Teacher: The kitchen looked like an upside-down underwater world. Can you explain why?

No response.

Teacher: What was in the kitchen that made it look like an underwater world?

Ann: The fish.

Teacher: Right!

Martha: It looked upside down because each fish was upside down. It was pinned by its tail to the rope.

Teacher: Very good!

Fundamental Skill Development:

Recalling Sequence of Events:

Think of the selection as three parts -- Part 1, pages 109-112; Part 2, pages 113-114; Part 3, pages 114-119. For each part, have the class decide on the order in which the events listed by McInnes, Wheatley, Blackburn, Houghton, and Welland (1978), happened in the story.

Part 1

___ William told Elizabeth to dry the fish.

___ The wind died down and William went out fishing.

___ It started to rain.

___ William said they should go to St. John's with a boatload of fish to sell.

___ William didn't think the fish would dry in time to take them to St. John's.

Part 2

___ She fetched two coils of rope from the shed.

___ She told young Jim her plan and asked him to help her.

___ Elizabeth put on her sweater and rubber boots.

___ She chopped an enormous pile of kindling.

___ She got tools and left them in the porch.

Part 3

___ Jim and Elizabeth hung the wet cod all over the house with clothes pins.

___ The fish dried.

___ They bought all the things they needed.

___ They lit fires in all the stoves.

___ Elizabeth and William sold the fish for a good price
(p. 133)

Inferring Sequence of Events:

Review the process associated with teaching this skill. Then have the pupils predict at least two events which might have occurred before the story and decide the order in which they may have occurred.

Recalling and Inferring Cause and Effect Relationships:

Get the class to decide what caused each "effect" in the following:

1. Elizabeth and William would need help to sail the ship to St. John's because . . . .
2. The people of Herring Harbour stored the half-dry fish in the sheds because . . . .
3. Elizabeth chopped an enormous pile of kindling because . . . .
4. It was important for Elizabeth and William to get a full boat-load of fish because . . . .
5. They made two lists of things to buy because . . . .

Selection #12: Stamps Talk (pp. 120-123)

Setting the Purposes for Reading:

Write the title on the board. Have the pupils pose questions they would like to ask just from the title alone.

Student questions:

"Is the story about Canadian stamps?"

"How can stamps talk?"

"What can they tell you?"

Directed Silent Reading:

Teacher: Read pages 120-123 to find the answers.

Verifying Answers to Pre-Posed Questions:

Teacher: What answers did you discover?

Sarsh: The story is about Canadian stamps and stamps of other countries too.

Teacher: Can you name some of the other countries?

Sarah: The United States, Portugal, New Zealand and Angola.

Teacher: Harry, how can stamps talk?

Harry: By what is on them.

Teacher: Can you explain what you mean?

Harry: The name of the country is written on them, and the picture may give you an idea about the country.

Teacher: Right! Can anyone tell us some other thing that stamps tell you?

Maisie: They tell you about events and famous people.

John: You see people at work, at school and at play.

Joe: They can tell you about what other children read.

Mary: You'll see trees, animals, birds and fish.

Jane: You can collect stamps around your special interest or hobby.

Teacher: Very good!

Fundamental Skill Development:

Inferring Details:

Have the pupils infer details from particular stamps and in each case give a reason for the inference.

1. The type of community portrayed by the first stamp on page 120.
2. The event portrayed by the first stamp on page 121.
3. Where the children are on the New Sealand Day stamp on page 122.
4. The title of the story represented by the stamp from Poland on page 122.
5. The type of activity portrayed by the last stamp on page 123.

Inferring the Main Idea:

Omit the first sentence (the main idea) in the following story and give each pupil a duplicated copy. The teacher and pupils will read it orally together:

Winter Fun

In winter there is plenty of outdoor fun for most Newfoundland children. They build snow forts and snow houses in the deep tightly-packed snow. On snowy days some like to run and jump in the hugs snowdrifts. Sometimes boys and girls love to speed down a snow-covered hill on their sleighs. Skiing is exciting too for some children. When the ice is thick and safe, many take to the ponds for ice-fishing or skating. Sometimes they enjoy skidoo rides on paths or trails through the thick woods. Is it any wonder Newfoundland children anxiously await the coming of winter?

Utilizing the clues in the title and the information in the passage, have the pupils identify the relevant details.

1. Who is the story about?

2. When does the story take place?

3. Where does the story take place?

4. What do the children do to enjoy themselves?

Through discussion have the class decide on a summary sentence appropriate for the beginning of the story.

