THE EMC MIRRORS & WINDOWS: CONNECTING WITH LITERATURE
Professional Resources and Research Base

Instruction in Mirrors & Windows: Connecting with Literature is based on decades of solid research and best practices in language arts education. Following is a list of specific resources that have been instrumental in shaping the series. The resources are grouped according to specific learning areas.

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Teaching Literature


Probst, R. *Response and analysis: Teaching literature in junior and senior high school*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann. Probst expands Rosenblatt’s ideas (below) about the transaction between reader and text.


**Teaching Reading Comprehension**


**Alvermann, D. E. (2001). **Effective literacy instruction for adolescents. Chicago, IL: National Reading Conference. This report was commissioned by the National Reading Conference. It concludes that adolescent readers need literacy instruction embedded in their regular classes and such instruction should include a variety of texts and purposes.


**Armbruster, B. B., and Armstrong, J. O. (1993).** Locating information in text: A focus on children in the elementary grades. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 18*(2), 139–161. The authors review studies on students’ ability to find answers in informational texts. They conclude that students need instruction on how to read informational text and should be given more opportunities to read informational text.


* Borduin, B. J., Borduin, C. M., and Manley, C. M. (1994). The use of imagery training to improve reading comprehension of second graders. *Journal of Genetic Psychology, 155*(1), 115–118. Second graders who were taught how to make mental images as they read scored higher than students without this instruction on tests that measured their ability to make inferences about a text.


Burmark, L. (2002). *Visual literacy: Learn to see, see to learn*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. The author explains, with examples, the importance of teaching students visual literacy in conjunction with literacy skills.


* Christen, W. L. and Murphy, T. J. Increasing comprehension by activating prior knowledge. (1991). Bloomington, IN: ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading, English, and Communication, EDO-CD-91-04. According to this study, preteaching vocabulary and providing background knowledge and conceptual frameworks increases reading comprehension in readers who lack prior knowledge.


**Davey, B. (1983). Think aloud: Modeling the cognitive process of reading comprehension. Journal of Reading, 27(1), 44–47. Davey advises teachers to help students verbalize their thoughts while reading by modeling their own thinking as they read a text aloud. Students taught the technique had better reading comprehension and were better able to transfer the skill to other learning situations than students without explicit instruction.

**Davey, B. and McBride, M. (1986). Effects of question generation on reading comprehension. Journal of Educational Psychology, 78, 2–7. Students trained in question generation strategies were able to generate questions for new passages and scored higher on comprehension tests.

**Dufflemeyer, F. (1994). Effective anticipation guide statements for learning from expository prose. Journal of Reading, 37(6), 452–457. According to this study, statements on anticipation guides should be based on student’s prior knowledge, center on main ideas, and include new ideas.

**Duke, N. K. and Pearson, P. D. (2002). Effective practices for developing reading comprehension. In A. E. Farstrup and S. Jay Samuels, eds. What research has to say about reading instruction. Newark, DE: International Reading Association. The authors describe effective comprehension strategies and note that using even one of the strategies improves comprehension. They stress that teachers should concentrate on teaching a few strategies well.


**Elliott-Faust, D. J. and Pressley, M. (1986). How to teach comparison processing to increase children’s short- and long-term listening comprehension monitoring. Journal of Educational Psychology, 78, 27–33. Students given training on how to compare texts as they listened to them read aloud were able to detect more text errors than students who did not receive the training.


**Fielding, L. C. and Pearson, P. D. (1994). Reading comprehension: What works. Educational Leadership, 52, 62–68. To increase reading comprehension, the authors advise teachers to demonstrate reading strategies, provide opportunities for collaborative learning and discussion, and include extensive reading of student-selected texts.


*Fukkink, J. L. and de Glopper, K. (1998). Effects of instruction in deriving word meaning from context: A meta-analysis. *Review of Educational Research*, 68(4), 450–469. The authors found that students can be taught how to use context clues, and students who used context clues had higher comprehension scores than those who did not.

Gallagher, K. *Deeper reading: Comprehending challenging texts*, 4-12. (2004). Portland, ME: Stenhouse Publishers. This text asserts and gives many examples of how reading activities and scaffolding can affect the depths with which students engage with a text.


