

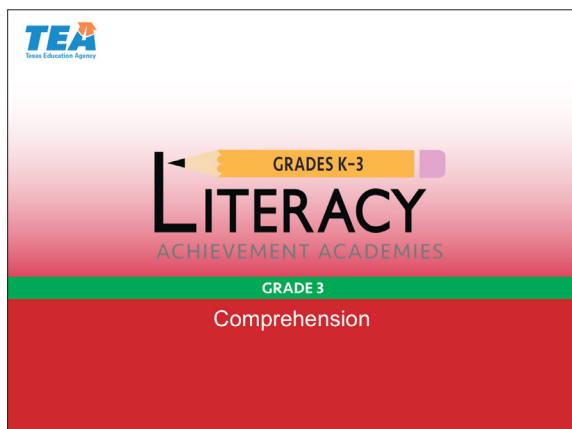


Comprehension

Participant Notes




GRADE 3



Section Objectives

This session will enhance your knowledge of explicit and effective instructional practices for


- building students' background knowledge,
- developing students' ability to make inferences,
- applying comprehension strategies, and
- creating an engaging and motivating environment for practicing reading comprehension.



The Importance of Comprehension

"Reading is a complex process that develops over time ... Emphasize text comprehension from the beginning, rather than waiting until students have mastered 'the basics' of reading ... Beginning readers, as well as more advanced readers, must understand that the ultimate goal of reading is comprehension."

— National Institute for Literacy, 2001, p. 55




What We Know From Research: Use Read-Alouds

Read-Alouds

Model and practice comprehension


Build content area knowledge

Develop higher-level vocabulary and thinking skills



Using Effective Questioning and Thinking Aloud: Example


- Which **Level 2 vocabulary words** would you explicitly teach?
- What **background knowledge** would students need to understand this passage?
- What **specific thinking processes** could you teach with this text (e.g., comprehension strategies, inference making, character analysis)?
- **Where would you stop to ask questions** to get students thinking deeply about what's happening in the text?
- **What questions** would you ask in these places?



Include High-Quality Discussions

“Such discussions...go beyond simply asking and answering surface-level questions to a more thoughtful exploration of the text. Through this type of exploration, students learn how to argue for or against points raised in the discussion, resolve ambiguities in the text, and draw conclusions or inferences about the text.”

— Shanahan et al., 2010, p. 23



High-Quality Discussions

- Select a text that allows for compelling discussions. Be sure to consider your instructional purpose and specific student needs.
- Develop questions that go beyond the text's surface level.
- Have follow-up questions prepared to help students delve deeper into a text's meaning.
- Have students work in structured small groups to think more critically and independently about a text.



Planning Effective Read-Alouds to Support Diverse Learners



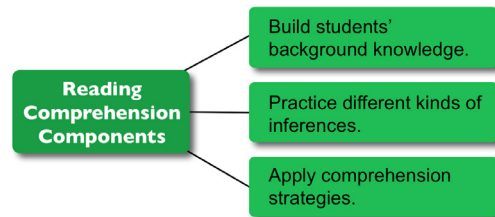
What We Know From Research: Comprehension Processes

"The teacher needs to consider not only which comprehension skills a child will benefit from most, but also how those might fruitfully be combined with other skills to develop that child's comprehension overall...The teacher needs to know about the component processes of reading comprehension to teach them when they are relevant, not in a fixed order."

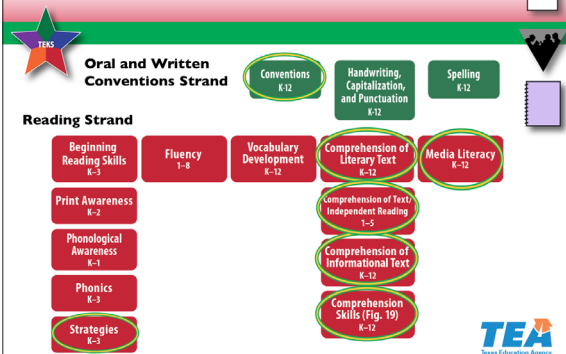
— Oakhill, Cain, & Elbro, 2015, p. 110



Reading Comprehension: Components



English Language Arts and Reading TEKS



Building Students' Background Knowledge

“All aspects of a skill grow and develop as subject-matter familiarity grows. So we kill several birds with one stone when we teach skills by teaching stuff. Moreover, there is evidence that by teaching solid content in reading classes we increase students’ reading comprehension more effectively than by any other method.”

