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Reading recovery: An orchestration of literacy for the "at risk" first grader

Jean Campbell Fenn

READING RECOVERY

AN ORCHESTRATION OF LITERACY

FOR THE "AT-RISK" FIRST GRADER

A Project

Presented to the

Faculty of

California State University,

San Bernardino

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Arts

In

Education: Reading

By

Jean Campbell Fenn
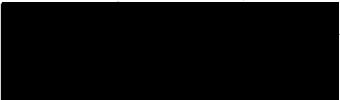
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Approved by:

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ABSTRACT

Reading Recovery is a relatively new program in

California as it was only introduced in 1991-1992 school

year. Its growth in the last four years has been gratifying,

but still there are many who do not know what Reading

Recovery is and how it is different from the other programs

that have been used to help children who are at risk. A brief

history of reading instruction gives background information

on how Reading Recovery was developed and how it is unique.

Additionally, an overview of daily lessons for children and

training for Reading Recovery teachers is explored. By

design, Reading Recovery fits into an educational system and

is meant to be something that children get in addition to

their classroom learning. Each player in the educational

system can contribute a part in the success of this program.

For this reason, this media project was created. It is hoped

that this video can be used to inform teachers,

administrators, policy makers, school boards, and parents

about what Reading Recovery is and how it can help low

progress children catch up to their peers and become

independent readers.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Introduction

When the United States determined that a free education

was the right of every citizen, educating the masses became a

goal that brought with it many challenges. One of the great

challenges was how to help those children who had a difficult

time learning how to read and write. Historically there has

been much debate about reading instruction, what type of

intervention should be provided for those who fall behind,

and when this intervention should be implemented (Harris,

A.J., & Sipay, E. R., 1972). In recent years some of the

past interventions have come under considerable scrutiny by

scholars and teachers (McGill-Franzen, A., & Allington, R.,

1991; Lyons, C. 1988, & 1991; Slavin, R., Karweit, N., &

Wasik, B., 1991). With this dissatisfaction came a search

for programs that turned the failure cycle around and helped

children who were struggling to become literate. One of the

most successful interventions found for literacy was the

Reading Recovery (Allington, R., 1992; Clay, M., 1985 & 1990;

Pinnell, G.S., 1989, 1990 & 1991). This program was

developed in New Zealand by Marie Clay and her associates.

In the 1984-85 school year Reading Recovery was piloted in

Ohio to determine its efficacy in the United States. It

proved to be very successful and the National Diffusion

Network chose the Reading Recovery Program as an exemplary

program worthy of consideration by other states for

implementation (Groom, J., McCarrier, A., Herrick, S., & Nilges, W. 1992). During the 1991-92 school year Reading Recovery was introduced to California schools. While many Reading Recovery teachers and teacher leaders have been trained in California during the last four years, Reading Recovery is still quite new, and many schools are looking for information about Reading Recovery and how it fits into a school setting. It is for this reason that a video presentation about Reading Recovery and how it can help schools orchestrate literacy instruction for "at risk" first grade children was deemed to be valuable.

In order to provide the proper setting in which Reading Recovery was born, the first section will deal with the historical views of reading instruction and past and present interventions. Second, an overview of the history of Reading Recovery and the components of the Reading Recovery lesson will be discussed. As Reading Recovery is meant to be "something extra", the importance of the strong support of the whole educational community will be examined in the third section, and finally, the need for a media presentation and a brief discussion about why video was chosen will be examined in the last section.

Through the use of this video it is hoped that the value of Reading Recovery as an important part of every school's literacy program will become apparent. It is also hoped that

through this media production the complexity of the reading process will be demonstrated. Additionally, the need for having specially trained Reading Recovery teachers who make knowledgeable moment by moment decisions as they teach each child is vital to the orchestration of literacy for all children.

Historical Views of Reading Instruction

Over the years the proverbial pendulum has swung many times in reading education. Before the invention of the printing press, learning the alphabet forwards and backwards was the first and most important step in learning to read and write. Relatively few people learned to read (Huey, 1908). Reading instruction meant years of recitations in alphabet names and sound combinations before words and sentences were attempted. With the invention of the printing press came the need for universal letter formation and sound representation. Sounds in language continued to change, but the letters representing the sounds did not (Mathews, 1966). Because of this mismatch between letters and sounds, reading became harder. By the early part of the twentieth century "Scientific" basal readers with detailed teacher manuals and controlled vocabularies promised even the poorest teacher that if the methods were followed rigorously that all would learn to read. The pendulum continued to swing and with each swing a new educational philosophy was embraced. Sometimes

phonics based instruction was emphasized and then other times whole words were emphasized, and more receintly the whole language movement emphasized getting meaning while reading as being the most important aspect of reading. Many children learned to read with each philosophical change, but always there were those who did not. The reading approach used was not global enough to teach children everything they needed to be successful readers and writers. Research on reading methods started to focus on the "at risk" student and many methods were tried in an attempt to decrease the number of children who did not learn to read and write (Mathews, 1966). One method that has turned failure into success for these "at risk" students is Reading Recovery.

Reading Recovery

Marie Clay, a noted educational psychologist from New Zealand, along with the help of many teachers and research assistances developed for these "at risk" first graders the Reading Recovery Program that gives them a second chance early in their education to catch up to their peers. She developed Reading Recovery based on the belief that most "at risk" students can learn to read, if given the correct instruction. Clay began to look at what good readers do that makes them successful and then looked to see if these strategies could be taught to "at risk" students. This program was designed as an early intervention and not a

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remediation. Children receive one-to-one tutoring in daily thirty minute lessons that are designed to accelerate learning while engaging children in meaningful reading and writing activities. Reading Recovery teachers are taught to observe children carefully as they read and write to see what the child knows and what they might be attempting to learn. With these observations the teacher then makes on the spot decisions about what to draw the child's attention to. These decisions made by the teacher are critical and can either slow the learning process down or help the child to accelerate. Clay (1990) states, "At all levels the magic is not in the teaching procedures; it is in the decision-making on individual programming made by well trained professional staff."

An example of Reading Recovery success was seen during the first year of implementation of Reading Recovery in Ohio, where 85% of those who entered the program were successfully discontinued and remained at average of their class or better for the next two years (Pinnell, 1991).

Framework of a Reading Recovery Lesson

Because Reading Recovery teachers are taught to build on what the child knows it is vitally important for the teacher to know what the child can do independently and what strengths each child has. Reading Recovery teachers are trained to observe carefully, record, and chart children's

behaviors in order to make educational decisions about each student that is selected for in the program. After administering the Observational Survey (a six part task observation) the Reading Recovery teacher spends ten days observing and solidifying her understanding of the child's knowledge base by exploring and reinforcing what the child can do indepentently in reading and writing. This time is called "roaming the around known" (Clay, 1988, Pinnell, 1989).

After roaming the known the regular lessons begin. Each lesson consists of rereading familiar books, taking a running record, letter and word study, composing and writing a "story", cut up sentence, and introduction and reading of a new book. Armed with the knowledge of the child and extensive training on how children learn to read, the Reading Recovery teacher is able to make moment by moment decisions that make this intervention very powerful (Pinnell, 1989).

Educational Setting and Reading Recovery

There are many segments of the educational community that need to work in concert when implementing the Readng Recovery Program. Reading Recovery is embedded in an educational community where the State Department of Education, universities, school districts, local school boards, principals, Reading Recovery teachers, classroom teachers, parents, and students must willingly and diligently

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work together with the same focus. Each person is vitally important. Reading Recovery is not a packaged program that can be bought and easily implemented in a school. It requires that the whole educational community work together harmoniously and it involves a great deal of hard work on the part of everyone involved. When Reading Recovery is properly implemented into an educational system, positive results are experienced by all children served regardless of sex, economic factors, demographic regions or countries (Pinnell,1991). Most importantly, children who were once "slipping through the cracks" are now becoming literate.

Need for Media Presentation

Because Reading Recovery needs to be understood by professional educators, as well as people not as directly involved with educational matters, a video was found to be the most user friendly way to show how the complexities of the Reading Recovery Program come together, with each player having a part in the whole picture and all working together to make literacy a possibility for first grade children who are found to be at risk. This medium has been chosen because it facilitates the dissemination of information about Reading Recovery. Once the video has been presented it becomes a shared experience and opens the door for further discussion with a shared reference point.

It is hoped that through the medium of video the
information about Reading Recovery might be effectively
shared with people interested in being involved in its
implementation. With a background knowledge of Reading
Recovery and how a Reading Recovery lesson is taught, it is
hoped that this video will become the catalyst for many
discussions and the means for illustrating how instruction is
accelerated for the at risk child. Additionally,it is hoped
that all who view this media presentation will more fully
understand their own role in the area of literacy and how
Reading Recovery fits into the educational setting. The
final goal of this video presentation is to motivate all who
will be involved in implementing Reading Recovery to act in
concert to assure that materials, resources, time, and value
are provided to assure that of Reading Recovery is available
to those who so desperately need it.

Philosophy of Reading

Reading is a very complex activity that involves the use
of strategies, problem solving,and construction of meaning.
The reader must interact with the text and the printed
symbols to find the message that the author intended.
However, the understandings each individual acquires are
colored by their background experience and their knowledge of
the world.

There are three cueing systems that readers draw upon while reading: one is semantic information or the meaning of the text, another is syntactic information or the rules that language follows, and the third is graphophonic information that involves letters and the sounds they make. Good readers use all three sources of information and a reitoire of strategies to help determine the meaning from the print on the page. These cue sources and strategies have become so habituated that a good reader is hardly ever conscious of their use. Good readers have thousands of words that are recognized by sight, yet they do not read word by word. Because of their knowledge of how sentences are put together they can read phrases at a glance rather than words. As long as meaning is being made, good readers seldom slow down their reading, but when meaning is lost good readers use many strategies to get meaning such as rereading, slowing down, reading on, and questioning what the author's intent may have been.

Poor readers have few strategies to fall back on. Many poor readers view reading as decoding the words on the page, and they have little concern for meaning. Their main strategy may be "sounding the word out." Or perhaps a poor reader will rely heavily on what the story is suppose to mean and will simply retell the story in their own words with little regard for the print on the page.

As reading is a complex activity, having only one or two strategies to help problem solve text can hinder one's ability to read and comprehend what was read. Learning these skills in isolation seldom helps a poor reader. Poor readers need the gentle guidance of a more knowledgeable reader to help them to discover and incorporate the use of these strategies while they are in the process of reading and writing. Writing becomes important to a reader as it helps them to understand the conventions of print as they, the author, try to construct meaning on the page. While reading and writing, poor readers can be helped to increase their strategy base and the use of multiple cue sources in an orchestrated way to gain meaning from print.

By teaching children to read and write while they are in the process of reading and writing helps them to make connections and use problem-solving skills and strategies that might not be learned in other ways. Those children who have wrong notions of what reading and writing are can be guided to become strategic readers and writers. With a focus on teaching children to problem-solve all children (with very few exceptions) can be taught to read.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

Helping "at risk" children become literate is no small

challenge. It has been the concern of educators ever since

the invention of the printing press. With that invention,

education of the masses became not only a possibility but

also a necessity. Many types of interventions have been

tried in the past, each experiencing some success. However,

in recent years Reading Recovery has been introduced to the

United States and more recently to California and it has

proven to be very successful. With very few exceptions,

children who were once thought of being at risk of not

learning to read or write are now becoming literate.

As newspapers and other media sources publish the

failings of the California school system, parents, teachers,

administrators, and politicians are searching for ways to

help these needy children. Reading Recovery has been so

successful, that all those concerned with literacy need to be

informed of its potential for helping children to experience

accelerated growth in reading and writing. A media

presentation that could help to inform and invite all

concerned with literacy education to study Reading Recovery

and its potential for helping children was found to be

needed.

Media presentations require much preparation, especially when education and information are the objectives. For every minute of the presentation there are hours of research and planning that must take place. In the review of the related literature there are four main sections. Each section represents some of the research and planning that have preceded this production. The first section sets the historical background for the conditions in which Reading Recovery was born. The second section covers what Reading Recovery is and the research and educational setting in which it was developed. In the the third section a brief review of the Reading Recovery lesson is given. Section four explores the need for the entire educational community to work together to help Reading Recovery to become successfully implemented. The final section contains information on video making and some advantages video productions have. Because making a video and all the technical aspects of video making are of such a different nature, the research concerning this aspect of this project will be presented in Appendix A.

"A picture is worth a thousand words" is a trite and somewhat over-used saying. However, in producing a video, it is vitally important to have taken the time to do the research so that the visual information pictured will give the message intended. Children who are "at risk" need to be helped, and Reading Recovery is a very successful and

powerful way to give children the gift of literacy.

Through this media presentation an overview of the Reading

Recovery program will be given and a greater understanding of

how this program orchestrates literacy for the "at risk"

first grader.

Historical Overview

With the invention of the phonetic alphabet came

opportunities to learn to read. Until that time all writing

had been done with ptures and almost anyone could understand

the messages. The symbols represented and often looked like

a real object, and the words in between the pictures were

added by the reader. When symbols were created to represent

sounds and not objects, being able to match the symbol to

sound became very important. The alphabet was so important

that many ways were devised to help the learner remember it.

One wealthy man, whose child had great difficulty remembering

the alphabet, named each one of his slaves a letter in the

alphabet. With this new alphabetic principle reading and

writing had both new possibilities and more difficulties at

the same time. Before the invention of the printing press

only the rich and the clergy had access to books and

instruction in reading and writing. Reading lessons

consisted of hours of alphabet study progressing to

syllables, words, phrases, sentences, paragraphs, and finally

whole books. (Huey, 1908).

With the invention of the printing press new challenges were added to the problem of how to teach reading. The letters became stereotyped and attempts at consistent spellings became necessary. As more printed material became available more people wanted and needed to learn to read. Language continued to change but the letters and the sounds they stood for remained the same. This mismatch between the spellings and the sounds made the alphabetic principle of matching sounds to letters more difficult. However, teaching the alphabet and syllables before teaching words and sentences remained the predominant way to teach reading, with a few exceptions, until the early 1800's. People learned to read for one main purpose, to be able to read the <u>Bible</u>. There was little if any consideration of the child and how they learned (Mathews, 1966).

In the early 1800's educators started to look at the way children learn "naturally". Some educators concluded that children learn naturally in wholes, so children would learn to read "naturally" if they started with a whole book, sentence, or word and then examined the parts. For some the "whole" that was easiest to handle was the word. This was how the "word method" for teaching reading evolved. The "word method" was used in many ways. Some teachers advocated teaching many words by sight before ever attempting any analysis of the word, while others taught only a few words

and immediately analyzed them into sounds and used words as a way to learn the alphabet. The "word method" was criticized because children could only read familiar material and when they encountered new material, they could not read it nor did they have any way to problem solve on text.

A strong movement to teach phonics was started about the same time as the "word method". Phonics was different than the alphabetic method in that as the sounds and symbols were learned they were immediately used to make words and then sentences. Most strict phonetics methods were soon modified or dropped as it was "hard on the eyes and required unnatural close inspection of each letter"(Huey, 1908). Despite the problems, phonics became an important part of reading instruction.

Reading instruction in the United States became even more difficult as large populations of immigrants arrived during the industrial revolution. Most educators agreed that some change was necessary in education, but there were many different ways to facilitate that change. Shannon (1990) has identified the humanists, child-centered advocates, scientific managers, and social reconstructionists as four main interest groups in the Untied States that have continued in their struggle for dominance in the field of reading education up to the present time. The humanists believe that while some change is needed, the basics need to

be taught and all education should be driven by college requirements. Proponents of the child-centered philosophy believe that the science of children's nature needs to guide curriculum. Children's natural interests and children's need to be actively involved in their learning should be the first consideration in curriculum. Reading in wholes and then look at parts is advocated; and, writing for socially motivated reasons, such as journals and letters, becomes the reason for penmanship. Scientific managers use science in a much different way from the child-centered advocates. Shannon (1990, 10) states, "Rather than follow the natural development of children, scientific managers sought to use exact measurement and precise standards to determine the most efficient ways to intervene in that development in order to train children to become useful citizens." It was out of this last philosophy that the basal reader developed with its "scientific" teacher's manual containing all the methods and materials necessary to take children along a fixed sequence of texts and skills. Social reconstructionists are less clear about what methods should be used, but are more concerned about how schooling should be used. They view school as the primary vehicle for social change. Waiting for nature to take its course and managing scientifically what a child learns are viewed as ways to perpetuate the inequalities of society.

Since the 1920's the scientific managers have dominated educational philosophy. Basal readers and accompanying teacher's manuals are viewed by many as *the* way to teach reading. However, each of the other philosophies influenced the basals in ways that made them more acceptable. The basals included some classic literature that pleased the humanist, the interests and levels of development of children came from the child-centered philosophy, and in recent years, care has been taken to make sure social problems are addressed, which gives at least lip service to the social reconstructionists (Shannon, 1990).

Despite various techniques and methods based on various philosophic underpinnings about how to teach reading and how children learn to read, there were still many children who did not learn how to read. Each philosophy had its problems and strengths. During World War I, it was found that a large percentage of the soldiers were not able to read. The child-centered philosophy which had the largest piece of the educational pie at that time, was condemned as not being successful. When World War II erupted, once again the need to enlist large numbers of soldiers pointed out the weakness of the scientific manager programs, which had come into favor. Nearly half the the solders could not fill out the paperwork necessary to enlist in the military (Harris, 1972). It was then that research into the reasons that children did

not learn to read became the focus of many educators.