Graves, M. F. and Graves, B. B. (1994). *Scaffolding reading experiences: Designs for student success*. Norwood, MA: Christopher-Gordon. The authors provide an instructional procedure that supports students’ reading experiences and guides them to independence. Two appendices help teachers choose materials that match students’ interests and needs.

*Graves, M. F. and Palmer, R. J. (1981). Validating previewing as a method of improving fifth and sixth grade students’ comprehension of short stories. *Michigan Reading Journal*, 15, 1–3. This study found previewing increased students’ ability to answer factual questions about stories, but did not increase their ability to answer inferential questions.

Graves, M. F., Palmer, R. J., and Furniss, D. W. (1976). *Structuring reading assignments for English classes*. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English. The authors review the research on before-, during-, and after-reading activities and present examples of these activities.


*Hansen, J. and Pearson, P. D. (1983). An instructional study: Improving the inferential comprehension of good and poor fourth-grade readers. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 76*(6), 821–829. Students who received training and practice in connecting to their prior knowledge were able to make more inferences about what they had read than students who did not receive the training and practice.

Harvey, S. (2001). *Questioning the Text*. *Instructor, 110*(8), 16–18. Harvey describes successful methods for increasing students’ reading comprehension, including think-alouds, marking the text, and using
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Reading Models and ATE activities help teachers give explicit strategic reading instruction.

Use Text Organization is a reading skill that is practiced in Use Reading Skills in the prereading section.

Monitor Comprehension is a reading skill that is practiced in Use Reading Skills in the prereading section.

Visualize is one of the reading strategies practiced in the Reading Models.

Take Notes is a reading skill that is practiced in Use Reading Skills in prereading. While

sticky notes.


*Idol, L. and Croll, V. J. (1987). Story-mapping training as a means of improving reading comprehension. Learning Disability Quarterly, 10, 214–229. Third and fourth grade students with poor comprehension skills were taught a story-mapping technique that increased their comprehension and their ability to write about the story.


*Kinnunen, R. and Vauras, M. (1995). Comprehension monitoring and the level of comprehension in high- and low-achieving primary school children’s reading. Learning and Instruction, 5(2), 143–165. The authors found that students who monitor their reading progress have better comprehension skills.


*Levin, J. R. and Divine-Hawkins, P. (1974). Visual imagery as a prose-learning process. Journal of Reading Behavior, 6, 23–30. Students taught to use visual imagery have an easier time creating visual images and are able to answer more questions correctly than those without the training.


using this skill, students summarize, take notes, and construct graphic organizers.

and Curriculum Development. Researchers at Mid-continent Research for Education and Learning (McREL) identify nine instructional strategies that enhance student achievement. Among their suggestions are summarizing and note-taking, nonlinguistic representations, and advance organizers.


*Olshavsky, J. E. and Kletzing, K. (1979). Prediction: One strategy for reading success in high school. Journal of Reading, 22(6), 512–516. In this study, good readers were better predictors of story outcomes than were poor readers.


*Pressley, G. M. (1976). Mental imagery helps eight-year-olds remember what they read. Journal of Educational Psychology, 68, 355–359. Students shown how to make mental images in increasingly longer texts were able to correctly answer more short answer questions than students told to simply read and remember.
**EMC’s program provides explicit reading strategy instruction.**

RAND Reading Study Group. (2000). *Reading for understanding: Toward an R & D program in reading comprehension*. Santa Monica, CA: RAND Education. This report summarizes research on reading comprehension. It says that readers need explicit instruction in reading comprehension in order to achieve proficiency.


Rosenblatt, L. (1938, 1996). *Literature as exploration*, 5th ed. New York: MLA. Rosenblatt advocates a reader-response approach in which a text’s meaning arises from the interaction between a specific reader—with his or her own background knowledge, prior experiences, beliefs, and values—and the words on the page.


Shanahan, T. (2002). What reading research says: The promise and limitation of applying research to reading education. In A. E. Farstrup and S. J. Samuels, eds., *What research has to say about reading instruction*, Newark, DE: International Reading Association. The author defines reading research and discusses why it is valuable. A discussion of research-related, research-based, and research-proven categories is included.