Relate the process to the article "Stamp Talk". Utilizing the clue in the title and relevant details in the article, have the class infer the main idea.

Selection #13: All About Horses (pp. 126-131)

Setting the Purposes for Reading:

Teacher: Look at the title on page 126 and the diagram on page 127. What questions would you like to ask?

Student questions:

"What kind of horses is the glossary about?"

"What are the reins on a horse for?"

"What are the stirrups for?"

Directed Silent Reading:

Have the students read the entries in the glossary to find possible answers to their questions.

Verifying Answers to Pre-Posed Questions:

Teacher: What answers did you find?

Sarah: The glossary is about the Appaloosa, Arabian, Palomino, and Pinto.

Teacher: What other breed of horse is mentioned? (Pause) Tom, can you tell us?

Tom: A pony.

Teacher: Right!

Maisie: The reins are used to control the horse.

Harry: The stirrups are for the rider to put his feet in.

Teacher: Right! Who would like to read the sentence which tells us this?

Joe: "You put your feet in the stirrups when you sit in the saddle."

Teacher: Good!

Comprehension Check:

Student-Posed Questions:

Give the students an opportunity to ask questions and have the class answer them.

Teacher-Posed Questions:

Teacher: When referring to horses, what does "tack" mean?

Joe: It means the things you need for your horse, such as a saddle, a bridle, and a saddle pad.

Teacher: How does a quarter horse get its name? (Pause) Can you tell us, Mary?

Mary: A quarter horse can race a quarter of a mile very fast.

Teacher: Good! How are horses and ponies measured for height?

Maisie: They are measured by the number of "hands" from the ground to the top of their shoulders.

Teacher: Right! Why do you think some horses like hackamores better than regular bridles?

Harry: Regular bridles have bits and some horses may not like bits.

Teacher: Why do you think this?

Harry: Bits may hurt their mouth and they may not get used to them.

Teacher: Very good!

Fundamental Skill Development:

Recalling Details:

Have the class determine the correct word required to complete each of the following sentences:

1. A baby horse is called a _____.
2. A horse that is one year old is called a _____.
3. The reins are attached to a _____.
4. The _____ is a breed of horse that is cream to gold coloured and has a white mane and tail.
5. The _____ is the strap which holds the saddle on.

Recognition of Comparisons:

Review the process related to teaching this skill. Then have the students compare a colt and a filly.

Selection #14: The Present (pp. 132-144)

Setting the Purposes for Reading (Part 1):

Teacher: Look at the title on page 132 and the picture on pages 132 and 133. What questions would you like to ask?

Student questions:

"What is the present?"

"Where are the children going?"

"Who are the children?"

Directed Silent Reading (Part 1):

Have the pupils read pages 132-135 to find the answers.

Verifying Answers to Pre-Posed Questions (Part 1):

Teacher: What answers did you find? (Pause) Jane, can you tell us one?

Jane: The children are Beth and David.

Joe: They were going to the barn to feed the cattle and put the horses in their stalls.

Teacher: Who would like to read the lines which tell us this?

Maisie: "Now it was time to feed the cattle and settle them down for the night, and put David's horse and Beth's little mare into their warm box stalls."

Harry: It doesn't say what the present was.

Teacher: Right! Perhaps we will find out later.

Setting the Purposes for Reading (Part 2):

Teacher: What questions would you like to ask about the next part of the story?

Student questions:

"Why was Red Dance behaving so strangely?"

"Will she eat her hay and oats?"

"Will the children try to get help?"

Directed Silent Reading (Part 2):

Get the pupils to read pages 136-139 to find the answers.

Verifying Answers to Pre-Posed Questions (Part 2):

Teacher: What answers did you find?

Ann: Red Dance was sick.

Jane: She didn't eat her hay and oats.

John: David tried to get help. He called the vet twice.

Teacher: Right!

Setting the Purposes for Reading (Part 3):

Teacher: What would you like to find out in the rest of the story?

Student questions:

"What was the present?"

"Will Red Dance get well again?"

"Will the father get back in time to help Red Dance?"

Directed Silent Reading (Part 3):

Teacher: Read the rest of the story to find the answers.

Verifying Answers to Pre-Posed Questions (Part 3):

Teacher: What answers did you discover?

Larry: The present was a foal.

Teacher: Who would like to read the lines that tell that the foal was a present for Beth?

Tom: "He's all yours, Beth," said her father. "You'll have to think of a good name for him."

"I have a name for him already," replied Beth, who had just had a very good idea. "I'm going to call him My Present!"