Programs to help children learn to read became popular.

Retention and remediation were the most popular methods used

to help "at risk" students, and are still widely used today.

In recent years, research has shown that retention and

remediation are ineffective ways to deal with children having

trouble learning in school (McGill-Frunzen & Allington,

1991). Retention is used because of the belief that the

child needs to mature and so needs an extra year to catch up

(Pinnell, 1991). Numerous studies have found that retention

may have some short term benefits, but that the negative

effects are far worse than the positive (Mc Gill-Frunzen &

Allington 1991; Pinnell, 1989). In addition to the problems

that retention presents for the students, it is also very

costly. It costs between $3,000 and $6,000 dollars to retain

a student for one year, depending on the state allocation per

pupil; and, very often retention does not make school better,

it just makes it longer (Pinnell, 1991).

Remediation, while not as costly, is usually not

available for children until after first grade. Although

children do show progress in these remedial classes, it is

usually a case of too little too late. It rarely

accelerates literacy development. Once children are placed

in a remedial class, they often remain there for the

remainder of their school years (McGill-Franzen & Allington,

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1990). Pinnell (1989) argues that in most remedial classes, instruction is slowed down, and so while gains are made, children seldom catch up to their peers. Lyons (1991) contends that because of the instruction that children receive in their kindergarten and remedial classes, many children become "instructionally disabled." Many kindergarten teachers over-emphasize letters and sounds in the belief that these must be known before one can learn to read. According to Pinnell (1989),

> ...research suggests that poor readers,
>
> although not different as learners from those
>
> perceived to be good readers, may be learning
>
> different things than good readers from
>
> classroom instruction. They may be attending
>
> to and using a narrow range of strategies and
>
> applying them in narrow ways (Pinnell, 1989,
>
> 165).

Many poor readers try to "sound out" every word and do not notice that the words they are reading do not make sense (Pinnell, 1989). Lyons (1991) observed that many children labeled Learning Disabled (LD) tended to over-rely on visual/auditory cues, and other at risk students relied more on meaning and structure cues. When LD students were placed in remedial situations many times they were given more isolated skill study of the letter/sound component of reading

and, therefore, the very thing that caused the problem was being reinforced. For this reason Lyons (1991) argues that children are learning to be learning disabled. Slavin, Karweit, and Wasik (1991) reviewed the literature on early interventions and suggest that reduced class size, use of instructional aides, extended-day for kindergartners, preschool for four-year old children, and transitional first grades or developmental kindergartens, and IBM's Writing to Read program were of little to help for at risk children. Because retention, remediation and the other early interventions had only marginal success rates, the questions became "What does work? How do we help these children who are at risk of not learning to read?" In the 1960's, Marie Clay, an educational psychologist, began a search for an answer to this question. Clay's studies of remedial programs indicated that a majority of students who received remediation never left remediation and developed dependency behaviors that hampered further growth (Deford, 1990). In an attempt to change this pattern Clay (1991) chose to look at what good readers do that make them successful, rather than dwelling on what the poor readers were lacking. After ten years of research, Clay and a group of advocates for literacy (most of whom were experienced teachers) set out to determine if the things that they saw good readers doing could be taught to poor readers. Clay and her colleagues started

working on a one-to-one basis with at risk children. They

examined instruction that had been successful, and taught

demonstration lessons for their peers to observe and critique

behind a one-way glass. They observed many lessons, kept the

best things and discarded many techniques which they felt

were counterproductive. Reading Recovery emerged and was

developed for the at risk student out of this research (Clay,

1991)

Reading Recovery

Reading Recovery is an early intervention and not

remediation (Boehnlein, 1987). It is designed to fit into

the educational setting after the first year of instruction,

which in the United States is usually kindergarten. In this

way the Reading Recovery teacher can see what the child has

been able to learn in the school environment. This timing is

early enough in the child's schooling that she has not

internalized feelings of failure nor learned too many non-

productive behaviors which have to be changed (Lyons, 1993).

Reading Recovery is created for the lowest twenty percent of

children in first grade who are found to be in danger of not

learning to read. Research has shown the between 10-20% of

our first grade children are at risk of not learning to read;

however, factors in school populations may make the

percentages smaller or larger at any particular site

(Gaffney, 1991). No child is excluded from Reading Recovery

because of ethnicity, socioeconomic status, language achievements, emotional problems, physical problems, or intelligence (Clay, 1990). Clay (1991, 68) states,

> Schools have created policies which exclude unready children from opportunities to learn to be ready. Sometimes they are found to be unready to attend school; sometimes they are retained in a class where they did not learn in the hope that the second time around something surprising will happen. Schools demand from the child performances which the school itself should be developing. It is not some ripening process which will eventually prepare the child but opportunities to learn through expert-novice interaction.

Clay (1991, 274) asserts her feelings about teaching and learners when she speaks about children as they enter school. She states,

> ...he is where he is and can be no place else.
>
> ...My program must go to where he is and take him somewhere else. If my program can take different Johnnie's by different paths to similar outcomes then I may be addressing individual differences and cultural differences within the abstracted theoretical research descriptions of progressions in the literature.

Reading Recovery is designed to help students learn

beginning with what they already know, and accelerating that

learning by following different paths to assist him to

discover and notice things that might have been neglected.

Selection of students for Reading Recovery is

accomplished through classroom teacher recommendations and

from the results of the Observation Survey (1993), a series

of "tasks", which help teachers observe and select children

that are most in need of the Reading Recovery Program.

Pinnell states, (Pinnell, 1989, 165) the survey "is a

systematic way to begin taking a look at the children who

seem to be having difficulty." The Observational Survey has

six sub-components: 1) Letter Identification, 2) Word Test,

3) Concepts About Print, 4) Writing Vocabulary, 5) Hearing

and Recording Sounds in Words, 6) Taking Running Record.

Children's knowledge of letters, words, and print are

assessed in the first three tasks. The child is then observed

as they write all the words they know independently in ten

minutes. During the fifth task the teacher dictates a

sentence slowly as the child writes it; she observes and

records what sounds the child attended to and what symbols

were written for the sounds. The last task involves reading

a series of short books starting with the very easy levels

and gradually working up the levels until it is determined to be too hard for the child to read independently. Each sub-component of the <u>Observational Survey</u> is then scored and children who show the greatest need in the most areas are placed in the Reading Recovery Program. One teacher generally works individually with four children and spends the other half of the day in other teaching assignments (Pinnell, 1989). Once children have been selected, the Reading Recovery teacher then begins having daily one-to-one thirty minute lessons (Clay, 1989). Lessons begin with what the child knows and gradually lifts him into more difficult materials (Hill & Hale, 1991). This program is meant to be supplemental and does not take the place of good classroom instruction (Clay, 1989; Pinnell, Fried & Estice, 1990).

Many children who are found to be at risk after one year of instruction in a regular classroom setting are treated as if they are slow learners or handicapped in some way and thus, instruction is slowed down for them. where children were at the end of their first year of instruction tended to be where they were one and two years later (Clay, 1990). Slavin (1991) and Allington (1990) report similar findings here in the United States. Clay surmised that this trajectory of growth was not satisfactory and that the

trajectory of the successful students was what the lowest

children needed to duplicate. Teachers could identify the

children that were at risk of not learning how to read, but

they found these children had problems that they did not know

how to deal with.

In contrast, Reading Recovery is an accelerated program

that helps children "catch up" to their peers (Pinnell,

1989). Children are not pushed, but in daily thirty minute

lessons they are helped, by specially trained teachers, to

use what they know to get to what they don't know. They are

daily engaged in meaningful reading and writing activities

(Pinnell, 1990). Reading Recovery teachers help at risk

children to do what many consider to be farfetched: they

enable the lowest achievers to make accelerated and

continuous progress (Pinnell, 1990).

Reading Recovery is also a relatively short

intervention; it is designed to take about twelve to twenty

weeks. While the daily lessons have the same overall

structure, they allow the teacher to observe and adapt

instruction and reading materials to deliver a specially

designed lesson to each student. As Clay (1990, 2) says,

"The Reading Recovery program is a vehicle or a tool for

delivering different programs to different children ." When

a school reaches every child who needs Reading Recovery, it

then has "full implementation" of the program (Gaffney, 1991). In other words, the lowest children have been lifted to the average or better than average range of the class. Long term studies have shown that these students have stayed at average or better than average for the next two years of instruction and continue to make progress (Pinnell, 1989). Children are graduated or "discontinued" from the program when assessment is done by an impartial Reading Recovery teacher and it is determined that the child can perform in a regular class with a "not noticing" teacher and remain successful (Clay, 1990).

One of the basic premises of Reading Recovery is that children learn best to read and write while they are in the process of reading and writing. Clay (1988) indicates that too often we look for simple answers to complex questions. Reading and writing are complex tasks and have many sub-components, but the best way to learn about language use, visual cues, or phonological cues, or to gain knowledge about print is while in the process of using them. Children must learn to use many strategies in flexible ways because there is simply no easy way to teach complex behaviors such as reading and writing (Clay, 1990, Opitz, 1991). Another basic tenet of Reading Recovery is that, with very few exceptions, everyone can learn how to read and write. Clay (1990) compares it to getting all the children to a train

station and getting almost everyone on the literacy train.
All children can and should be given every opportunity to
become successful readers and writers. This leads into the
third tenet of Reading Recovery: Reading and writing are
seen as reciprocal processes. What is learned in reading can
help in writing and vice versa (Clay,1990, Opitz, 1991). A
fourth tenet of Reading Recovery is that children are active,
constructive learners, not empty vessels waiting for a
teacher to pour knowledge into their empty heads (Pinnell,
1989, Clay, 1990). This means that Reading Recovery teachers
must learn to observe and build on the strengths a child
already possesses (Clay, 1990, Pinnell, 1989). Teachers must
help the children use what they know to get to what they do
not know (Pinnell, 1990). Clay (1990, 12) states:

> I think teaching is about the paths to
> outcomes even when society is obsessed with
> measuring only the outcomes. I see the
> child's correct response conveying little
> information to the teacher about how next to
> interact with the child, while the child's
> approximations during risk-taking provide the
> teacher with information she can use in
> teaching. I suspect that the development of
> innovations is hampered by too early a demand
> for a significant difference in the outcomes,

with too little attention to the paths taken

to those outcomes.

A fifth tenet of Reading Recovery is grounded in the belief that reading is a meaning-getting process and children need to be actively searching for that meaning. Another basic assumption of Reading Recovery is what successful students learn is what the less successful child needs to learn. It is also assumed that these successful strategies can and should be taught. Finally, it is important that these things be taught early and in an intense way, before less successful habits become fossilized and much harder to change and feelings of failure make future learning even more difficult (Lyons, 1993).

The Reading Recovery Lesson

Once the children have been selected daily sessions begin. Marie Clay (1985) insists that a period of two weeks be spent in what she calls "roaming the known". This is a period where the Reading Recovery teacher is freed from teaching and is able to make further observations and learns to work with what that child knows. During this ten day period no formal teaching takes place, but many little books are introduced, and the child and teacher work in a collaborative way to write messages and little "books" using the natural language of the child or imitating the language pattern of one of the little books recently introduced. A

small segment of the roaming time is spent in letter recognition where letters recognized by the child are played with in order to reinforce what the child knows. During "the roaming around the known" sessions the teacher learns much more about the student than what was unveiled during the Observational Survey. Students learn to take risks and to try to problem solve while reading text. They also learn that they can be successful as readers. Most importantly, rapport between the student and teacher is set and the tone of future lessons is established (Clay, 1993, Pinnell, 1989)

After the two weeks of "roaming around the known" both teacher and student are ready to begin regular lessons, which have the same framework each day within which the Reading Recovery teacher is guided by each child's needs. Knowing those individual needs allows the teacher to tailor each lesson to the child; the lesson becomes the vehicle by which different paths are traveled in order to achieve the same goal (Clay, 1991). The teacher and child work together in a carefully orchestrated way. The specially trained teacher observes and follows skillfully what the child does. The child's learning becomes accelerated not because the teacher pushes, but because the carefully observant teacher can and must composes a lesson just for that child and his needs at that particular moment. With hundreds of little books to choose from the teacher finds the one that best suits that

child and helps him to move slowly when necessary and leap when ever it is possible.

The framework for Reading Recovery lessons is as follows:

1. _Familiar reading_. At the beginning of each lesson the child re-reads familiar books that were introduced in past lessons.

2. _Running Record_. Yesterday's new book is read independently while the teacher takes a running record of the child's reading. After the reading, one or two teaching points are addressed.

3. _Working with letters and words_. Many children are just beginning to learn about letters and this brief period (one to three minutes) is used to develop letter knowledge using magnetic letters and other tactile and visual cues. Later this time is used to extend the child's knowledge about how words work by teaching her to construct new words from words already familiar to her.

4. _Writing a "story"_. Each day the child first composes then writes a brief story, usually consisting of one or two sentences. The child is encouraged to write what they can independently and the teacher assists her with the things not known.

5. _Cut-up sentence_. The child's "story" is written on a paper strip and cut up while she re-reads the sentence.

Once cut up, the child re-constructs the sentence.

　　6.　<u>Reading a new book</u>.　A specially selected book that provides just the right challenge to foster new learning is introduced as the teacher engages the child in a conversation about the pictures and meaning of the book.　While emphasis is on meaning, a few key words may be located by first encouraging the student to predict what the word might start with and then locating it on the page.　This book will be used the next day in the running record portion of the lesson (Pinnell, 1989; Pinnell, 1990).

　　This is a very brief overview of the daily lesson.　A more detailed description of each component of the lesson follows and is necessary in order to understand the complexity of the lessons and the interaction between the teacher and the student.　It is the orchestration of the lesson that empowers the student and provides a way for him to become an independent reader who gets better every time he reads.

　　<u>Familiar Reading</u>

　　For many children at risk of reading failure, the literacy events experienced in classrooms are confusing; what they in the beginning with is how to hold a book, how written language works, and how book language is different than spoken language (Deford, 1990).　Familiar reading gives the at risk child the necessary literacy experiences that helped

the more successful student. Familiar reading is much like

the parent/child lap stories where student and teachers have

relatively informal conversations about books that been read

numerous times. Clay (1991, 3) states, "Effective teaching

is an interaction and a major part of that interaction is

outside of the teacher's control." These conversations,

while informal, are guided by a highly trained teacher who

has been taught to observe and encourage reading behaviors

that will empower the student and help them to become

independent readers. Vygotsky indicated that all higher

mental functions originate as actual relations between people

and then later become internalized on an individual level

(Vygotsky, 1993). These conversations during familiar

reading are extremely important for the at risk student.

Each child moves through his own sequence of leveled

books and has his own selection of books that have been read

during previous lessons. Pinnell (1993, 285) emphasizes the

importance of these little books. She states, "During those

lessons, students read many small books, sometimes called

transition texts because they form a bridge to

instructionally-appropriate material and children's

literature." These little books become a vital link between

the early attempts at reading and the more difficult reading

that will come in texts and children's literature. In

addition, these books have satisfying plots or story lines so

that many of these books become like old friends and are enjoyed over and over again (Pinnell, 1990).

Familiar reading gives the child opportunities for fast fluent reading. During these re-readings the child does not have to work as hard on problem-solving so they are freed up to notice new things, work on strategies, and develop fluent and phrased reading (Pinnell, 1990). Allington (1991) describes a typical scenario for the at risk learner who is found to be less than fluent. Many teachers consider lack of fluent reading to be symptomatic of poor reading and this lack of fluency is caused by not having good word recognition skills and/or word analysis skills. Therefore, the teacher believes, what the child needs is further instruction in letters, sounds and words in isolation. Allington suggests that lack of fluent reading may suggest that the child does not understand that reading is a meaning-getting process and that reading is supposed to make sense. Written language lacks the color, tones, and phrasing that oral language has, and fast fluent reading helps to put those elements of oral speech back into written language. Good readers are given more opportunity to read and are encouraged more by teachers to be fluent while reading. Teachers are more likely to model fluent reading to the good readers and give less successful students worksheets and flash cards to build fluency. Allington argues that fluency can and should be

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taught through modeling and through repeated readings of easy

books. He noted that groups of children who were encouraged

to develop fluent reading by re-reading familiar texts showed

better progress than students who were taught rapid word

recognition (Allington, 1991).

Familiar re-reading of books helps children to use all

the strategies and skills they are developing while reading

continuous text. "...Young readers must learn to orchestrate

their knowledge of language, of the world, and of print and

how it works. Our poor readers did not seem to achieve this

orchestration (Pinnell, Fried, & Estice, 1990, 28)." Some

familiar text still provided opportunities for problem

solving. There may be difficult words, unfamiliar book

language, or subtleties of the plot and characters that can

still be discovered by the reader when they are freed from

the burden of close attention to the print on a page. Since

the books read during this time are familiar, this problem

solving can be done "on the run" or in the process of reading

(Pinnell, 1990). Clay (1991, 184) states that repeated

readings of familiar texts helps students to improve in two

ways "firstly, to orchestrate the complex patterns of

responding to print just as the expert musician practices the

things she knows; and secondly, to read those texts with

increasing levels of independence."