Smith, M. W. and Wilhelm, J. D. (2002). “*Reading don’t fix no Chevys*”: Literacy in the lives of young men. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann. This book offers suggestions for increasing boys’ involvement in school-based reading activities. The authors believe it is easier to get boys engaged with shorter texts. Boys tend to prefer ancillary books to textbooks.


*Taylor, K. K. (1986). Summary writing by young children. *Reading Research Quarterly, 21*, 193–207. An examination of the summarizing abilities of good and poor readers showed that poor readers did not know how to summarize expository or narrative text. Good readers used strategies that can be taught to poor readers.


Developmental Education, 9(1), 14–23. The author includes a review of note-taking research and states the importance of a reader’s ability to make summary notes.

Vacca, R. T. (2002). From efficient decoders to strategic readers. Educational leadership, 60, 6–11. The author discusses developing readers’ need for literacy programs that extend across the content areas.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press. Vygotsky is most noted for distinguishing the “zone of proximal development,” or the level of performance at which a student can succeed with support from outside resources, but not on his or her own. This zone is the realm in which the greatest learning can take place.


**Williams, J. P. (2002). Reading comprehension strategies and teacher preparation. In A. E. Farstrup and S. J. Samuels, eds., What research has to say about reading instruction, Newark, DE: International Reading Association. The author discusses reading strategies research and offers suggestions on how teachers can implement the strategies.**

Teaching Vocabulary and Word Study


*Ayers, D. M. (1986).* *English words from Latin and Greek elements*, 2nd ed. Rev. by Thomas D. Worthen. Tucson, AZ: The University of Arizona Press. Ayers provides fifty lessons on the origins of words in English, discussing prefixes, suffixes, and roots as well as acronyms, backformations, hybrids, folk etymology, clipped words, homonyms, and much more. Half of the lessons focus on Latin word elements; the other half focus on Greek. Comprehensive lists of Latin and Greek word parts are included.


**Carey, S. (1978). The child as word learner. In M. Halle, J. Bresman, and G. Miller, eds., *Linguistic theory and psychological reality*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press. In this article, Carey distinguishes between fast mapping and extended mapping of words and suggests that knowledge of individual words increases gradually as one is exposed to each word in different contexts.


Green, J. (1993). *The word wall: Teaching vocabulary through immersion*. Ontario: Pippin. Drawing from his teaching experience, Green presents a wealth of word wall activities. He includes a word wall blueprint and ideas about words students can collect. He suggests that students gather synonyms, antonyms, and homonyms, as well as words that present specific sounds and categories.


Nagy, W. E. (1988). *Teaching vocabulary to improve reading comprehension*. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English. Nagy argues that neither definition nor context alone is sufficient for word learning, but that combining the two can be effective. He identifies the following three qualities of effective vocabulary instruction: integration with knowledge of a broader concept, repetition, and meaningful use.

Rawson, H. (1981, 1995). *Dictionary of euphemisms & other doubletalk*. New York: Crown Publishers. This cross-referenced guidebook to thousands of euphemisms and doubletalk is a good reference for the word study classroom. In his introduction, Rawson distinguishes between honest euphemisms, which are intended to facilitate social discourse, and dishonest euphemisms, or “doubletalk,” which seek to hide or distort the truth.


### Teaching Grammar and Writing


Each chapter is constructed around a single topic, with articles that reflect different disciplines, viewpoints, and ways of writing. In addition to the readings, unique rhetoric provides step-by-step instruction in summarizing, critiquing, and synthesizing, as well as the elements and writing process of the research paper.

author, message, audience, etiquette, and rules in online communications. This text explores ways to teach online literacy.


Hillocks, G., Jr., and Smith, M. W. (2003). *Grammars and literacy learning*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers. Hillock and Smith argue that if knowledge of grammar is to be part of general education, then that grammar should accurately reflect how the language operates. They state that both structural linguistics and transformational/generative grammar are truer to English than traditional school grammar.