Teacher: Good!

Sarah: Red Dance got well again.

Ida: The father did not get back in time to help Red Dance. When he got back, she already had her baby.

Teacher: Right!

Comprehension Check:

Student-Posed Questions:

Give the pupils a chance to ask questions. Encourage the utilization of "how" or "why" types of questions. Have the rest of the class answer them.

Teacher-Posed Questions:

Teacher: Look at the last sentence on page 140. David said he should have known what was wrong with Red Dance. Why do you think he should have known this?

No response.

Teacher: Read the first paragraph on page 142 again.

Larry: Thinking back he realized that Red Dance had behaved the way cows did when they were going to have babies.

Teacher: Good! Now, why do you think David didn't go for help when Red Dance was sick?

Joe: Because he didn't want to leave his sister alone.

Teacher: Right! (Pause) Can you think of another reason, John?

John: It was dark.

Teacher: True! But perhaps he could have made it if it were only a short distance. Where did David and Beth live?

Harry: On a farm.

Teacher: Right! Now, think about where other people might have lived in the area. Then you may be able to give us another reason why David didn't go for help.

Maisie: The nearest people might be miles away. So it might have been too far for David to go.

Teacher: Very good!

Fundamental Skill Development:

Recognizing Cause and Effect Relationships:

Have the class decide which is the "cause" and which is the "effect" in each of the following:

1. "David switched on the lights. The cattle blinked in the sudden brightness" (p. 134).
2. Lad was snorting because he was hungry.
3. Red Dance was sick. David couldn't go to bed and leave her.
4. David's father went away because an old uncle was very ill.
5. "As David got warmer inside the blanket, he began to feel sleepy" (p. 139).

Recalling Sequence of Events:

Through discussion, have the class decide on the order in which the following events took place in the story:

____ Beth fell asleep in the barn.

____ The children went to the barn to feed the animals.

____ Their father went away.

____ David switched on the light in the barn.

____ The children ate their supper.

____ The children's father returned home.

____ Beth noticed that there was something wrong with Red Dance.

____ David fell asleep.

Inferring Sequence of Events:

Review the process associated with teaching this skill. Then have the pupils predict three events which might have occurred before the story. Through discussion, have them decide on the order in which the events may have occurred.

Inferring Details:

Write the following words on the board and have the class discuss the meaning of each:

amused	angry
confident	relieved
pleased	excited
puzzled	disappointed

Duplicate the following sentences and have the class determine the word which best describes the character's or characters' feelings. The students must give a reason for each choice.

1. The children felt _____ about what to do to help Red Dance.
2. The children's father was unhappy about leaving the children alone overnight, but he was _____ that they knew how to care for themselves.
3. When David helped Beth get ready to go outdoors, she giggled. She felt _____.
4. When the father came home the children were _____.
5. The children felt _____ when they saw the foal because now they knew what had been wrong with Red Dance.
6. When Beth's father gave her the colt, she was _____.

Selection #15: Windy's First Ride (pp. 146-159)

Setting the Purposes for Reading (Part 1):

Have the pupils read the title and sub-title on page 146. Get them to pose questions about the first part of the story.

Student questions:

"Who owns the horse?"

"Who will start training him?"

"What kind of horse is it?"

Directed Silent Reading (Part 1):

Teacher: Read the first part of the story (pp. 147-150) to find the answers.

Verifying Answers to Pre-Posed Questions (Part 1):

Teacher: What answers did you find? (Pause) Martha, can you tell us one?

Martha: The horse belonged to the Dennisons.

Teacher: Right!

John: Mrs. Dennison started training him.

Sally: The horse is a colt.

Teacher: Right! Who would like to read the sentence which tells us that he was a colt?

Larry: "Windy, the small pale-gold colt with a soft white mane and tale, whinnied softly."

Teacher: Good!

Setting the Purposes for Reading (Part 2):

Teacher: What questions would you like to ask about the rest of the story?

Student questions:

"How will the horse react when they put the saddle on him?"

"Will it take long to train him?"

"Will he try to throw Pam off his back?"

Directed Silent Reading (Part 2):

Have the class read the remainder of the story to find the answers.

Verifying Answers to Pre-Posed Questions (Part 2):

Teacher: What answers did you find?

Sarah: It didn't take long to train Windy.

Joe: He didn't try to throw Pam.

Teacher: Right! How did he react when they put the saddle on him? (Pause) Harry, can you tell us the answer?

Harry: He put his head down and kicked up with his hind feet.

Teacher: Right! What else did he do?