Reading Recovery teachers are taught to carefully observe problem solving and to record systematically what they observe so that they know and can take advantage of the discoveries that children are making for themselves as they read (Pinnell, Estice, & Fried, 1990). Askew (1993) noted that with each rereading of familiar texts students tended to self-monitor miscues more often, increase self-correcting behaviors, take more initiative in solving their own problems, and develop more fluent reading.

Through repeated readings the observant teacher can see shifts in a child's use of cueing systems (Pinnell, 1990), defined by Clay as meaning, structure, and visual cues (Clay, 1889). When a child uses meaning as a cue source he listens to what he reads to see if it makes sense. When he uses structural cues his knowledge of how language works and how it is supposed to sound helps him notice if the words he says sound right. When using visual cues, letter/sound relationships, how words look, and word analysis skills help him.. In order for a child to become an independent reader he must be able to use multiple cue sourcesand various strategies in flexible ways. Deford (1991, 85-86) states,

"When readers come to something they don't know,

they have to be able to search for new information,

predict, cross check cueing sources against each

other, and re-read if necessary to build momentum

and reestablish a comprehending pace. And they

must be independent in this activity."

Reading Recovery teachers are taught to prompt children

to monitor their own reading. This self-monitoring promotes

independence, however, even the trained teacher can fall into

the habit of monitoring for the child which slows down

progress and fosters a dependency on the teacher (Estice,

1991).

Teachers can observe the shifts in the use of cues as

the student becomes more familiar with a book. During the

first readings of a book the child often relies on only one

cueing system and uses it in a narrow way, but as he becomes

more familiar with the book, other cueing systems are

incorporated in strategic ways, and he begins to integrate

the use of all three cueing systems unconsiously as he

problem-solves on text. For example, a child might use the

meaning of the story to "read" a book, but neglect to look at

the words he is reading to see if they match his words. Also

with repeated readings new understandings of the characters

and plot can be gained. Soon the language of the book

becomes their own, and linkages between books can be made.

This knowledge can help when new books with similar formats

are encountered. For example, a child who loves and is very

familiar with the book Dear Zoo may notice that Where's Spot?

is also a lift-the-flap book and use he may automatically use

many of the same strategies that are already in place with the familiar book.

Familiar reading is just one part of the Reading Recovery lesson, but it is a very powerful one in that it provides opportunities for additional literacy events, practice in fluent reading, reading practice that promotes shifts in strategy use, and encourages flexibility in the use of cueing systems. Familiar reading gives the Reading Recovery teacher many opportunities to observe, record, and promote strategic reading behaviors. It is here, in the safety of familiar reading, that the fledgling reader tests his wings of independence.

Running Record

At the end of each lesson a new carefully selected book is introduced to the child. After an introduction, matched to the child's current understandings, the student reads the book for the first time as independently as possible. It is this book that is used in the next day's lesson during the running record segment. During this second reading the teacher becomes a neutral observer and records in a type of shorthand all the reading behaviors demonstrated by the child as they are reading independently this relatively new text (Pinnell, 1990). This reading,presents the child with new problem solving opportunities; and the teacher must observe and record what is or is not being attended to in order to

offer the best possible assistance in the child's journey to
independence in reading and writing.

Instead of being able to support the child, the teacher
can only offer limited assistance to the child when a
particularly difficult word or passage is encountered. The
word can be given to the child, or the teacher may encourage
the child to try further by saying, "you try it." When things
become really mixed up the teacher can prompt "try that
again." This prompt usually suggests to the child to go back
and re-read what they just read in order to get the meaning
(Clay, 1989).

While the child is reading, the teacher records
virtually everything the child says or does while in the
process of reading. A series of checks and other types of
shorthand indicate correct reading, miscues, self-
corrections, and re-readings. The miscues include incorrect
words, insertions, and omissions. Other reading behaviors are
recorded such as multiple attempts at the same word, pauses,
and appeals for help (Clay, 1989, Pinnell, 1990). (Appendix
B)

One of the first things a Reading Recovery teacher must
assess after a running record is the appropriateness of the
selection of the new book. If the child's reading is 90% to
95% accurate it was a good book to select. The child was
given just enough of a challenge in the book to keep interest

keen, but not so much of a challenge that the child becomes discouraged (Clay 1989, Pinnell, 1989).

The selection of the new book will be discussed more fully in another section, but it is important to understand how important this selection is. Vygotsky (1993, 60) states, "Instruction is useful when it moves ahead of development. When it does, it impels or wakens a whole series of functions that are in a stage of maturation lying in the zone of proximal development." This zone of proximal development lies just beyond what a child can do or think of independently and is in the realm of what the child can do with a more knowledgeable person, ie., peer, parent, or teacher. Therefore, it is important that the new book falls within this zone where the optimal amount of learning can take place without discouragement becoming a factor. By analyzing the appropriateness of the text the teacher can also be helped in determining what will be the best text for the next day's running record.

When the child has finished reading the new book for the running record, the teacher must then make a quick analysis of the running record and determine by inference what types of strategies are being used. Pinnell (1990) calls this "on the run" decision making by the teacher. The teacher must determine whether encouragement for observed things done right or teaching and encouraging the use of a particular

strategy or set of strategies is the most productive use of this teaching time. It is important to note here that strategies, rather than isolated skills, are emphasized in all lessons in Reading Recovery. A strategy is defined by Clay as an "in the head" process that cannot be directly observed, but by observing reading behaviors the teacher may infer that strategies are being used (Pinnell, 1989). Clay states, "...A strategy cannot be seen, it is some activity 'in the head,' a move directed by the child during reading work to problem-solve a section of text and it belongs to an orchestrated set of strategies needed in literacy activities (Clay, 1991, 3)."

Low progress readers often work with a more limited range of strategies and rely too much on what they can invent from memory without paying enough attention to the visual cues or they look so hard for words they know, or guess words from the beginning letter that they forget that reading is supposed to mean something (Clay & Casden, 1991). Once the teacher has made an on-the-spot decision about what strategies have been used she must then determine what one or two teaching points would be most powerful. Much discussion has been given about correct performance, but Clay (1991) asserts that more can be learned by half-right, half-wrong responses than reinforcing only the correct actions. Teachers must learn to respond to gradual shifts in less than

perfect performance. Strategies such as self-monitoring, cross-checking, searching for cues, and self-corrections are modeled and encouraged by the teacher. Many opportunities for practice are cued by the teacher in an effort to help the child orchestrate a broad range of strategies and information they have at their disposal and use this all in flexible ways.

Taking a running record each day on text that is relatively new helps Reading Recovery teachers observe what the child can do independently and predict more accurately what the child might be working on with his problem solving. These predictions on the part of the teacher will help to drive instruction for the rest of the lesson that day and perhaps the next few lessons. These daily observations helps the teacher to direct the attention of student to thinks that he might have overlooked. With the teachers help the child begins to work on text in strategic ways and his learning is accelorated.

Working With Letters and Words

Working with letters can occur at almost any time during the lesson but the time just after the running record seems best suited for this activity. This is a very brief part of the lesson and no more than one to three minutes of the lesson should be given to this activity (Clay, 1993, Pinnell, 1990). Despite its brevity, this is a very

important part of the lesson. At the beginning of a child's program, this time is used to build letter recognition and word recognition and later it is used in a making and breaking activity, The making and breaking activity is planned by the teacher and based on a known word, which the teacher constructs using magnetic letters. Through analogy the teacher and child explore together how language works and how new words are made using a known word (Clay, 1993). Learning words and letters is not as important as the ability to use known words and letters to check on oneself, to self-monitor, or to get to new words while reading and writing. This is also an important time when children who have been passive about print learn how to learn letters and words (Clay, 1989).

While the time immediately after the running record is the suggested time to do word and letter study, there are many other times during the lesson that are not only appropriate but necessary to make the learning more powerful. During familiar reading and during the first attempt of the new book there may be times when a brief focus on learning a letter and/or word may be beneficial. Once the letter or word work is done, the child can return to the text to use this information while reading text. Returning to the text also reinforces the idea that the purpose of letter and word study is to give the child tools to be able check one's own

reading (Estice, 1991). Once again the Reading Recovery teacher must be able to work in harmony with her student to make sure the most powerful teaching moments for that child at that time have been addressed.

<u>Writing a "Story"</u>

Writing is a very important part of the Reading Recovery lesson. In Clay's view reading and writing are seen as reciprocal processes and it is helpful for the student in the early acquisition stages for reading and writing are taught together. When a child learns something while doing one process, the teacher capitilizes on the reciprocity and helps the child to learn about the other process. In other words when a child learns something about reading, something is also learned about writing (Short, 1990). With the guidence of teachers, children are able to use writing as a resource for reading and vice-versa.

Each day as the student works side by side with the teacher, the child first composes and then co-writes a "story." Often the "story" written by the child uses the language in one of the familiar books which is one way the child makes links from reading to writing (Deford, 1990). These stories usually consist of one or two sentences. However, some students choose to continue the story over the next few days. The writing is done in a book of blank pages and turned sideways. The top page is used to practice

letters and words and the bottom page is used to write the
completed message (Pinnell, 1990).   When children write, the
reading process is slowed down.   Deford (1990, 86) states,

> Children must think about what they want to say,
>
> what they hear and how to represent it, what they
>
> expect to see if they can't hear it and it doesn't
>
> look right, where they are in their message, and
>
> how they can make their message clear to other
>
> readers.

The teachers assist the child as he writes; the teacher
helps the child construct the message.   At first the child
many know only a few beginning or ending sounds and how to
represent them with the letter.   Gradually the child take
overs more and more of the writing task and the teacher
provides less and less assistance, offering the scaffolding
necessary to complete the task (Clay, 1991).

Many important things are learned during writing that
can help the child when reading.   For example, children are
able to examine the details of and print in a situation where
they already know what the message means because the
message is in their own language.   During this process with
the help of the teacher the child can sort out letter-sound
relationships, examine details of written language, search
for information, analyze words, use known information to get
to unknown words or phrases, and check his own work (Pinnell,
1990).

Phonemic awareness is an important part of the writing process that helps children when reading. While writing, the child is encouraged to first say the word slowly in order to hear the sounds in a word. The teacher may need to assist the child by showing her the letter that goes with the sound (Hill & Hale, 1991). In a procedure adapted from Elkoin by Clay (Clay & Casden, 1991), the teacher draws little boxes that representing each sound in selected words and the child is helped to segment sounds and locate their positions in words by pushing markers into each box as he/she says the word slowly. At first the letters are accepted and written in any order they are heard. In later stages the child is encourage to put the sounds in correct sequence. Still later, as the child develops understandings about how words work, the child is given a box for every letter and is invited to write what he would expect to see, not hear, in a word. This helps children learn to think about how words look, as well as how they sound (Pinnell, 1990, Clay, 1993) (See Appendix B).

During writing the child is encouraged to go back and reread the part of the message that he has already written in order to keep meaning and to help him remember what word comes next. When a word is too difficult, the teacher may choose to write it or parts of it for the child. Also, when a highly useful or high frequency word is used, a teacher may choose to have the child practice it several times on the

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practice page in order to make this word one the child knows

independently. This is part of the writing process called

"bringing the word to fluency." Each child's experience with

print is unique and much of what he learns comes from the

teacher's split-second decision making about what teaching

would be most powerful at that time or would have the most

possibility for further linkage to reading or future writing

(Pinnell, 1990). (Appendix B)

As the child works on these self-composed messages in

the daily writing, he builds up phonological awareness and new

problem solving skills which then become available for him to

use while reading (Clay, 1988). This cannot be accomplished

by copying tasks or fill in the blank worksheets because

these kinds of activities keep children from thinking about

meaning and communication. When children are asked to copy

or fill in the blanks, the task becomes filling up the page

with print or finding the correct word to fill in the blank

(Deford, 1990). Clay (1988) reasons that there is no simple

way to teach complex activities such as reading and writing.

It is only by actively searching and working in real reading

and writing activities that these complex strategies can be

learned, practiced, and assimilated. By learning to read and

write at the same time the child has a double opportunity to

develop the independence to be able to learn more every time

one is engaged in reading or writing. Clay calls this a

double chance for "bootstrapping" to occur (Clay, 1988).

Cut-Up Sentence

After the message has been constructed, it is then written by the teacher on a strip of paper and cut up in to phrases or words (according to the child's current abilities) as the child reads the message. The words are then mixed up and the child is asked to reassemble the message.

These cut up sentences are not used for flash cards, but they help to show the child how a writing task becomes a reading task. In the early stages, this cut up message can be used to help the child learn about one-to-one matching of spoken words with written words, directional concepts, and to encourage checking and monitoring behaviors. In later stages, the words can be cut up in appropriate ways to aid in word study. Word endings or beginnings can be cut off the word or words can be cut into syllables in an attempt to emphasize word analysis (Clay, 1993).

Cut up sentences may be then put in an envelope with the sentence written on the outside to be sent home so that the child can reconstruct that days "story". Cut-up sentences can be an important part of the home component of Reading Recovery.

Reading a New Book

In Reading Recovery lessons there are two main goals for reading: One goal is having many opportunities to practice

the orchestration of a wide range of strategies while reading continuous text. This is best done during familiar reading. Secondly, children practice using strategies flexibly as they encounter new texts. This is accomplished during the new book section of the lesson with the teacher acting as a guide who gently encourages the child to perform in ways that might not be possible without her. The teacher is trained to look for the things the child can do, accept and learn from partially correct attempts by the child, and demonstrate and encourage strategic problem solving (Clay, 1993).

Each day a new book is introduced. Success in this part of the lesson depends on the careful selection of a new text, a thorough introduction, adequate support during the first reading, and finally, using questioning techniques during and and after the first reading that help the child to think about what she is doing or could do to problem-solve while reading a new book. This is where the scaffolding provided by the well trained teacher becomes most evident. It is during this first reading of the new book that the child can test the theories of problem solving that are formulating in his or her mind and confirm or dis-confirm their usefulness in new text. Having a teacher sitting near helps to minimize the risk involved and leaves the child free to use these budding strategies on problems in text that are within the realms of the child's ability.

New Book Selection

Picking a new book for each day's lesson is a very
important decision that the Reading Recovery teacher must
make every day. Pinnell, Fried, and Estice (1990, 283)
state: "By selecting appropriate texts and adjusting their
interactions, teachers make it easy for children to use what
they know and behave as readers and writers." Clay (1993)
stresses that the new book needs to be well within the
child's ability and with a minimum of new things for the
child to learn. In addition, the teacher must also make sure
that the book contains opportunities for the child to do some
"reading work" using the strategies that are being formed
each day as the child reads. There is no predetermined list
of books, but the child's needs and abilities provide the
guidelines for the teacher to determine what will be the most
appropriate book for that particular child at that point in
time.

Reading Recovery teachers carefully select the new book
prior to each lesson from a wide variety of little books that
have been meticulously leveled into twenty levels of
ascending difficulty by Reading Recovery teachers and
teacher leaders. The level accorded each book is used as a
guideline of possibilities for the child and the leveling
indicates some approximate areas from which books can
be chosen. Within each level there are many books that may

be easy or hard for the child depending on what things that child controls. The leveled books provide the Reading Recovery teacher a range of book possibilities that a particular child might be successful with. There is no easy formula through which these books are leveled but several factors are considered. For example, levels one to four have few words on a page, the text is usually consistently placed in the same place on the page, illustrations provide high support, and language structure is simple. As books levels increase, more "book language" and more print are on a page and illustrations offer less support (DeFord, Lyons, & Pinnell, 1991). It is important to note that while the number of words on a page may be few, the vocabulary is not controlled. Little books are written with meaning in mind,, and not controlled vocabulary. The language is often much like that of normal speech or literature and provides the beginning reader with clear meaning and common language structure that can be used in predicting words.

New Book Introduction

After careful selection of the new book, the teacher plans an appropriate introduction choosing the information she wants to emphasize and what work will be left for the child. Developing independent readers is the main goal of Reading Recovery, therefore, the new book is not read to the child, but rather, the child learns about the book through

informal conversations with the teacher as they look at each page of the book together. The introduction also may include some deliberate teaching moves (Clay, 1991) which focus on the meaning and the language of the story (Deford, 1990). While looking at the pictures of the whole book the child learns the important ideas, hears new words, and may be asked to locate one or two new words which might pose a particular problem to the child. When the child is asked to locate a new word the teacher asks the child to predict what letter or letters they think that word might begin with and then locate it on the page. Through the introduction the teacher makes sure the child has in his head the ideas and language of the book and they know what the story is about (Clay, 1993). The story is not dismembered but is left in tact so that meaning can guide the child into and through the story (Clay, 1991). Book introductions are meant to enlarge the range of what a child can do on novel text.

Introduction and reading of the new book is strategically placed at the end of the lesson for many reasons. First the child's confidence and fluency have been bolstered by the familiar reading section, knowledge about how to work with words and phonemic awareness have been further developed during the writing portion of the lesson, and a few key teaching points have been emphasized as the lesson has unfolded. It is while all these things are fresh

in the child's mind that a new book is introduced. As the

book introduction and the subsequent first reading are so

critical for the child's growth towards independence, it is

important to understand some of the theory that forms the

basis of what is done during this portion of the lesson.