Weaver, C. *Teaching grammar in context.* (1996). Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann. Weaver investigates definitions of grammar, how language is naturally acquired, the role of errors in language learning, and the value of teaching grammar in context (during the writing process), rather than in isolation.

### Lesson Planning and Differentiating Instruction

Burke, J. *The English teacher’s companion: A complete guide to classroom, curriculum, and the profession.* (1999). Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann. The author explores a variety of topics and issues related to teaching language arts, including lesson planning and issues surrounding students with special needs.


Forsten, C., Grant, J. and Hollas, B. *Differentiating textbooks: Strategies to improve student comprehension & motivation.* (2003). Peterborough, NL: Crystal Springs Books. This text explains how to differentiate instruction by adapting textbooks, teaching reading strategies, and using graphic organizers and a variety of learning activities.


Press, Inc. Gregory and Chapman offer instructional strategies for students with differing needs and learning styles.


Kobrin, D. In there with the kids: Crafting lessons that connect with students. (2004). Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. The stories Mr. Kobrin shares can be examined to guide teachers in their own lesson planning and interactions with students.


MASTER Teacher, The. (1995). Lesson plans and modifications for inclusion and collaborative classrooms. Manhattan, KS: The MASTER Teacher, Inc. This resource includes lesson plans for K–12 teachers that meet the needs of special needs students.


Rominger, L., Laughrea, S. P., and Elkin, N. (2001). Your first year as a high school teacher: Making the transition from total novice to successful professional. Roseville, CA: Prima Publishing. The authors encourage new teachers to create a learning-centered environment and stress the importance of effective classroom management.

Strickland, D.S. and Alvermann, D.E., eds. (2004). Bridging the literacy achievement gap grades 4-12. New York: Teachers College Press. This book offers a variety of programs and approaches to reaching and teaching students of varying abilities and from diverse backgrounds.

Tomlinson, C. A. (2001). How to differentiate instruction in mixed-ability classrooms. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. Considered the authoritative text on differentiated instruction, this book outlines more than 20 types of differentiated instruction, from learning centers to orbital studies, and gives examples of how teachers have applied these techniques.
to the content areas.


### Facilitating Transfer of Learning


Salomen, G. and Perkins, D. N. (1994). *Rocky roads to transfer: Rethinking mechanisms of a neglected phenomenon*. *Educational Psychologist, 24*(2), 113–142. This article defines “low road” and “high road” transfer and outlines the conditions necessary for each to take place.

### Facilitating Collaborative Learning


*Kuhn, D. (1972). Mechanism of change in development of cognitive structures. *Child Development, 43*, 833–844. Kuhn recommends cooperative learning based on research findings that students learn most effectively from tutors who are closest to them in development and knowledge level.

Recommending flexible grouping over ability grouping, Opitz offers concrete strategies for managing flexible groups.


*Schell, L. L. and Rouch, R. L. (1988).* The low reading group: An instructional and social dilemma. *Journal of Reading Education, 14*, 18–23. Schell and Rouch were among the first researchers to investigate the negative effects of ability grouping on struggling readers. They advocate substituting heterogeneous grouping whenever possible.


*Wittrock, M. C. (1978).* The cognitive movement in instruction. *Educational Psychologist, 13*, 15–29. Wittrock finds that students learn most when they are required to elaborate on, paraphrase, summarize, or otherwise manipulate information they have been presented.

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**Developing Questioning, Thinking, and Listening Skills**

Bloom, B. S., ed. (1956). *Taxonomy of educational objectives: The classification of educational goals, Handbook I, cognitive domain*. New York: Longmans, Green. This seminal work creates a hierarchical framework for categorizing thinking skills. Educators use Bloom’s structure to write discussion questions and test items that develop higher-level thinking skills.


**Rigor in the Classroom**

American Diploma Project, The. Do Graduation Tests Measure up? A Closer Look at State High School Exit Exams. Washington, DC: Achieve, Inc., 2004. About one-half of states have high school exit exams. Based on their study, Achieve, Inc. concluded that most exit exams measure only a fraction of the knowledge and skills essential for success, they cannot measure everything that matters, and they need to be strengthened over time.