Harry: He ran around the paddock, bucking every few feet.

Teacher: Very good!

Comprehension Check:

Student-Posed Questions:

Get the pupils to ask "how" or "why" types of questions and have the class answer them.

Teacher-Posed Questions:

Teacher: Why do you think Pamela talked to Windy softly whenever she brought him a treat? (Pause) Tom, can you tell us the answer?

Tom: She wanted to make friends with him.

Teacher: Good!

Ann: She wanted Windy to feel at home.

Teacher: Why was this necessary?

Ann: When Mrs. Dennison brought him home, he was scared of anything new.

Teacher: Very good! Now, why did Mrs. Dennison want to train Windy to be a safe, obedient horse?

No response.

Teacher: Look at the first paragraph, on page 148. See if you can come up with the answer.

Sally: So that Pam could ride him.

Teacher: Right! What might have happened if he were not safe and obedient?

Sally: He might have thrown Pam and hurt her.

Teacher: Good!

Teacher: Why do you think Pamela hoped Windy would learn fast? (Pause) Martha, can you tell us?

Martha: She was anxious to ride him.

Teacher: Very good!

Fundamental Skill Development:

Recalling and Inferring Cause and Effect Relationships:

Have the class decide what "caused" each of the following:

1. Windy could see right behind him because _____.
2. Windy was frightened by the saddle because _____.
3. At first when Windy felt the rope pull against his halter, he pulled back, frightened because _____.
4. Mrs. Dennison decided to let Windy get used to the saddle before learning to carry Pamela on his back because _____.
5. Windy had changed very much since the Dennisons got him because _____.

Recalling Sequence of Events:

This story is divided into two parts. Have the class name eight events that happened in each part and get them to decide on the order in which the events in each part occurred in the story.

Inferring Sequence of Events:

Have the class predict three events which might have occurred after the story and decide the order in which they might have occurred.

APPENDIX D

TEACHING READING COMPREHENSION UTILIZING ONE SELECTION FROM THE BASAL READER ROWBOATS AND ROLLERSKATES

Selection #1: Nanimo Is "Bathtub Capital of the World" (pp. 14-15)

Setting the Purposes for Reading:

Get the pupils to look at the pictures on pages 14 and 15. Have them pose questions about the race.

Student questions:

"How long is the race"

"What's the prize?"

"Who takes part?"

"How do they make the bathtubs float?"

Directed Silent Reading:

Have the students read pages 14-15 to find the answers.

Verifying Answers to Pre-Posed Questions:

Teacher: What answers did you discover? (Pause) Joe, can you tell us one?

Joe: The race is 58 kilometres long.

Teacher: Right! Who would like to read the lines which tell us this?

Sally: "The bathtubs race 58 kilometres from Nanaimo, on Vancouver Island, to Kitsilano Beach, Vancouver."

Teacher: Good!

John: The winners receive gold-sprayed bathtub plugs and some money.

Mary: The racers come from all across Canada.

Teacher: Where else do they come from?

Mary: Hawaii, Australia, and Mexico.

Teacher: Right!

Tom: To make the bathtubs float, they put pontoons on them.

Teacher: Good!

Comprehension Check:

Student-Posed Questions:

Have the students ask questions and the rest of the class answer them.

Teacher-Posed Questions:

Teacher: How did the race get started?

Ann: Some people decided to have a bathtub race to celebrate Canada's 100th birthday.

Teacher: Why do they now hold one every year?

Joe: Because the first one was so popular.

Teacher: Right! Why do you think it's necessary to have escort boats? (Pause) Ida, can you tell us?

Ida: In case of trouble.

Teacher: Can you explain what you mean?

Ida: If the racers run into trouble, the people in the escort boats can help them.

Teacher: Can you give us an example?

Ida: Some bathtubs might sink. Then the racers would be picked up by the escorts.

Teacher: Very good!

Teacher: Why do you think famous people like the Queen would come to see the race?

Sally: She would enjoy the race.

Teacher: Right! Can someone give another reason?

Maisie: She probably hadn't seen any race like it before.

Teacher: Very good!

Fundamental Skill Development:

Recalling and Inferring Cause and Effect Relationships:

Through discussion, have the class decide the "cause" or "effect" in each of the following:

1. Kelly Martin's first racing bathtub was made of fibreglass because _____.
2. Bathtubbers like to race because _____.
3. Because the racers get so stiff, _____.
4. Because it was windy one year, _____.
5. The Dorman family of Nanaimo are famous bathtubbers because _____.