The Reading Recovery teacher assists the child to read

something that is just beyond his or her control and be

successful. Some of what has been done in the past in

education, such as retention, was based on the theory that we

need to wait for the child to mature before development can

take place. Vygotsky (1990) questioned the theory that

learning must follow the child's developmental levels. He

claimed that for instruction to be meaningful it needed to

lie just beyond what the child could do independently.

Vygotsky called this area of learning the zone of proximal

development. The zone of proximal development lies just

beyond what the child can do alone (i.e. developmental level)

and is in the realm of what the child can do with the help of

a more knowledgeable teacher. With enough practice the

things done with assistance soon become part of what the

child can do alone, and in this way instruction leads

development. When a Reading Recovery teacher introduces a

new book she builds a scaffold for the child to be able to

successfully read a story that is just beyond his ability to

do alone. Vygotsky (1990, 60) adds that the natural outcome

of learning leading development is that the child soon

becomes able "to engage in developmental activity volition-

ally and with conscious awareness rather than merely

spontaneously." In other words the child learns how to learn

and can take charge of his own development.

Because Reading Recovery teachers want children to

become independent readers it, is important that children

orchestrate these newly acquired strategies on novel text.

In this way they become better readers each time they read

and they teach themselves as they read new texts.

Reading Recovery teachers are taught to observe the

child and adjust the book introductions according to the

needs of each child. When children are new to the Reading

Recovery program the book introductions are very supportive

and a lot of information is built into the conversation. As

children progress in learning to read, book introductions

become less explicit as the teacher gradually turns more

control over to the child. When the child is ready to

discontinue the program the child is able to problem solve on

new text without a rich book introduction or the constant

help from the teacher because he has in place the strategies

necessary to read learn by himself. Clay (1991) calls this

the bootstrapping effect. In other words, the child can pull

himself through a new story with out the help of a teacher.

Reading of the New Book

After the book has been introduced the child is encouraged to read the book through for the first time with as little help from the teacher as possible. The teacher must carefully observe the child and give appropriate help along the way. While they are reading a new book, Reading Recovery teachers prompt children encouraging them to improve processing on novel texts or to direct their attention to things overlooked (Clay, 1993). Pinnell (1990, 18) states that, "Teachers want children to monitor and self-correct their own reading and to actively search for and use many kinds of information (for example, background experiences, language knowledge, letter sound correspondence) as they operate on print." Teachers closely observe carefully and encourage the child to develop effective processing strategies for working independently on text (Clay, 1991). Careful observation of the child is critical as the teacher must notice and take advantage of the discoveries children make for themselves while they are engaged in reading and writing (Pinnell, Fried, & Estice, 1990). While letter/sound knowledge is addressed in Reading Recovery, care is taken that children do not come to over rely on this one aspect of the reading process (Deford, 1991). Clay, (1993) suggests that word analysis is much more than letter/sound relationships;it requires readers to look at larger chunks

and work with the problem-solving tactics. The goal of word analysis for readers is to be able to take words apart on the run while reading continuous text. Good readers use this tactic and meaning and structure to pull them through new text; they tend to and use letters and their sounds to confirm or dis-confirm their predictions.

Following the first reading, additional encouragement and sorting out can take place. The teacher may have some things to talk about with the child. Some notable problem-solving might receive praise or perhaps some important information got overlooked. Teachers may wish to attend to one or two teaching points after the first reading. However, getting meaning from this reading is the most important goal. If the child had large amounts of problem solving to do during the first reading and the teacher feels that meaning was lost, a second reading can take place. During this reading the teacher and student read together with the teacher lagging behind slightly where problem solving opportunities lie. With the second reading the teacher makes sure that the meaning and language of the story are understood and are in tact for the child (Clay, 1993).

While many argue that "real reading" only happens when children can read new text without any preparation, children in Reading Recovery are given daily opportunities to develop strategies that will assist them to become independent

readers. Others argue that new vocabulary must be introduced and children need to be given the new phonological information in order to decode the words before a child can read new texts. Clay argues (1991) that this only makes children dependent on the instructional sequence and does little to help children develop the ability to problem solve on the run while reading. It is only through many opportunities to orchestrate and flexibly use the many strategies while reading text that the child can become an effective processor and improve each time she reads. Thus, the child develops a self-improving system or a set of understandings that will help the reader to keep solving problems while reading, even when an adult is not there (Pinnell, 1990). Clay says, (1991, 1) "In the end it is the children who learn to actively integrate their experiences and the parent or teacher is powerless to do more than contribute to this active construction completed by the learner."

Throughout each lesson, a Reading Recovery teacher is observing and taking careful notes of what has transpired during the lesson. The format for lesson plan is basically the same each day: careful selection and planning the introducing of the new book is done ahead and a planned activity is prepared for making and breaking or for letter identification work, however,not much time is spent in preplanned activities. In fact, Clay cautions that too much

planning can interfere with the teacher's responding to the individual needs of the child (Clay, 1991). However, it is important to note that much time is spent each day studying that day's lesson. Lesson plans become a tool for observation in the Reading Recovery lesson. It is a detailed memory of what transpired during that lesson, and it also shows the path of progress for that child (Clay, 1990). Each day the Reading Recovery teacher analyze that day's lesson to help her to think about what the child is learning, what will be a good next step, what to look for as she selects a new book, and what making and breaking activity will build on what the child knows and will lead to more discovery on the child's part. Additionally weekly observations are recorded on the text level graph and the writing vocabulary record. (Appendix B).

While the daily lesson outline seems simple, the power of the Reading Recovery lesson lies more in the relationship between the student and the highly trained Reading Recovery teacher, than in the components of the lesson. All components of the lesson have been carefully researched and are included in the lesson because of their potential to accelerate learning, but Reading Recovery is not a packaged program that requires that the teacher merely follow the outlined steps of the program for success (Gaffney, 1991). Reading Recovery is much more than a teacher following a

lesson plan or doing what the lesson manual says. Teachers
are taught to follow the child, and through careful
observations choose from a range of possibilities which
teaching strategy would be the most powerful for that child
at that particular moment. Reading Recovery teachers give
each child their own unique program. The success of this
program depends on the quality of the teacher decision
making. If the emphasis is put in the wrong area, acceler-
ation will not occur. The gains made by the teacher and
child team are hard won. The children who need this program
are hard to teach. It is with hard work, close observation
of children, and keen awareness of powerful teaching moments
that gains are made. In the end, the battle against
illiteracy is won, one child at a time and their lives will
be enriched for the experience (Pinnell,1989).

Educational Setting and Reading Recovery

Just as reading is a complex activity, helping children
become literate is also a complex activity. There is no
simple answer or three step plan that can fully address all
the elements that must come together to help these at risk
children learn to read and write. Classroom teachers,
administrators, parents, boards of education, universities,
and politicians must all work harmoniously to fully implement
Reading Recovery into a school system. In order to maintain
the quality of the program and assure the success of

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children, Clay has outlined specific conditions for Reading Recovery programs. The North American Reading Recovery Council and the Ohio State University have been instrumental in keeping these high standards here in the United States. For Reading Recovery to be truly successful it must be something the districts and individual schools want, and is not forced upon them. It requires a financial commitment as well as a time commitment, and it demands a year long teacher training given by highly trained teacher leaders, who have undergone a year of graduate work at a univrsity training center. Because of these quality controls, Reading Recovery has been successfully implemented in many different countries and in many different states and school districts through-out the United States with similar favorable results being experienced by children in each new area.

Clay (1989, 1990, 1993.) has made it very clear that Reading Recovery is meant to be something extra and that it is not intended to replace good teaching. Pinnell states (1989,163), "Good teaching in the regular classroom is and must be the first priority for educators; no 'extra' program can compensate for poor teaching and barren classroom environments." In order for all children to have a chance at literacy, Reading Recovery must be backed by an educational system that fosters good teaching and is also looking for early interventions that help children before they fail.

School literacy instruction influences children's concepts of reading, and knowledgeable and sensitive teachers are the key (Pinnell, 1989). Clay (1991, 359) adds, "We are convinced that the Reading Recovery teaching would not work effectively in isolation, but should be part of a team aiming to raise the lower levels of reading achievement for the school." However, when it is determined that an intervention is needed, and that Reading Recovery is the intervention of choice, it is important that teachers volunteer to become trained and are not pushed into this program by a well-meaning administrators or supervisors. Being trained as a Reading Recovery teacher requires substantial commitment, effort and time. This is a decision that must be fully supported by the administration and wanted by the teacher. Clay feels so strongly about this that she has said that schools that do not have this collaborative team approach should not be allowed in the program (Clay, 1991).

Additionally, it is important to included parents in this collaborative team. Children who have support from parents have the knowledge that their parents support and value what they are doing in Reading Recovery. Reading Recovery teachers can model for parents how to respond to less-than-perfect reading, give examples of a few key words for parents to use in interacting with their child. With the

teacher and the parent working together, a child's progress can be enhanced.

A collaborative team model becomes apparent when a state or school district wishes to enhance the existing system of literacy education with Reading Recovery because there are such rigorous requirements for teacher training and continuing contact that it is by nature, an expensive program. However, when compared with the cost of past interventions, Reading Recovery is cost-effective (Swartz, 1994).

Reading Recovery in California

In order to shed some light on the requirements for establishing a training center for Reading Recovery teachers it is helpful to review a brief history of how Reading Recovery came to the United States and how a center for training was established at California State University San Bernardino.

Charlotte Huck, a professor at Ohio State University, became alarmed when she read in the newspaper the number of children who failed first grade in Columbus, Ohio. Around thirty per cent of first grade children were being retained. She knew of Marie Clay's work with "at risk" readers and wanted to know more about how it worked. So she, Martha King, and Gay Sue Pinnell traveled to New Zealand to learn more about the Reading Recovery program and how they might

get it started in Ohio. As they observed the Reading
Recovery program they realized that they would need a
considerable amount of help from Clay. Upon returning to
Ohio, they wrote a grant that paid for Marie Clay and Barbara
Watson to come to Ohio State University to train teacher
leaders and trainers of teacher leaders (DeFord, Lyons, &
Pinnell, 1991). In 1984-85, Gay Sue Pinnell became trained
as a trainer of teacher leaders and Ohio State became the
first official training center for Reading Recovery in the
United States. Each year, thereafter, more and more Reading
Recovery teachers, teacher leaders, and trainers of teacher
leaders were trained in the program. Because Reading
Recovery was showing such good results in Ohio, it was soon
recognized by the National Dissemination Network of the
United States Department of Education as a developer/
demonstrator project. This recognition was given to Reading
Recovery as a recognition of proven program effectiveness
(Reading Recovery in California, 1994). Reading Recovery
soon had training centers that were established in other
states (Groom, J., McCarrier, A.,Herrick, S., & Nilges, W.
Ed., 1992).

In 1990-1991 the California State Department of
Education began looking into early literacy programs. Dennis
Parker, Beth Breneman, and Hanna Walker headed up this study.
Reading Recovery was one of the programs they felt needed

further consideration. At the same time California State
University at San Bernardino was trying to coordinate efforts
to establish a Reading Recovery Training center in
California. Kathy O'Brien, Coordinator of the Reading
Program, Adria Klein, chair of the Elementary and Bilingual
department, and Stan Schwartz, chair of Advanced Studies
worked cooperatively and contracted to bring a teacher leader
to conduct classes and training Reading Recovery Teachers in
the San Bernardino, and Riverside area during the 1991-1992
school year (Shook, 1994). That same year three other
teacher leaders conducted Reading Recovery classes in Orange
County, San Diego County, and Yuba City. The following year
an additional six teacher leaders were contracted to teach
Reading Recovery teachers in California. In addition, Gay
Sue Pinnell, who was on sabbatical leave from Ohio State
University, taught four university trainers, two clinical
trainers, and eleven teacher leaders from throughout
California. This provided the means by which many more
Reading Recovery teachers and teacher leaders could be
trained in California. As of 1994 there are three university
training sites for teacher leader training and 25 or more
training sites for Reading Recovery teacher training.
Throughout California many of the lowest first grade children
are experiencing success and are able to join the "literacy
club" that Frank Smith talks about because of the

implementation of the Reading Recovery Program (Smith, 1983).

Financial support for Reading Recovery comes form the district level and individual school sites. District pay for the training and salary for teacher leaders who train Reading Recovery teachers.

At the school level administrators and other educational leaders have found ways to free teachers from duties so they can be trained as Reading Recovery teachers and have the time necessary to teach their children. There are many models that have been used in order to free the Reading Recovery teacher for the necessary time to teach. Boehnlein (1989) describes four models. In the first, two first grade teachers share one class and working 2 1/2 hours each day as Reading Recovery Teachers. A second model is to free a Chapter I teacher from their regular duties for 2 1/2 hours to do Reading Recovery. A third is to create a first grade and Chapter I teacher team with the Chapter I teacher relieving the classroom teacher so that she can do Reading Recovery and vice-versa. The last model Boehnlein (1989) describes is having a floating teacher that relieves Reading Recovery teachers of their classroom duties each day for 2 1/2 hours. In California, in addition to the preceding models for implementation, some kindergarten teachers have opted to give up their preparation time in the morning or afternoon to do Reading Recovery. However, this is probably

the least desirable model because the Reading Recovery

teacher does not get to see, on a consistent basis, what

average or better students in first grade can do. There are

also teachers that have long-term substitutes or part-time

teachers that relieve first grade teachers during Reading

Recovery time.

Reading Recovery Teacher Training

While the above mentioned supports are essential, the

major investment and the key to the success of Reading

Recovery Program is teacher knowledge and skill. Teachers

who wish to become Reading Recovery teachers take graduate

level courses for a year beginning with an assessment course

where assessment and then attending a once-a-week class for

an academic year (Pinnell, G., Fried, M., & Estice, 1990).

During this year long training teachers first learn about

being better observers of children, starting with learning

about and administering the Observational Survey (Clay,

1993). During an intense all day long training week,

sessions on becoming noticing teachers begin (Clay, 1990).

Each aspect of the Observational Survey helps the teacher to

observe the child attempting a variety of tasks. This

enables the teacher to begin to understand what the child

knows and to think about what possibilities for building upon

this knowledge would be most helpful for this child (Hamill,

Kelly, Jacobsen, 1991). The letter identification task lets

the teacher know what letters are known and which might be in the process of being learned. Looking at how a child reads words in isolationon the Word List, the teacher gains insight about the child's ability to identify high frequency words.as While administering the Concepts About Print task, the teacher can see which early behaviors are in place and perhaps gain insights as to what the child might have beginning understandings about (Pinnell, 1989). Watching as children write the words they know during the Writing Words task gives additional information for the teacher to formulate hypotheses about what words children can write easily without copying. Knowledge of letter/sound relationships can be acquired during the Hearing and Recording Sounds task. Finally tentative guesses can be make about how the child uses what he or she knows when reading continuous text during the text reading aspect of the Observational Survey. These tasks provide estimations of what the child can do and are subject to change at almost any time. Results are held as only possibilities, not something set in concrete from which there is no escape (Clay , 1993). These are tasks which give the teacher opportunities for observations and not a test that the child can pass or fail. The Observational Survey helps the teacher to think about what the child can do and what she/he might be working on at that time.

Just as children learn to read by reading, Clay's model for teacher training is that teachers learn best to teach children using Reading Recovery theory and practices teaching, by observing, and through their conversations about teaching. Teachers learn to master the observational techniques and teaching skills that improve their instruction and their observational skills (Boehnlein, 1987). Training is conducted by a highly trained teacher leader who helps teachers to develop theoretical understandings, probe, examine, and stretch their teaching skills in ways that help teachers to become reflective and constructive teachers. As Jones (1991, 424) states, "Reading Recovery is not something that someone else does to you or for you, it is something that you are lead to do for yourself." This can be said of pupil and teacher as well. As the lesson plans are only a framework, teachers are taught how to make moment to moment decisions as they are teaching intensively (Pinnell, 1990). Clay (1990) adds, "At all levels the magic is not in the teaching procedures, it is in the decision-making on individual programming made by well trained professional staff."

Year long training for teachers is necessary as it gives the teachers enough time to grow and change. Clay has observed that when teachers only read about a program that they take what they already know and merge it with the new

information and teach much the same as before. During the
training year the teacher and the teacher leader work very
hard to change old ways (Clay, 1991). As the training year
progresses teachers go through a metamorphosis. In the
beginning teachers are more concerned with the mechanics of
lessons, gradually they search for ways to teach more for
strategies, and finally, the teachers delve more into the
theory behind the strategies. Teachers also become more
conscious of what they are teaching indirectly such as
dependent behaviors. Teachers start to look hard at
their teaching and find ways to give the children oppor-
tunities to teach themselves and not to always look to
someone else to do their thinking for them (Clay, 1991).
Teachers learn to rely on their problem solving ability and
not to look to someone else to tell them what to do.
Throughout the training program, instead of focusing on the
"right" way way to do something, possibilities are presented
and discussed in order to give the teacher a resource "bag of
tricks" from which to pull many ways to work with different
children and curcumstances. One of the most powerful ways
teachers learn to become decision makers "on the run" is
through the weekly "behind the glass" sessions. This is a
special time when two teachers, who are in training, bring a
child and teach in front of a one way glass. Each teacher
takes a turn teaching a half-hour lesson behind the glass.