American Diploma Project, The. Ready or Not: Creating a High School Diploma that Counts. Achieve, Inc., 2004. This study determined that there need to be stronger links between high school and post-high school life. It concluded that more than half of all college freshmen need to take at least one remedial course, fewer than half of the students who begin college actually earn a degree, and high school graduates lack basic employment skills, especially in literacy and critical thinking.


Expectations Gap, The: A 50-State Review of High School Graduation Requirements. Achieve, Inc., 2004. This study shows that nearly 40 percent of college freshman are not prepared for college-level coursework, and high school students are not prepared to enter the workforce upon graduation. College readiness includes preparing students in language, communication (speaking and listening), writing, research, logic (thinking critically), informational text (interpreting, synthesizing, using), media (evaluating), and literature (analyzing).

Honawar, V. “Report: High Schools Must Demand More.” Education Week 24 (16), 2005. This article encourages high schools to require all students to take four years of rigorous coursework in math and English.

Jago, C. With rigor for all. (2000). Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann. Jago stresses the importance of challenging all readers with sophisticated literature, using scaffolding and teaching strategies that will enable them to be successful with these texts.
and will broaden their learning.

Jofrus, S. Every Child a Graduate: A Framework for and Excellent Education for all Middle and High School Students. Alliance for Excellent Education, 2002. About 25 percent of all high school students read “below basic” levels, affecting all areas of achievement. Jofrus recommends literacy instruction throughout middle and high school, more knowledgeable teachers, college preparation plans for all students (rigorous curriculum), and smaller schools.


Milewski, G.B., et al. A Survey to Evaluate the Alignment of the New SAT Writing and Critical Reading Sections to Curricula and Instructional Pieces (Report No. 2005-1). College Board, 2005. This paper focuses on “the current state of English/language arts curricula and instructional practices.” It also outlines the changes made to the SAT test, including the addition of “Critical Reading.”


National Commission on Writing. The Neglected “R”: The Need for a Writing Revolution. College Board, 2003. Most students cannot write as well as expected in college or the workplace (“precise, engaging, and coherent”). Issues addressed by this study include time spent on writing, kinds of writing assessments used, use of technology, and teacher training.

National Education Summit on High Schools. An Action Agenda for Improving America’s High Schools. Achieve, Inc. and National Governors Association, 2005. In order to prepare students for the workforce, high schools should require four years of rigorous English, gear tests toward college and work readiness, require all students to learn rigorous content, offer additional support to underperforming students, and improve teachers’ knowledge and skills.

National High School Alliance. A Call to Action: Transforming High School for All Youth. Institute of Educational Leadership, Inc, 2005. This report focuses on transforming high schools by fostering higher academic achievement, closing the achievement gap, and promoting civic and personal growth so that all students are ready for college and the work force.

In this article, the NCTE Writing Study Group outlines eleven principles employed by effective writing teachers. The article includes ideas for practical application of these principles.
Olson, L. “States Target High Schools for Change.” Education Week 8 February 2005. According to this article, more states are trying to define a core curriculum beginning in middle school that prepares all students for work and college. It suggests new (more rigorous) graduation requirements and exit exams that better measure work and college readiness.

Paek, P. L., et al. A Portrait of Advanced Placement Teachers’ Practices (Report No. 2005-7). College Board, 2005. This study focuses on the practices and needs of AP U.S. history and biology teachers, but also applies to language arts. An issue addressed in the study is that of AP test preparation. The main difficulty AP teachers face is how to balance test preparation with helping students gain more than a surface understanding of concepts.

Rising to the Challenge: Are High School Graduates Prepared for College and Work? A Study of Recent High School Graduates, College Instructors, and Employers. Peter D. Hart Research Associates/Public Opinion Strategies prepared for Achieve, Inc., Feb. 2005. This study highlights gaps between high school education and college and workforce readiness. Suggested actions include more rigorous student testing and requiring all students to take more challenging courses.

Sanoff, A.P. “Survey: High School Fails to Engage Students.” USA Today 9 May 2005: D5. A survey by Indiana University reveals that the amount and type of coursework required in high schools is not rigorous enough to prepare students for the output required in college. The result is that many students end up in remedial programs upon entering postsecondary institutions.