As the teacher is teaching, the rest of the class is being

led in a lively discussion by the Teacher Leader (Pinnell,

1990). Clay (1991) has found that these on the spot

conversations concerning the live lesson are vital to the "on

the run" decision making abilities of the teachers. As the

teachers observing the lesson are freed from teaching, "they

can practice their analytical and decision-making skills as

the live demonstration unfolds (Pinnell, 1989, 168)." These

lively discussions are often misunderstood as being a type of

evaluation of the teacher, but the intention is not to

provide evaluation or feedback for the teacher giving the

lesson, but to give demonstrations and a focus for the

observers (Jones, 1991). DeFord (1993) describes this

"behind the glass" dialogue as an opportunity for periods of

conflict that are followed by reflection, and discussions of

possible solutions. DeFord (1993, 334) states further,

> The demonstration lessons in front of the one-way
>
> mirror in a Reading Recovery program are a means of
>
> clarifying understandings. In the talk behind the
>
> glass during the lesson and in the discussion after
>
> the lesson, teachers are guided to state
>
> observations, make their meanings clear, back up
>
> their assertions with evidence, and reflect on
>
> their own experiences.

Teachers in training demonstrate their understanding of the role of the "behind the glass" lessons when they start to use them for their own benefit. Clay (1991) observed that in the beginning the teachers would bring to the "behind the glass" lesson the child who was doing the best, but later they would bring the most difficult child. In this way the teacher could get the problem solving expertise of the whole class to help them change how they teach and teach in a more powerful way with that child.

Jones (1991) questioned Reading Recovery teachers about the year-long course work and found that teachers placed great value on their training. Almost all agreed that more was learned from observing "behind the glass" lessons than from teaching them. They felt that their beliefs about what children can do were changed. They also agreed that their ability to reflect and analyze their own teaching had improved. Most teachers stated that their understanding of reading strategies and how they are used was clarified. Many teachers felt that when a child was not accelerating in their learning, it reflected on their decision making ability as a teacher and not something that was wrong with the child. Jones continues (1991, 365),

> In summary, the principals underlying adult learning
>
> in the Reading Recovery program are
>
> basically the same as the principals that guide

children's learning: Learning and teaching are
strategic; one learns something by doing it,
accompanied by skilled coaching that is careful to
build, not deprive the learner of independence;
close observation informs both practice and concept
development; learners should be continually
challenged; and reflection and articulation play an
important role in learning.

Clay and Cazden (1991) noted that once teachers have
gone through this vigorous inservice training, there is much
less variation across teachers. This likeness does not mean
that all teachers are doing the same thing at the same time
regardless of the child, but given the same child and the
same circumstances, teachers trained in Reading Recovery
would make many of the same decisions.

It is important to note that the year-long graduate
course is conducted by a highly trained teacher leader who is
affiliated with a university. All Reading Recovery teachers
in training receive university credit for the course work.
Teacher leaders are trained to gradually introduce new
aspects of the Reading Recovery lesson in order to reduce the
load of newness to the teacher. In the beginning, the
teacher leaders help the teachers understand the value of
"roaming the known" with the children and not to drag the
child into new learning before they are ready. Gradually

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teacher leader's questioning will change from the parts of

the lesson to the theoretical and instructional decision

making aspects of Reading Recovery (Clay, 1991). Teacher

leaders encourage teachers-in-training to make video and

audio recordings of their own teaching and reflect and

analyze what sources of information are being used or

neglected by the child. Through this reflection and

analysis, teachers learn to be decision makers about their

own teaching, and are not dependent on outside help. They

are developing a self-improving system for their own teaching

(Jones, 1991).

Clay and Watson (1990) describe the teacher leader role

in the schools as a "redirecting system". Teacher leaders

also have a year long training. However, in addition to the

Reading Recovery clinical training, intensive coursework in

theory enable teacher leaders to become effective teachers of

teachers, as well as children. They learn to lead lively and

powerful discussions behind the glass. So the teacher leader

must be reflective not only about the child being taught, but

about the teachers she is trying to guide into self-

discovery. In addition to teaching the weekly classes,

teacher leaders must make on-site visits to teachers in

training, maintain the high standards of the Reading Recovery

program, collect data and monitor children's progress,

communicate with administrators about the program, provide

inservice to regular classroom teachers, and make

presentations about Reading Recovery to parents, school

boards, and the educational community at large (Gaffney,

1991, Pinnell, 1990).

In addition to this already heavy load teacher leaders

and the trainers of teacher leaders are required to teach

children daily in order to keep their teaching and decision-

making skills fresh and alive and not mechanical (Gaffney,

1991, Jones, 1991). Gaffney and Pinnell (1991) emphasize the

importance of the continual teaching children at the trainer

of teacher leader level (post doctorate training). They

state (1991, 6-7),

> "Teaching children makes a profound difference
>
> in the quality of teaching we offer to teacher
>
> leaders; it keeps the teacher leader course from
>
> becoming mechanical practice or an academic
>
> exercise. Sometimes, university professors read
>
> research and then advise teachers without grounding
>
> themselves in practice. Teaching children is a
>
> laboratory that provides that grounding and makes
>
> the difference between the typical university
>
> professor role and the Reading Recovery trainer's
>
> role and experience."

With the training of Reading Recovery teachers, teacher

leaders, and trainers of teacher leaders being placed firmly

in the university setting, further benefits to teachers and children come into play. As long as teachers are to remain active in the Reading Recovery program they must continue to teach four children daily (which adds up to serving eight to ten children each year) and attend at least six continuing contact sessions per year. During these sessions, "behind the glass" lessons are observed and discussed and theory and practice are examined. Because of this on-going contact a network of Reading Recovery teachers is developed. This networking starts at the local levels and continues from university to university and then expands from country to country. Universities provide conferences, news letters, professional associations and continued research. Having Reading Recovery based at the university helps to maintain the integrity of the program and those who implement it (Gaffney, & Pinnell, 1993, Jones, 1991).

Research is another major benefit of the close connection between Reading Recovery and universities. Much on-going research is being conducted concerning Reading Recovery. Teaching children who's primary language is Spanish in a restructured Reading Recovery program was piloted in Texas and Arizona and now this program, Descubriendo La Lectura (Reading Recovery in Spanish), is being introduced and studied in California (Reading Recovery in California, 1994).

Lyons, Pinnell, and DeFord (1993, Pinnell, 1993) have found that some Reading Recovery teachers have students who have higher student outcomes; and have investigated what high outcome teachers were doing that was different from low outcome teachers.and found that teachers with higher outcomes tended to prompt children more for developing strategies and problem solving on their own. On the other hand, teachers with lower outcomes tended to prompt more for item knowledge and skills in isolation and gave the child less opportunities to problem solve on their own. Through research such as this, Reading Recovery teachers are given opportunities to refine their teaching and continue to use more powerful ways to teach children.

There are many possibilities for further studies concerning Reading Recovery. Some challenges to the Reading Recovery program that need to be studied are: 1) How will Reading Recovery and year-round school be most effectively handled? 2) What is the best way to use Reading Recovery with the many diverse cultures and languages that are present in our school system? 3) What can be done to guard the ever decreasing number ofinstructional days in California (Reading Recovery in California, 1994)? These are only a few examples of possibilities for further opportunities for research.. With world-wide networking the task of research can fall on the shoulders of many rather than a few and the knowledge

base for Reading Recovery will continue to change and to grow.

In the 1993-94 school year it was estimated that 60,000 children in North America were served by Reading Recovery educators. Many of these children would have found their ways into remedial programs and would have been part of the cycle of failure that so many children experience. Of these 60,000 around 80% were successfully discontinued and almost all children served experienced growth in literacy related tasks. In California alone more than 300 school districts will serve thousands of children and these numbers will increase year by year.

Because children once thought of as failures, are now succeeding, how teachers think about children and their success or failure has changed. Regular classroom teachers, where Reading Recovery teachers are present, have begun to question old practices and are actively searching for ways to improve classroom instruction. Administrators are looking for ways to provide early intervention to prevent failure rather than try to fix after-the-fact. Parents too, are searching for ways to enhance learning for their children. In many cases Reading Recovery has become a vehicle for systemic change (Lyons, Pinnell, DeFord, 1993). These changes have been well grounded in current research and positive results. However, these changes have not been

easily achieved. They are the results of the whole

educational community working in concert to bring to the ever

greater possibility of making literacy learning a reality for

almost every student and not an impossible dream. Great

strides have been made, but there is much yet to be done, and

Reading Recovery is only part of the program. However, by

uniting theory with practice, research with results, and

getting teachers, administrators, parents, professors, state

and local leaders all working harmoniously, the orchestration

of literacy for "at risk" children will be a joyous journey

for all involved.

GOALS AND LIMITATIONS

<u>Goals</u>

There are two main goals of this media presentation.
Getting information about the Reading Recovery program to
educators and people in the community who may be directly or
indirectly involved with the Reading Recovery program is the
first goal of this presentation. A second goal is
motivation. After watching this presentation it is hoped
that those who have seen it will become interested in Reading
Recovery and that interest will lead to its successful
implementation in that school system.

Helping people in the education field and those who are
less directly involved with education understand what Reading
Recovery is all about is the first and most important goal of
this masters project. Such things as a brief understanding
of the philosophy that Reading Recovery is based upon, what
Reading Recovery is, how Reading Recovery came to be, how the
lessons look, and what makes a Reading Recovery teacher
unique are all part of this video presentation. In addition,
people in the educational community that help Reading
Recovery by lending their support are identified and the part
they play is briefly touched upon. Although not directly
mention in the video, a brief history of reading education
helped to set the background in which Reading Recovery
emerged. Most statements in the video are backed by hours of

research, and some have indirect references to the history of reading education.

A second and most important goal of this video is motivation. When this video is view it should be clear that children who were once thought to be at risk of not learning to read, are now reading. As Reading Recovery can change the cycle of failure experienced by so many children, it should motivate those who view this film to want this powerful program. The many checks and balances that keep the integrity of the program are listed, and the many testimonials of those who have been involved with Reading Recovery add to the credibility of this program. When viewers understand that the goal of literacy for almost everyone can be achieved with the assistance of the Reading Recovery program a need to have this program should follow.

Limitations

As this project's main goal is to inform and to motivate, it is by design only an overview. It is not intended to be an in depth study of Reading Recovery and how it came to be. The section that deals with the components of the lesson tells only what these components are and how they might look. These are not detailed explanations, nor are they meant to instruct the viewer in how to give a lesson. There is no attempt to give an in depth statistical study about the gains and long term effects of this program.   This

video production is meant to be an overview of the Reading

Recovery program and not a comprehensive study. It is meant

to be used with those who have limited knowledge about

Reading Recovery and are beginning their investigation. Once

viewed, the audience should have a basic understanding of the

Reading Recovery program and a desire to find out more. It

is believed that when subsequent investigations are coupled

with a feeling of urgency to help first grade children who

are at risk of not learning to read and write, Reading

Recovery will be found to be at least part of the solution to

narrowing the gap between successful students and those who

lag behind.

APPENDIX A

EDUCATIONAL VIDEO MAKING

Introduction

As Reading Recovery was the subject of this video and it required much research to assure that the necessary information was accurate and adequately covered. However, the media of television with the use of a video cassette recorder was chosen as the way to present this material. Because of the dual nature of this project it was necessary to research not only the subject area, but also the medium.

Making a video requires much more than turning on the video camera and pointing it at something. It is a process that involves planning, writing, timing, imagery, and asthetics. In addition, many hours are spent in the editing process and additional time and expertise help to make the graphics and the music and voice overs match the video. While the research helped in the process, the actual production of the video proved to be a better teacher. However, the research, planning and the script writing were good starting points.

Video Presentation

We live in an age full of images on the movie screen and on television. The average American watches television four hours a day. Seeing things on the screen is second nature to us (Hedgecoe,1989). Because of the wide use of video presentations, it seemed the most productive way to convey information about Reading Recovery. Making a video is a

challenging undertaking that requires careful planning to be successful. While some editing can be done with only a video camera and a video cassette recorder (VCR), for a truly professional looking video other editing equipment is necessary. By nature, videos are more social than film presentations because lights are on and interaction among viewers is common (LeBaron, 1981). Video can provide information to a large number of people even when the instructor cannot be present. It is an alternative delivery system. However, there is a downside to video presentations. The screen is so small that it does not have the same impact as a movie screen. It is also quite common and, therefore it is inherently unexciting and undramatic. Color and resolution are not as refined as on the movie screen (LeBaron, 1981). Spitzer, Bauwens, and Quast (1989) found that no one delivery system is best, but different situations require different technology. There is new technology being used in many school settings such as laser discs, and computer programs, but given the nature of Reading Recovery, and the ready availability of video cameras, editing machines, video cassette recorder's (VCR's), and the almost universal familiarity with the medium, video seemed the right technology for this project.

One problem that video presentations have is that the viewer's mind tends to wander. Another problem for

educational videos is, if a question arises, there is no way to answer unless a knowledgeable presenter is there to field questions and lead discussions (Spitzer, Bauwens, and Quast, 1989). Because of these potential problems it is important that planning be the first step in any video production (Bennett, 1990).

Planning what to say and who to say it to, and how the video should look and sound are the most basic elements of planning a video (Carucio, 1991, Bennett, 1990). Clear educational objectives and how to achieve them are the focus of the first phase of planning (Carucio, 1991). Some of the things that need to be considered in this initial stage of planning are what the purpose of the video is, what treatment will it receive, and who will be in charge of each phase of the project. When considering the purpose of the video it must be decided if it will be used to demonstrate, role play, perform, or investigate the subject. Will the video be used to reinforce curriculum or teach content (Bennett, 1990)? Once the purpose has been clarified, the style of video must be planned. What will be the best way to treat the subject, straight forward, humorous or will it require special formats such as a musical, video art, documentary, fiction, animation, news cast, game show or some other form (Carucio, 1991, Bennett, 1990)? When these elements have been planned the collaborative aspect of video

production is considered. There needs to be a clear division of roles. The technical as well as the content, are considered. It is also important to plan on considerable hard work and plenty of surprises (Reese, 1991).

Spitzer (1986) emphasizes that unless implementation and evaluation are being constantly considered while planning, video productions often fail to meet their objectives. Spitzer lists seven things which need to be considered to insure that implementation and evaluation are woven into every stage of planning. First, what are the expectations of the creators and will the intended audience find the same conclusions. Secondly, what will be the design of the project. Will it be easy to use? In other words, is it user friendly? Third, does the intended audience have the knowledge to make use of the product? Fourth, the physical, intellectual, and emotional capacity of the intended audience must be considered. Fifth, it is necessary to get feedback about the production to see if the needs of the target audience have been met. Sixth, is there a good reason to use this product? Are there incentives? Do the pluses overpower the minuses? And finally, are the resources readily available for the implementation of this program?

Once the initial phase of planning has begun, the second area of planning can begin. Clear, well written scripts make the job of video production run smoothly and keep all

involved in the production on task. Bennett (1990) states that scripts helps to translate visual ideas into words and action. He continues that a script is an outline of main ideas sandwiched by an introduction and a summary. The resulting script should resemble oral communication rather than written speech. However, while this is basically true, a script is much more than the audio portion of a video. A video script organizes three aspects of the video production. It addresses the visual/technical aspects, time, and the audio areas of a video. The final script can be very detailed and technical. Because so much is involved in script writing there are two preliminary steps that can be taken before the final script is written. A scenario and/or a story board can be written in order to make the final script writing easier.

Writing a scenario first can be very helpful as it is much like an outline that is used before an essay or term paper is written. LeBaron (1981) writes, " A scenario is nothing more than an outline of the proposed content and sequence of a production, with rough notations as to location, special effects, peculiarities of the the production site (LeBaron, 1981, p. 182)." While scenarios can be used for a final shooting, it is not recommended for an inexperienced crew as it is expected that different aspects of the technical instructions will be dealt with

spontaneously as different situations arise. However, scenarios do help to block and plan video production in the preliminary stages.

Story boards provide visual representations of the script. A story board is divided into three columns. The center column has rectangles drawn in a 3:4 ratio which proportionately duplicates the screen on a television. Rough sketches or "thumbnail" versions of the visual portion of a shot are be represented in this box. The left hand column in a story board contains the organizational material such as what kind of a shot it will be, what angle the scene will be viewed from, how long the shot will be, and where it fits into the video. This information on a story board is minimal and is only a rough estimation of how the technical aspects will be put together. The right hand column contains the audio portion of the video. This includes the spoken and other audio aspects such as the music or sound effects. LeBaron (1981) suggests that the visual sketches be drawn first and the organizational and audio plans be added later. This way the pictures can be easily rearranged until they are in the desired sequence. Story boards have great strengths as they are quite flexible and shots can be easily tested and re-arranged until a final decision is made. However, there are limitations to the use of a story board. It does not lend itself to the organizational aspects of the audio and it

does not easily show camera movement and duration of a shot. It is also difficult to show the organization of two cameras working on the same shot. For this reason, many times both story boards and scripts are used. First, a crude story board is made and manipulated until it is refined, then the script is written from the story board.

Scripts have their roots in radio and stage productions. Scripts provide a way of supplying comprehensive instructions for the visual and audio aspects of a production. Once again, the script is written in three columns. The left hand column contains detailed information about the visual aspects of video. Included are such things as shooting directions, camera set ups, placement of equipment including people and props. This is a painstaking process as all parts of the program must be given in their proper order. In the right hand column, the audio instructions are given. Such things as microphone positions, music, spoken, sound effects are given in great detail in this column. The center column is used to record timing. In professional productions precise times must be provided. However, for a documentary reasonable time should be approximated (Appendix C).

As video is mainly a visual medium, therefore, it is important that visual aspects of the video are varied and pleasing to the eye and convey the information necessary to meet the objectives of the video (Bennett, 1990). This

requires a plan for the shots and expert camera work. High quality videos use a variety of shots and artfully weave them together so the viewer is hardly aware of the actions of the camera (Spitzer, 1989). Planning what kinds of shots and how they work together is all part of script writing.

A shot is the basic unit of video work. It is a section of continuous, uncut footage. There are three basic shots; the long shot, medium shot, and the close up. Most other shots are a variation of one of these three shots. The long shot contains full human figures and a considerable amount of background information that lets the viewer know where the subject is and other environmental aspects. The long shot is often called the establishing shot as it helps to orient the viewer. Variations of this shot are the very long shot and the extreme long shot. Each of these shots pulls the camera further away from the scene. Because so much more information is given in the long shot, viewer tends to view the whole scene without focusing on any particular part. Extreme long shots are not often used in video as the screen is so small that much of the detail is lost.

A mid-shot extends just below the waist and not at the waist. Cut off points that correspond with human sections look strange on television. It can be of one person or a small group of people. As these shots show more of the facial features they can be used to establish relationships

and interactions among people. Often two cameras are used in these shots so as to get reactions as well as the actions of the participants (Hedgecoe, 1989, LeBaron, 1989). Close up shots are shot from the shoulders up. These shots are used to create a sense of drama tension, or strong emotion. At times like this the producer does not want the viewer's eyes to wander around the picture (LeBaron, 1981). When the camera focuses on the face only it is called a big close up and if only the mouth or eyes are in the picture it is called and extreme close up. The closer the camera moves in on the subject the more intimate it seems to the audience (Hedgecoe, 1989). This intimacy can be pleasant or repugnant depending on what the context the shot is embedded in. Subjects of extreme close ups need to be very still as any motion is exaggerated (LeBaron, 1981). Bennett (1990) cautions that while generous amounts of close up shots should be used, it is important to avoid the "talking head". Another close up shot that is very effective when demonstrations are being given is an over the shoulder shot. Some common abbreviations of shots for script writing are given in the appendix. (Appendix D) There are other terms, but these are the most basic. It is important to know what these abbreviations mean and because this understanding can effect the end results of any video production (LeBaron, 1981).

In the best tapes one shot works into the next shot and

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the viewer is unaware of the camera work (Hedgecoe, 1989).

"Film-makers and television producers often consciously try

to sequence their shots by relating a specific set of

patterns as they move from one image to the next" (LeBaron,

1981, 112). With careful planning shots will first establish

where the action will take place, who the characters are, and

who or what will convey what you want said in the video. In

planning shots it is also more pleasant for the transition

from one shot to the next not to be too radical. Moving from

an extreme close up to a long shot is a radical change and it

is much better to break such a change down working through

the different shots. Timing is tricky. Spending too much

time on a shot can loose the audience's attention, but

jumping from one shot to the next can make a choppy and

uninteresting video as well (Hedgecoe, 1989).

Another aspect of camera work that must be noted in the

script is the point of view. Sometimes the camera is set at

a low angle to show how a dog or a child might view the scene

(LeBaron, 1981). Other times the camera takes a high angle

which suggests to the audience a feeling of superiority or

dominance. However, the most common angle of the camera is

set at 1.5 meters or about five feet, the average adult eye

level. This creates a feeling of impartiality and is the

best angle for documentaries and informational video

productions. When video taping people it is best to focus

the camera on the eyes and when working on a scene it is best to focus on some outstanding point of interest such as a building or tree (Hedgecoe, 1992).

Capturing the action in a video takes expert camera work. When a camera moves from left to right or right to left horizontally it is called panning. Camera movement in a vertical top to bottom or vice-versa motion is called tilting. Most video cameras are equipped with a zoom lens. Cameras can zoom from a long shot to a medium or close up shot. This action is called zooming in and going from a close up shot to a long shot is zooming out. However, while use of the zoom can be dramatic, it is often over used and in most cases should be avoided (Bennett, 1990, Hedgecoe, 1992, LeBaron, 1981).

The fade in and fade out controls can be used to give a professional look to a video when making a transition from one shot to the next. These controls are sometimes called the open/close control. Another effective way to show a transition visually is through the focus by starting out of focus and gradually sharpening the focus or going from a sharp focus to an out of focus picture (Bennett, 1990).

Other aspects of video work which can make a great difference in the professional look and sound of a video are having a steady camera, appropriate lighting and the clear sound. Nothing can replace a good tripod with a "fluid" head

that allows for smooth camera movement. The viewer should be
unaware of the camera work being done. This requires a
steady camera at all times. Lighting should come from the
sides and over head, but not from behind the subject as the
camera tends to adjust for the high light behind the subject
and the person or object is seen as a shadow. And finally a
good microphone that suits the purpose of the video is vital.
Most cameras have a built in omni directional microphone.
Other microphones that can be used are unidirectional
microphone and the lovelier or tie-tac mike for interviews
(Reese, 1991; Carucio, 1991). Omnidirectional mikes pick up
sound equally from all sides including behind the camera.
This is what most video cameras have. Cardioid mikes block
the sound from behind the camera, and supercardioids block
out the sound from the sides as well. Hedgecoe says of
supercardioid mikes, "Supercardioid microphones are the audio
equivalent of the telephoto lens, used to record distant
sound (1992, 28-29)." Without a steady camera, good
lighting, and excellent sound, a very important message may
be missed by the viewer simply because of the technical
aspects of the video.

Spitzer states that videos used to educate must be
visually excellent. Those wishing to capture an audience
must meet the standards of commercial television in order to
be successful (Spitzer, Bauwens, Quast, 1989). LeBaron

emphasizes the importance of good camera work. He states,
"Effective camera work is a thing to be prized. It involves
an intimate familiarity with the capacities and features of
the camera, the characteristics of different types of shots,
an ability to distinguish the important from the unimportant,
and a sense of timing (1981, 25)."

To add the final touch of the professional video, good
graphics must be used to introduce the video and give credit
to those who helped make the production. Bennett suggests
that easels can be used to hold still pictures and pictures
from books so they can become part of the video. Over head
projectors with acetate rolls can be used to create the
"crawl" effect for end of production credits. Another method
to create the "scroll" effect is to use preprinted printed
material and feed it through a computer printer by using the
form feed button on the printer. There are also computer
programs that will interface with the video camera and
communicate the graphics directly from the computer to the
camera (Bennett. 1990). LeBaron gives instructions on how to
make a wooden box that can be used for graphics. He
emphasizes that care should be take to make sure the graphics
fit the 3:4 ratio as this is the size of the screen that they
will be viewed from (LeBaron, 1981).

Video making consists of two parts, the camera work and
the editing. With the advances in technology there are many

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pieces of equipment that make editing easier and more professional. In most editing, some definition in the picture is lost. This can be minimized by using a Hi-8 or S-VHS camera. A video enhancer also helps to eliminate this loss. The AV enhancer is connected between the cam corder and the VCR. These machines enhance the video image, and correct some color anomalies and imbalances such as matching up shots taken at different times of the day. Many of the more advanced AV enhancers also have built in sound mixer capabilities which means that sound from the video can be mixed with music or "voice overs".

Another important piece of editing equipment is the edit controller. This machine is used to store up to 99 scenes and then be called up either by linear tape counter or by time and recorded in a new sequence. An edit controller is set up between the cam corder or a VCR called a master unit and the "slave" VCR which records the edited video. Edit VCR's are best to use as "slave" units because they have the capability of still frame advance or slow motion replay (Hedgecoe, 1992). "Most edit video cassette recorders (VCR) have insert edit and audio dub functions, and special sockets that allow them to synchronize with other video equipment (Hedgecoe, 1992, 33)." Without these capabilities the editing points will be less precise, much more time consuming and a less than professional result.

With careful planning, creative script writing, capable
camera work, care and consideration for all other technical
aspects of video production and the special equipment needed
for editing, professional looking videos can be made by non-
professionals. Maintaining the interest of the viewer and
informing him at the same time is not an easy task. It is
only through many hours of planning the script, and the
shots, hours of practice with the camera and taking the shots
coupled with many more hours of editing and adding music and
graphics that this can be done.

APPENDIX B

Reading Recovery and Record Keeping

Text

Page	Title: Up the Tree
7	Jip ran up the tree.
	he ran up to the top.
8	"I am up the tree,"
	said Jip.
9	"Can I get up the tree?"
	asked Meg the hen.
	"No," said Jip.
10	"The tree is too tall.
	You can't get up to the top."
	said Jip.
11	"I can," said Meg.
	"I can fly.
	I can fly to the top.
	Look at me.

Running Record

Date: 11/21/95   Name: Ryan

Page	Title: Up the Tree

7 ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓
here/he sc ✓✓ ✓✓ branch/top

8 ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ branch/tree
✓ ✓

9 ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓
no|said/asked sc ✓✓ hh|h̶e̶n̶/hen I +
✓ ✓ ✓

10 ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ Lon··|✓/tall
✓✓ climb/get sc ✓✓✓ branch/top
✓✓

11 ✓✓✓✓
✓✓✓
✓✓✓ ✓✓ branch/top
✓✓✓

home 8H She

she She
          h   sh
                   she

She glad   I'M
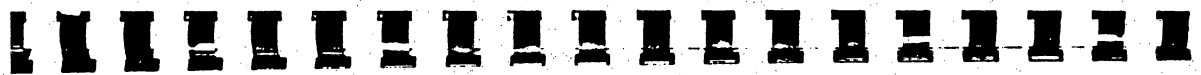
I love my mom.   I'm

glad She is home.

Writing Book: The top part of the book is the practice page.
The bottom part of the page is the completed sentence or
"story".

11/28/95

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LESSON PLAN

NAME: __Ryan__ LESSON: __34__

RR TEACHER: __J. Fenn__ DATE: __11/28/95__

READING

Me Yes (Magnetic Letters) Can do today		Cross Check / beg. Letter		
NEW TEXT	**RE-READING**	**STRATEGIES** 1) USED 2) PROMPTED	**WORD ANALYSIS**	**1. Letter identification 2. Letter formation**
The Hungry Kitten L.7. R.W. 94 The Hungry Kitten is looking for some food. He tries to eat other animals food but they tell him to "Go away!" Read to see how Hungry Kitten gets some food. Like away	Black Berries L.7 Mr. Grump L.6 Running Record Book Title: Don't You Laugh at Me Level 7 Acc: 90% SC Rate 1: 10	(1) pick / get (w) — look / it (1) in — into / I — I'm / am — here / mail lady — mail carrier sc / yelled — shouted sm (w) sc (2) What can you do when you get to a hard word? (1) Think about the story. (2) What else? (1) Points to first lettr. (2) That's right.	T.P. L / Lo / Loo / LOOK Tried to get Ryan to Look across whole word and use T.P. Running Record. + √ with beg. letter. Almost right - find the hard bit. Ryan won't try. He simply closes down.	M & B → [Chet] / l w b easily done. Has trouble with writing a lower case h. I model once. He improves.

WRITING / CUT-UP STORY

SENTENCE	**ANALYSIS AND FLUENCY PRACTICE**	**SPATIAL CONCEPTS**	**SEQUENCING**	**COMMENTS**
(I) (love) (my) (mom). I'm glad she (is) home.	[I|m] talked about apostrophy. 1 2 [g|l|a|d] 2 3 1 [sh|e] she → FX4 1 2 [h|o|m]e 1 3 2 T.P. she - shout shoe shut	Ryan is very hostile today. He needs some reminders about spaces ... not because he does not understand but because he is mad.	I / love / my / mom / . I'm / glad / she / is / home / . √ √ √ √ √ √ √ easily assembled cut up sentence.	Ryan relies heavily on meaning and context to get to words. He has a good memory but it often overides the actual text.

Lesson Plan

RECORD OF BOOK LEVEL

NAME: Ryan   RR TEACHER: J. Fenn

Code:
o—o—o
90% or above

●—●—●
below 90%

LEVEL	TITLE	Acc.	SC	Cat on the Mat	I love My Family	Tommy's Tummy Ache 94% 1:3	The Bus Ride 90% 1:3	Copy Cat 90% 1:4	Where Are You? 94% 1:6	Danny's Dollars 95% 1:2	Lucky Goes to School 87.5% 1:4	Don't You Laugh at Me 90% 1:10	The Beagly 90% 1:6	Oh Jump in a Sack 93% 1:5	Sally's Red Bucket 87.5% 1:4	Pets 94% 1:2	Friendly Snowman 92% 1:2	I'm the King of the Mountain 93% 1:9
20
19
18
17
16
15
14
13
12
11
10
9
8
7
6
5
4
3
2
1

Week	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30
Lessons	ITK	ITK	5	10	15	20	25	29	33	37	42	47	61	55	59															
Date	9/29	10/5	10/12	10/19	10/26	11/2	11/9	11/16	11/22	11/30	12/7	12/14	1/4	1/12	1/16															

Writing Vocabulary Graph

WEEKLY RECORD OF WRITING VOCABULARY

| Initial T   g
In the K....wn

Ryan | NAME: Ryan

DATE OF FIRST LESSON: 10/12/95 | RR TEACHER: J. Fenn |

| Week 2 (ITK)
I a no | Week 3
Date:
go to | Week 4
Date:
too is | Week 5
Date:
the on | Week 6
Date:
dad mom | Week 7
Date:
got and at | Week 8
Date:
my chet
kelly zoo |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Week 9
Date:
so from by
me he | Week 10
Date:
yes red
can | Week 11
Date:
in going two
sad | Week 12
Date:
I'm it look | Week 13
Date:
cat dog at
had do of | Week 14
Date:
one at like
going am
day off | Week 15
Date:
days that
went look
have all
if bring |
| Week 16
Date: | Week 17
Date: | Week 18
Date: | Week 19
Date: | Week 20
Date: | Week 21
Date: | Week 22
Date: |
| | | | | | | |

APPENDIX C

VIDEO SCRIPT

VIDEO SCRIPT					
Edit List Scene #	Video Time	Video Visual	Music	Voiceover Time	Script
	15 sec.	Title page.	Classic Music 15 sec.	No voice 15 sec.	No Script
	15-20 sec.	Masters Project Infomation	Classic piano 15-20 sec.	No voice 15-20 sec.	No Script
1	20 sec.	Student and piano teacher; student is not playing.	Piano 20 sec.	20 sec. voice	Music students spend many hours learning the separate elements of music. Such things as notation, rhythm, and musical terms are studied in depth.
2	15 sec.	Student playing piano	10 sec. low music 5 sec. none	15 sec. voice	However, it is not until the student actually tries to play a piece of music that she starts to learn how to play an instrument and creates music.
3	10 sec.	Student playing piano and teachers hand coming up to help.	10 sec.	10 sec.	Music teachers have long known that it is best for students to learn the elements of music while in the process of playing.
4	17 sec.	Picture of class-room student pointing to words in pocket chart.	17 sec.	17 sec.	We in literacy education have much to learn from music instruction...for indeed, children learn the elements of literacy best while they are in the process of reading and writing.

VIDEO SCRIPT					
Edit List Scene #	Video Time	Video Visual	Music	Voiceover Time	Script
5	15 sec.	Classroom setting Bobbi getting children to articualte sounds.	15 sec.	15. sec.	In education we have often sought simple solutions to complex problems. This is certainly true in literacy education. The proverbial penulum has swung many times.
6	17 sec.	Classroom teacher with children working on letters.	none	17 sec.	With each swing a different aspect of literacy education has been embraced. Sometimes phonics...whole words...whole sentences...whole books.
7	15 sec.	Classroom situation with children working on literacy activity.	none	15 sec.	However, as reading is a complex activity, these simple solutions offer only partial answers to an ever growing problem...how to help at risk first graders learn to read and write?
8	15 sec.	Reading Recovery teacher and child reading together	none	15 sec.	Many children even though in supportive educational settings find it hard to make sense of reading and writing.
9	20 sec.	Close up of child reading.	none	20 sec.	Children who fall behind in their literacy education need an intervention early in their schooling before feelings of failure become too great and before poor literacy behaviors become too engrained.
10	15 sec.	Reading Recovery lesson MS	none	15 sec.	Reading Recovery is a 1-1 tutorial program that is receiving wide acclaim for the accelerated progress children are making.

					VIDEO SCRIPT
Edit List Scene #	Video Time	Video Visual	Music	Voiceover Time	Script
12	15 sec.	La Shawna reading familiar book. CU	none	15 sec.	Children who were once considered at risk of not learning to read are now reading and writing... and experiencing new found success in school.
13	20 sec.	Matt at desk in classroom.	none	20 sec.	Teachers who create classrooms which encourage effective literacy learning in the regular educational setting are an important part of the orchestration of literacy.
14	15 sec.	Matt at desk. Zoom in.	none	15 sec.	Despite good teaching, some children may not be learning the same things from the lessons in the class. They may be attending to something that makes reading and writing more difficult.
15	15 sec.	Matt in Reading Recovery lesson with Celeste.	none	15 sec.	It is for those children who fall behind in literacy learning that Reading Recovery was created.
15	20 sec.	Matt and Celeste continue on lesson.	none	20 sec.	Children who fall behind need to have their learning accelerated so they can catch up with their peers. Through daily thirty minute lessons with one-to-one attention from an observant and skilled Reading Recovery teacher, the child soon closes the learning gap.
16	25 sec.	Another Reading Recovery lesson with teacher and child.	none	25 sec.	Daily lessons follow the same basic steps each day and include familiar reading, taking a running record, discovering how letters and words work, writing a story, working with a cut up sentence, and the introduction ...

VIDEO SCRIPT					
Edit List Scene #	Video Time	Video Visual	Music	Voiceover Time	Script
16 cont.	25 sec. cont.	Reading Recovery lesson cont.	none	25 sec. cont.	and first reading of a new book. As each lesson unfolds the Reading Recovery teacher observes the child and tailors each part of the lesson for that child.
16	20 sec.	Reading Recovery lesson from a different angle.	none	20 sec.	While children are engaged in reading and writing activities, the Reading Recovery teacher offers just enough support to enable the child to develop the strategies that proficient readers use.
17	20 sec.	Doris and student reading familiar book.	none	20 sec.	During the familiar reading portion of the lesson there are many opportunities for the child to re-read familiar "little books". These little books have fun interesting plots and can be easily read in a very short time.
18	20 sec.	Doris and student continue reading.	none	20 sec.	Because these books have been read before, the child does not have to work as much on the hard parts and this leaves them free to notice new things about the text. Re-reading familiar texts helps children to build confidence and enjoyment through phrased and expressive reading.
19	20 sec.	Nancy and child as she starts taking Running Record.	none	20 sec.	Using a type of shorthand, Reading Recovery teachers take a daily running record. These running records enhance the teacher's observations and give information about how this child problem solves on new text.

VIDEO SCRIPT					
Edit List Scene #	Video Time	Video Visual	Music	Voiceover Time	Script
20	20 sec.	CU of teacher's hands as she takes a running record.	none	20 sec.	While taking the running record the Reading Recovery teacher looks for patterns and formulates opinions about what the child is learning and what might be taught or what emerging problem solving behaviors may be re-enforced.
22	15 sec.	Linda and Jason doing making and breaking.	none	15 sec.	Two or three minutes is spent each day doing activities which help the child with letter recognition or word study. This study is used to help the child build strategies for learning letters and words.
23	20 sec.	CU of black board with making and breaking.	none	20 sec.	Children are shown how to use what they know to get to what they do not know. In this activity called "making and breaking", a known word is the base for making new words. This lesson leads niecly into the writing part of the lesson.
24	20 sec.	Doris and student writing.	none	20 sec.	During writing both student and teacher work together to compose a and write a brief story consisting of one or more sentences. While the child is writing he is guided to develop understandings of how to compose a story, hear sounds in words, recognize and use letters, and build a bank of words he read and write.

VIDEO SCRIPT					
Edit List Scene #	Video Time	Video Visual	Music	Voiceover Time	Script
25	20 sec.	Writing and cutting story apart.	none	20 sec.	When theis task is completed, the story is writtten on a light cardbpard strip and cut apart as the child re-reads his composition. The child then re-assembles the sentence. What was once a writing acitivity has now become reading.
26	20 sec.	Maria and student reading books.	none	20 sec.	Introduction of the new book is placed strategically at the end of each lesson. At htis time the child will have all the cues and strategies used in familiar reading and the writing portion of the lesson fresh in mind. Before reading the book, Reading Recovery teachers intro-duce the child to the book so they know the plot, the language, and new concepts that might be presented in the book.
27	20 sec.	CU of Maria's student reading book.	none	20 sec.	This carefully selected book is well within the child's developing ability, but has just enough new material to be challenging yet non threatening.
28	15 sec.	CU of Maria's student as she points at book.	none	20 sec.	After the introduction the child then reads the book for the first time as independently as possible. This book will be used the next day for the running record.
29	30 sec.	MS of Maria and student as they finish a lesson and hug.	none	30 sec.	Children are in Reading Recovery for a relatively short time. The average amount of time is from 12-20 weeks. Once a child can use all the strategies and cueing systems in an orchestrated way and is at the average of his class or better, he is exited from the program and a new child is entered.

					VIDEO SCRIPT
Edit List Scene #	Video Time	Video Visual	Music	Voiceover Time	Script
30	30 sec.	Gayle Hurt testimonial.	none	30 sec.	Gayle's own words.
32	25 sec.	Micki Antinone testimonial.	none	25 sec.	Micki's own words.
33	20 sec.	Maria's Lesson (familiar reading)	none	20 sec.	Reading Recovery is not a packaged program. The daily lesson plans look deceptively easy. However, the power of Reading Recovery does not lie in the lesson or the activities, but rather, in the moment by moment decisions made by highly trained Reading Recovery teachers.
34	30 sec.	CU of Bev pan to class.	none	30 sec.	Reading Recovery teachers are tained in a year-long graduate course held once a week. This class is conducted by an experienced teacher leader. Course work includes live demonstration lessons observed behind a one way mirror, lecures, and class discussions.
34	25 sec.	MS of Bev and class.	none	25 sec.	As Reading Recovery teachers in training give live demonstration lessons with real students, the rest of the class observes "behind the glass". While observing a lively idscussion is being conducted by the teacher leader.

		VIDEO SCRIPT			
Edit List Scene #	Video Time	Video Visual	Music	Voiceover Time	Script
36	10 sec	Bev talking with "glass" behind.	none	10 sec.	These "behind the glass" demonstration lessons are not used to evaluate the teacher giving the lesson.
38	20 sec.	Sign at CSUSB	none	20 sec.	Teacher leaders are pivotal in the training of Reading Recovery teachers. These leaders are trained in regional training centers which are based at university sites.
39	20 sec.	CSUSB library and University Hall.	none	20 sec.	Through the combined efforts of Kathy O'Brien, Adria Klein, and Stan Swartz at California State University, San Bernardino, three regional training centers have been established in California. At these sites graduate level classes are conducted to train teacher leaders.
40	15 sec.	Fontana training site.	none	15 sec.	Once trained, teacher leaders return to their communities and begin to conduct classes for new Reading Recovery teachers.
41	15 sec.	Riverside training site.	none	15 sec.	With each new training site more Reading Recovery teachers can be trained and more at risk children can be helped.
44	20 sec.	Library at CSUSB.	none	20 sec.	Having Reading Recovery so closely connected to universities has greater benefits beyond training. Universities provide continuing inservice for trained Reading Recovery teachers and teacher leaders in the form of continued contact, conferences, newsletters, and networking.

VIDEO SCRIPT					
Edit List Scene #	Video Time	Video Visual	Music	Voiceover Time	Script
45	10 sec.	University Hall at CSUSB.	none	10 sec.	Universities also conduct research that keeps Reading Recovery at the cutting edge of literacy education.
46	30 sec.	Reading Recovery in Spanish at Longfellow El.	none	30 sec.	During the 1993-94 school year data was collected concerning Descubriendo La Lectura/Reading Recovery in Spanish. Instructors at California State University San Bernardino wanted to determine if the same positive results that were being experienced by the English speaking students could be duplicated with Spanish speaking students. The researchers at the university noted similar positive results.
46	20 sec.	Kathy and Reading Recovery in Spanish Cont.	none	20 sec.	Principals and superintendents are players in this concert of literacy. Reading Recovery has become an integral part of their school's early literacy program. They use Reading Recovery to provide a safety net for at risk students and as a pre-referral intrvention for those students that may need additional help beyond Reading Recovery.
48	20 sec.	School board meeting.	none	20 sec.	Local and county school boards and state legislators also help in this concert by allocation the money that makes Reading Recovery training and continued support a reality.
49	8 sec.	Matt and Mom working with reading.	none	8 sec.	Parents are also insturmental in the orchestration of literacy.

		VIDEO SCRIPT			
Edit List Scene #	Video Time	Video Visual	Music	Voiceover Time	Script
49	8 sec.	Matt and Mom working on cut up sentence.	none	8 sec.	They can assist the accelerated learning for their child by listening to him read his book each night and guiding him as he re-assembles his cut up sentence at home.
50	20 sec.	Bobbi's classroom again. Children working.	none	20 sec.	Nation wide almost 40 thousand children were served the full Reading Recovery program in the 1992-93 school year, and of the children served, 84% learned to read at or above the average of their classmates. The number of children served is growing each year.
51	?	Rosemarie Bowers	none	?	Teacher's own words.
52	?	Marth Carranzo	none	?	Teacher's own words.
53	?	Nancy Tittenhoffer	none	?	Teacher's own words.
54	?	Tena Peterson	none	?	Principal's own words.
55	20 sec.	Stills of each of the children.	none	20 sec.	Reading Recovery can provide a program that helps at risk first graders develop self-extending systems in reading and writing. Because children are able to orchestrate these strategies, they become independent learners.

VIDEO SCRIPT					
Edit List Scene #	Video Time	Video Visual	Music	Voiceover Time	Script
56	20 sec.	Children reading and writing.	20 sec. low	20 sec.	When the whole educational community plays in concert, Reading Recovery is successful and the beautiful music of literacy for all can become a reality!
57	30-40 sec.	Acknowledgements	30-40 sec. music up	none	none

APPENDIX D

VIDEO ABBREVIATIONS

VIDEO ABBREVIATIONS

C   =   camera

LS   =   long shot

MS =   medium shot

CU   =   close up

XCU =   extreme close up

Take C = activate camera trigger

Fade in = gradually bring video or audio up from gray

Fade out = gradually bring video or audio down to gray

PL, PR = Pan to left or pan to right

TU, TD = tilt up, tilt down

ZI, ZO = zoom in, zoom out

DI, DO = dolly in, dolly out

APPENDIX E

VIDEO MAKING: THE JOURNEY

VIDEO MAKING: THE JOURNEY

I learned more from the actual making of the video than
I did while researching doing the research about video
making. One big mistake that I made was not to go deeply
enough into the research in the field of video making.
Rather I centered my research on video making for education.
Another problem was I began the camera work before my script
was complete, and finally because I was such a novice at
video making, I did not have all the visual information that
was needed in my video. However, despite my inadequacies,
and because I got expert help, the end product was visually
pleasing and covered the information that I desired.

It wasn't until I started to have the editing process
that I realized how little I knew about the process of making
a video. There were machines, terms, and processes that had
never been brought to my attention. As I spoke with students
and instructors in the communication department, I realized
that there was much to be studied and researched in that
field and that my project could have been enhanced with more
study and practice in the area of video making. For example,
once the initial camera work had been done, I was told to sit
down at a editing machine and log in each shot. I had no
idea that this was done. I spent hours logging in each
action that was taped. Every time the camera changed from a
close up to a mid shot etc. the beginning times and ending

times were recorded. As I was logging in the shots I became

aware that some the the scenes that were in my script were

not represented well in the shots already taken. This made

another day of camera work necessary. Once again many more

hours were spent logging in the shots. For every hour of

camera work there was at least two hours of logging in the

shots. Once all these shots were recorded this became the

shot list. (Table 3)

As the script was not completely refined, and the times

were not precise the task of adding the visual information to

the script became more difficult. First as I had not taped

the shots in sequence, it meant that the video tape

had to be searched to find the shot that was needed for the

scene in the script. From the shot list I was told to

compile an edit list. In the edit list I was told to put the

scenes in the order that matched the script (Table 4). Even

with the times logged in, if one part of the scene was at the

beginning of the tape and another in the middle or towards

the end, many precious minutes were wasted because the tape

had to be rewound or fast forwarded to the shot. Secondly,

as the times were not precise and the camera work was not

well coordinated with the script, there were times where it

was necessary to search to find enough visual information to

support the script. Because of this it was necessary to

match the shots to the script and not the script to the shot.

In other words, the auditory portion of the video drove the video portion. As this is a visual medium, what I did was sort of backwards. Even though this was more of a documentary, if the script had been more complete, the visual portion could have been better suited for my purposes.

Luckily I had Garry Oversby as my main cameraman. He had great knowledge of camera work and knew that in order to make a video visually pleasing such things as the frame and varying the shots and cuts were all needed. When I was taping, I placed my camera in one spot and shot for long periods of time. The visual information was uninteresting and did not key in on the important aspects of the lessons. Much of what I taped was unusable. However, even with Oversby's sense of what was visually satisfying, he missed some good shots because I had not adequately told him what was in the script, and what would help to support the points.

My lack of knowledge about voice overs came very painfully to me as I met with the Video Lady, Shirley Harlan. I had bought a special microphone that plugged into my camera to record the scripted portion of the video. I was told that this mic would eliminate much of the background sounds. I had asked a friend to record the script for me. She had graduated in drama and has a wonderful voice and excellent diction. I felt that she would have been perfect. She had been practicing the script and I went to her home to

record. When I got the tape out, to do the voice over, it became apparent that due to poor recording, her voice was hardly audible. Shirley's time was limited, and my friend was unavailable to re-record, so Shirley had me read the script. She had a sound studio and she adjusted the equipment so that my voice would be pleasant to the ear. Then after a fast lesson on voice, I proceeded to read my own script. Many times I was stopped and told to put more excitement into my voice, or to sharpen up my diction etc. The finished tape was only about sixteen minutes long, but it took close to two hours to make the tape of the script.

We started the editing process at about 11:30 a.m. and did not finish until 2:00 a.m. As it turned out the edit list that I had prepared was almost useless. Shirley hardly ever used the whole shot that I had planned for the script. She used many cut aways to make the video more visually interesting. She gave me ideas for better camera work, how to make videos more interesting, and how long it takes to edit one little sixteen minute video. She and Garry, my main camera man, deserve most of the credit for the final product.

Now that this video is complete I view all television and movies with new eyes. I can see the cut aways. I know that all that is presented visually may not have happened all at once or even in that sequence. I have new found respect for editors and cameramen. Finally, I found out that video

making is not as much "fun" I a thought. Video making is a

lot of hard and tedious work. I have new respect and

understanding of this process. It is much more than

capturing visual information on a video camera and adding

voice overs and music. It is truly a multifaceted creative

process.

TABLE I

VIDEO SHOT LIST

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Shot List

Tape	Scene	Take	Video Scene	Start at	End at	Visual Display
H-8	1		31	0:00:00	0:01:32	Maria and child during familiar re
H-8	2			0:01:32	0:02:21	Running Record with Bev's voice
H-8	3			0:02:21	0:02:57	Bev Talking
H-8	4			0:02:57	0:03:20	CU Maria's hands
H-8	5			0:03:20	0:03:34	Pan to Bev through the glass, not
H-8	6		33	0:03:34	0:03:54	Bev starts to talk
H-8	7			0:03:54	0:03:55	Teachers respond to Bev
H-8	8		32	0:03:55	0:06:27	CU of Bev
H-8	9			0:06:27	0:06:39	Hands moving as teachers respond
H-8	10			0:06:39	0:07:59	Making and breaking
H-8	10			0:07:59	0:08:20	Making and breaking (not clear)
H-8	11			0:08:20	0:09:31	Writing lesson begins
H-8	12			0:09:31	0:09:48	Student articulating sounds (tongu
H-8	13			0:09:48	0:09:55	"What is going on here?" Bev quest
H-8	15			0:10:28	0:10:35	Zoom out to larger audience
H-8	16			0:10:35	0:11:23	Taking words to fluency (writing 3
H-8	18			0:11:54	0:12:11	Bev adds, "Never teach what is alr
H-8	19			0:12:11	0:12:20	Bev continues.
H-8	20			0:12:20	0:13:06	"...help the child be independent?
H-8	21			0:13:15	13:45	Discussion on what decisions teach
H-8	22			0:13:45	0:14:29	Write on lesson plan as she goes
H-8	23			0:14:29	0:15:03	"Why a cut up sentence?" questions
H-8	24		34	0:15:03	0:17:00	Discussion with teachers

Shot List

Tape	Scene	Take	Video Scene	Start at	End at	Visual Display
H-8	25			0:17:00	0:17:21	Team situation, RR teachers and Cl.
H-8	26			0:17:21	0:18:17	New book "what do you do?"
H-8	27			0:18:17	0:19:17	Focus more on teachers as they dis
H-8	28			0:19:17	0:20:29	Problem solving on text (bad camer.
H-8	29			0:20:29	0:21:10	Bev and talking arms of Linda
H-8	30			0:21:10	0:22:39	Second reading for fluency
H-8	31			0:22:39	0:26:21	Never a perfect lesson Need feedb.
H-8	32			0:26:21	0:26:38	Sense of urgency
H-8	33			0:26:38	0:27:09	Share feedback to help teacher and
H-8	34			0:27:09	0:27:21	Constantly improve
H-8	34			0:27:21`0	0:28:00	Does not stop at the end of first
H-8	36			0:28:00	0:29:00	Continue to grow
H-8	37			0:29:00	0:30:05	Network---help eachother
H-8	38			0:30:05	0:36:50	Amanda's lesson (No sound re-do)
H-8	39			0:36:50	0:39:11	Doris and child make and break
H-8	40		9	0:39:11	0:40:16	Writing lesson "My dog is getting
H-8	41			0:40:16	0:41:16	Close up of writing
H-8	42			0:41:16	0:41:37	Child pointing and reading
H-8	43		8	0:41:37	0:42:43	Letter boxes
H-8	44			0:42:43	0:44:08	Cut up sentence, CU of words
H-8	45			0:44:08	0:44:51	New book introduction
H-8	46		7	0:44:51	0:45:16	Close up of Doris as she introduce
H-8	47		10	0:45:16	0:45:49	Child reading

Shot List

Tape	Scene	Take	Video Scene	Start at	End at	Visual Display
H-8	48			0:45:49	0:46:06	Red interference
H-8	49		43	0:46:06	0:46:46	Spanish Reading Recovery lesson
H-8	50		9/44	0:46:0=46	0:47:14	Introduce new book
H-8	51			0:47:14	0:47:23	Pan to see interactive lesson
H-8	52			0:47:23	0:48:04	Doris and LaShawna make and break
H-8	53		25	0:48:04	0:48:44	Introduce new book
H-8	54		26	0:48:44	0:49:03	Close up of LaShawna reading.
H-8	55		27	0:49:03	0:49:16	MS of LaShawna reading
H-8	56		16	0:49:93	0:4927	LaShawna reading familiar books
H-8	57		17	0:49:27	0:49:46	Close up of hands
H-8	58			0:49:46	0:50:19	Zoom Out ot MX of LaShawna
H-8	59			0:50:19	0:50:43	LaShawna reading familiar book CU
H-8	60			0:50:43	0:51:09	MS and CU of LaShawna
H-8	61			0:51:09	0:51:09	LaShawna and Doris talking
H-8	62			0:51:09	0:51:20	LS of questions chart
H-8	63			0:51:20	0:53:31	CU of Questions Chart
H-8	64			0:53:31	0:53:54	Reading Recovery in Calif. certifi
H-8	65		53	0:53:54	0:54:10	Tena Peterson Principal at Longfel
H-8	66			0:54:10	0:54:51	Program that works, coaching, comm
H-8	67			0:54:51	0:55:14	Used Reading Recovery to infuse o
H-8	68			0:55:14	0:55:38	Base program has been enhanced
H-8	69			0:55:38	0:57:04	Upper grades helped
H-8	70			0:57:04	0:57:90	Jean nodding

Tape	Scene	Take	Video Scene	Start at	End at	Visual Display
H-8	71			0:57:90	1:00:54	Tena talking about 6th grades & r
H-8	72			1:00:54	1:04:10	Long term in performance
H-8	73			1:04:10	1:06:09	Full implementation means
H-8	74		49	1:07:19	1:07:59	Rosemarie Bowers 1st grade teacher
H-8	75			1:07:59	1:08:25	Chapter 1 1-1 help
H-8	76			1:08:05	1:08:25	Pull self up by bootstraps
H-8	77			1:08:25	1:08:57	Doris Ferguson RR & Chapter 1 teac
H-8	78			1:08:57	1:09:09	Early intervention
H-8	79			1:09:09	1:09:28	Take child where his is
H-8	80			1:09:28	1:09:50	Obseerve child so you know them
H-8	81			1:09:50	1:10:18	Teach strategies
H-8	82			1:10:18	1:10:31	What good readers do
H-8	83			1:10:31	1:10:58	Training for teachers
H-8	84			1:10:58	1:11:42	Weekly class, constantly learning
H-8	85			1:11:42	1:11:51	Every child new learning exprienc
H-8	86			1:11:51	1:12:52	1 year of training and after con.
H-8	87		50	1:12:52	1:13:06	Martha Carranza 1st Grade Teacher
H-8	88		51	1:13:06	1:14:20	Spanish readers really enjoy
H-8	89		52	1:14:20	1:14:59	Nancy Tittenhofer RR teacher & Cha
H-8	90			1:14:59	1:16:48	Lesson: familiar re-reading
H-8	91			1:16:48	1:17:35	Using all strategies
H-8	92			1:17:35	1:18:30	Experience "behind the glass"
H-8	93			1:18:36	1:18:43	Kathy Meith RR teacher in Spanish

Shot List

Tape	Scene	Take	Video Scene	Start at	End at	Visual Display
H-8	94			1:19:00	1:20:02	1-1 everyday-memory-never fail
H-8	95			1:20:02	1:20:18	Discontinue: work on independence
H-8	96			1:20:44	1:22:03	Takes bridges: 2 weeks in Tucson
H-8	97		35	1:11:03	1:22:09	CSUSB sign in front of school
H-8	98		36	1:22:09	1:23:39	Pan Right to University Hall
H-8	99		41	1:23:39	1:23:58	Library
H-8	100		42	1:23:58	1:24:22	CU of library zoom out
H-8	101			1:24:22	1:24:51	Pan of library
H-8	102			1:24:51		University Hall
H-8	103			1:24:51	1:25:40	Bobbi's class singing Old McDonald
H-8	104	4		1:25:40	1:26:28	CU of child pointing to words
H-8	105	5		1:26:28	1:28:30	LS reading and pointing to words o
H-8	106			1:27:41	1:28:30	LS reading Old McDonald
H-8	107			1:28:30	1:31:11	Calendar
H-8	108			1:31:11	1:31:22	Reading Jack & the Beanstalk
H-8	109			1:31:22	1:32:13	Bobbi reading pan to children
H-8	110			1:32:13	1:34:06	Pan back to Bobbi
H-8	111			1:34:06	1:37:43	Bobbi reading straight on, backs o
H-8	112	6		1:37:43	1:38:17	Interactive writing "fee-fi-fo-fum
H-8	113	6		138:17	1:39:29	Interactive writing correcting
H-8	114			1:39:29	1:40:14	Watch my mouth Bobbi kneels down
H-8	115			1:40:14	1:45:21	CU of child writing "F" on "fum"
H-8	116			1:45:21	1:45:28	Children working independently

Shot List

Tape	Scene	Take	Video Scene	Start at	End at	Visual Display
H-8	117			1:45:38	1:47:37	CU of children working
H-8	118			1:47:37	1:48:07	Linda Manzo and Jason MS front
H-8	119			1:48:07	1:48:23	CU reading
H-8	120			1:48:23	1:48:52	CU Jason reading Zoom out Pointing
H-8	121			1:48:52	1:49:05	CU Jason reading over the shoulder
H-8	122		19	1:49:05	1:49:19	Running Record over the shoulder s
H-8	123		22	1:49:19	1:49:30	Make and break MS and CU of board
H-8	124		21	1:49:30	1:50:20	Make and Break MS and CU of board
H-8	125			1:50:20	1:50:34	Mixed up
H-8	126			1:50:34	1:51:02	His correct-read with finger
H-8	127			1:51:12	1:51:12	Writing
H-8	128		23	1:51:12	1:51:22	Begin Writing
H-8	129			1:51:22	1:51:51	CU Writing
H-8	130			1:51:51	1:52:48	Over the shoulder shot CU "I made
H-8	131			1:52:48	2:53:13	Finger reading
H-8	132		24	1:53:13	1:53:46	Reading strip and cut up sentence
H-8	133			1:53:46	1:54:39	New book...
H-8	134			1:55:39	1:55:22	Over the shoulder shot of a new bo
H-8	135			1:55:22	1:55:45	Side view of new book
H-8	136			1:55:45	1:56:05	CU of Linda
H-8	137		1	1:56:05	1:56:31	Linda and Amanda clapping
H-8	138		1	1:56:31	1:57:06	CU of pink notes
H-8	139			1:57:06	1:57:16	Interval lesson and playing

Tape	Scene	Take	Video Scene	Start at	End at	Visual Display
H-8	140			1:57:16	1:57:40	CU Amanda's hands
H-8	141			1:57:40	1:58:11	Amanda and Linda working together
H-8	142			1:58:11	1:58:39	Amanda and Linda clapping /metrono
H-8	143			1:58:39	1:58:55	From beginning stop
H-8	144			1:58:55	1:59:20	From beginning again and metronome
H-8	145			1:59:20	1:59:41	Cut in music
H-8	146			1:59:41	1:59:52	Off with metronome
H-8	147			1:59:52	1:59:57	CU of Amanda playing
H-8	148		2	1:59:57	2:00:37	Play all the way
H-8	149			2:00:37	2:01:03	CU hands playing
H-8	150		3	2:01:03	2:01:31	Linda's hand come in to help
1	1			0:00:00	0:00:32	Waiting to start (Maria's Lesson)
1	2			0:00:32	0:01:34	Pre-write at chalk board
1	3			0:01:34	0:02:13	Start lesson writing in salt
1	4			0:01:34	0:02:13	Writing with water bottle
1	5			0:02:43	0:03:09	Writing on magic slate
1	6			0:03:09	0:06:17	Familiar re-reading
1	7			0:06:45	0:10:28	Running record "The Seed"
1	9			0:10:28	0:12:38	Teaching after running record
1	10			0:12:38	0:14:30	Make and break cat-bat-mat
1	11			0:14:30	0:15:14	Writing sentence "I have a new nec
1	12			0:15:14	0:16:03	Words in boxes-sound boxes
1	13			0:16:03	0:16:26	"have" with tongue stuck out

Shot List

Tape	Scene	Take	Video Scene	Start at	End at	Visual Display
1	14			0:16:26	0:19:37	Writing "have" three times
1	15			0:19:37	0:22:19	Cut up sentence
1	16			0:22:19	0:22:48	New book introduction
1	17			0:22:48	0:23:50	Looking at all pictures of new boo
1	18			0:23:50	0:27:30	First reading of new book
1	19			0:27:30	0:30:00	Second reading for fluency
1	20			0:30:00	0:36:15	Inservice lesson-Not visually good
2	1		38	27:20	27:05	Palmetto School training room (gla
2	2			27:05	25:51	Demo room for "behind the glass"
2	3		29	26:51	25:44	Mikki's Testimonial about Jeanette
2	4		37	25:44	25:21	Palmetto School slow pan to left
2	5	1		25:21	24:59	Castle School CU zoom back shakey
2	5	2	39	24:59	24:09	Castle School LS Zoom in CU School
2	6	1		24:09	23:26	Castle School RR training room no
2	6	2	40	23:41	23:26	Castle School RR room with chairs
2	7		30	23:26	22:16	Gail's testimonial
2	8	1		22:16	22:46	Board meeting LS blurry pan right
2	8	2		21:49	21:04	Board members and Sup.
2	8	3		21:04	20:28	MS pan right Board members clappin
2	8	4	45	18:24	17:16	CU School board writing board atte
2	8	5		17:16	15:51	CU sup and sec. writing pan left f
2	8	6	46	15:51	15:43	CU Board members writing and shaki
2	9	1		10:58	10:32	Classroom setting Matt in picture

Shot List

Tape	Scene	Take	Video Scene	Start at	End at	Visual Display
2	9	2		10:20	9:03	Child reading story (sunlight, not
2	10	1	11	9:04	8:42	Matt at desk working
2	10	2	12	8:42	8:27	Mat at desk working LS Zoom in
2	10	3		8:27	7:58	Matt at desk working CU Zoom out
2	11	1	13	7:58	7:14	RR lesson with Matt and Celeste C
2	11	2	14	7:14	6:15	More front Celeste interacting
2	11	3		6:10	5:34	More Interaction CU
2	11	4	15	5:34	4:52	Mostly Celeste listening to Matt i
2	12	1	28	0:04:52	0:01:52	Matt coming home
2	13		47	0:04:25	0:01:52	Matt at home reading
2	14		48	0:01:53	0:01:16	Matt at home with cut up sentence
3	1			0:00:00	0:01:31	Nancy and Robert at chalkboard
3	2			0:01:31	0:03:37	Familiar reading MS obstructed vie
3	3		18	0:03:37	0:04:47	RR "Basket ball" Nancy observing c
3	4			0:04:47	0:06:14	RR CU Nancy & Robert close working
3	5		20	0:06:12	0:07:25	Teaching moment after running reco
3	6			0:07:25	):09:47	Make and break the-them-then
3	7			0:09:47	0:10"30	Writing gets sentence from story r
3	8			0:10:30	0:11:32	Correction tape, Nancy helpes Robe
3	9			0:11:32	0:12:56	Push up sounds in "play"
3	10			0:12:56	0:16:00	"Basketball" Robert hears "b" and
3	11			0:16:00	0:17:01	"Check it and see if you're right.
3	12			0:17:01	0:17:19	Robert re-reading sentence just cr

Shot List

Tape	Scene	Take	Video Scene	Start at	End at	Visual Display
3	13			0:17:19	0:18:29	Cut up sentence (clear) Robert get
3	14			0:18:29	0:21:23	Introduce new book (background noi
3	15			0:21:23	0:24:49	First reading of new text
3	16			0:24:49	0:28:47	Teaching point after first reading
3	17			0:28:47	0:29:16	Take home books

TABLE II

VIDEO EDIT LIST

Edit List

Tape	Scene	Take	Video Scene	Start at	End at	Visual Display
-	-	-	-	new	new	Title pages
H-8	137		1	1:56:05	1:56:15	Amanda, Linda clapping to music
H-8	138		1	1:56:31	1:56:41	CU pink notes
H-8	148		2	1:59:57	2:00:17	Amanda playing the piano
H-8	150		3	2:01:03	2:01:13	Linda's hand coming in to help
H-8	104		4	1:25:40	1:25:57	CU of child pointing to words
H-8	105		5	1:26:28	1:26:55	LS of child pointing
H-8	112		6	1:37:43	1:37:59	Interactive writing
H-8	113		6	1:40:14	1:40:29	CU child writing "f" on "fum"
H-8	46		7	0:44:51	0:45:06	Doris and child making & breaking
H-8	43		8	0:45:16	0:45:49	Doris and child book intro.
H-8	40		9	0:39:11	0:40:16	Child writing
H-8	47		10	0:59:19	0:50:39	La Shawna reading
2	10	1	11	0:08:42	0:09:04	Matt at desk
2	10	2	12	0:08:27	0:08:42	LS Matt at desk, zoom in
2	11	1	13	0:07:14	0:07:58	RR lesson with Matt and Celeste
2	11	2	14	0:05:34	0:06:10	Celeste and Matt talking
2	11	4	15	0:04:52	0:05:52	Matt reading during lesson
H-8	56		16	0:49:16	0:49:27	CU La Shawna reading
H-8	57		17	0:49:27	0:49:46	CU La Shawna pointing
3	3		18	0:03:37	0:04:47	RR "Basketball" and Nancy
H-8	122		19	0:49:05	1:49:19	CU of RR and teacher's hand
3	5		20	0:06:12	0:07:25	Nancy teaching after RR

Edit List

Tape	Scene	Take	Video Scene	Start at	End at	Visual Display
H-8	124		21	1:49:45	1:49:30	Linda and Jason (Make and break)
H-8	123		22	0:47:38	0:47:23	Make and break CU
H-8	128		23	1:51:32	1:51:46	Writing CU
H-8	132		24	1:53:46	1:53:13	Writing and cut up sentence
H-8	53		25	0:48:04	0:48:24	Doris intro. new book
H-8	54		26	0:48:44	0:48:51	LaShawna reading
H-8	55		27	0:48:51	0:49:10	LaShawna reading independently
2	12	1	28	0:04:52	0:01:52	Matt coming home
2	3		29	0:22:51	0:25:44	Micki testimonial
2	7		30	0:23:26	0:22:16	Gayle's testimonial
H-8	1		31	0:00:02	0:01:32	Maria's lesson (familiar reading)
H-8	8		32	0:03:35	0:06:27	Teacher Leader and CU of Bev.
H-8	6		33	0:13:34	0:03:54	Bev starts to talk
H-8	24		34	0:09:55	0:10:28	Dialogue between Bev and Bobbie
H-8	97		35	1:22:03	1:22:09	Scenes CSUSB
H-8	98		36	1:22:09	1:23:39	Shots of the library
2	4		37	0:25:44	0:25:21	Outside Palmetto school
2	1		38	0:27:20	0:27:05	Inside Palmetto RR training room
2	5	2	39	0:24:59	0:24:09	Castle school outside Zoom In
2	6	2	40	0:23:41	0:23:26	Castle school training site
H-8	99		41	1:22:09	1:22:40	Library CSUSB
H-8	100		42	1:24:51	1:25:20	University Hall CSUSB
H-8	49		43	1:46:06	1:46:46	Reading Recovery in Spanish

Edit List

Tape	Scene	Take	Video Scene	Start at	End at	Visual Display
H-8	50		44	1:46:46	1:47:14	R.R. in Spanish cut up sentence
2	8	4	45	1:15:51	1:15:43	CU of school board, being attentive
2	8	6	46	1:15:43	1:14:53	CU school board shaking heads
2	13		47	0:04:25	0:01:52	Matt at home reading
2	14		48	0:01:53	0:01:16	Matt at home with cut up sentence
H-8	74		49	0:07:19	1:07:59	Rose Marie Bowers 1st grade teacher
H-8	87		50	1:12:53	1:13:06	Martha Carranza 1st grade teacher
H-8	88		51	1:13:00	1:14:20	" .
H-8	89		52	1:14:20	1:14:59	Nancy Tittenhofer RR teachr
H-8	65		53	0:54:10	0:55:15	Tena Peterson Principal
H-8	Multi		54	Stills	Stills	Each child/ with Amanda at piano
			55	New	New	Credits

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