— Hirsch, 2003, p. 28



Importance of Background Knowledge: Example

The procedure is quite simple. First you arrange things into different groups. Of course, one pile may be sufficient depending on how much there is to do. If you have to go somewhere else due to a lack of facilities, that is the next step. Otherwise, you are pretty well set. It is important not to overdo things. That is, it is better to do too few things at once than too many. In the short run this may not seem important, but complications can easily arise. A mistake can be expensive as well. At first the whole procedure will seem complicated. Soon, however, it will become just another facet of life.

— Bransford & Johnson, 1972, p. 722



Importance of Background Knowledge: Example

Doing Laundry

The procedure is quite simple. First you arrange things into different groups. Of course, one pile may be sufficient depending on how much there is to do. If you have to go somewhere else due to a lack of facilities, that is the next step. Otherwise, you are pretty well set. It is important not to overdo things. That is, it is better to do too few things at once than too many. In the short run this may not seem important, but complications can easily arise. A mistake can be expensive as well. At first the whole procedure will seem complicated. Soon, however, it will become just another facet of life.

— Bransford & Johnson, 1972, p. 722




Building Background Knowledge

- To build background knowledge, use content-rich texts to teach reading.
- Additionally, select and read texts within a theme.
 - Use texts from various genres.
 - Explicitly make connections across texts.
 - Use graphic organizers to model connections.




Building Background Knowledge: Use Texts Across Genres

Literary Texts	<ul style="list-style-type: none">Folktales, fables, fairy tales, myths, legendsPoetryFictionLiterary nonfictionDrama
Nonfiction Texts	<ul style="list-style-type: none">Expository essaysProcedural textsPersuasive pieces
Media	<ul style="list-style-type: none">AdvertisementsNewspapersWebsites



Building Background Knowledge: Content-Rich Texts Within a Theme


- What themes and topics can you plan?
 - Science topics
 - Themes related to historical events or figures, current events, etc.
 - Themes related to social or emotional issues, relationships, community, or family
- What texts can you use within each?
 - Literary texts (fiction, poetry, etc.)
 - Informational texts (expository essays, persuasive essays, etc.)



Making Inferences

“Inference-making involves making connections and/or seeing elements of meaning that are not directly stated.”

— Carlisle & Rice, 2002, p. 27



Practicing Different Kinds of Inferences

- For effective readers, inferences usually occur automatically.
- Inferences can occur both within a text and across texts.
- Text structure can be used to build meaning.
- Readers must fill in gaps within a text by using background knowledge.

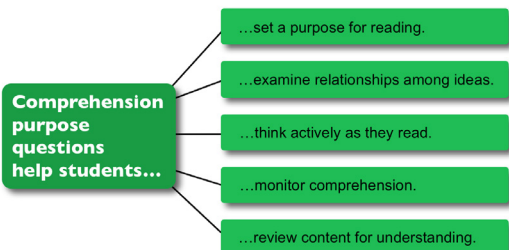


Examining Text Structures to Support Making Inferences

- For narratives:
 - Discuss relationships among characters, setting, and events.
 - If possible, link relationships to a broader theme.
- For informational texts:
 - Look for specific structures, like sequence or compare and contrast.
 - Use key words to identify text structure.
- Graphic organizers to analyze text structures:
 - Story maps
 - Character analysis charts
 - Webs, flow charts, Venn diagrams, etc.



Using Comprehension Purpose Questions to Support Making Inferences



Using Comprehension Purpose Questions



- Read the description of comprehension purpose questions.
- Underline words and phrases that help you answer this comprehension purpose question:
What is important to remember when setting a comprehension purpose question?
- Apply what you learned.



Teaching Inference: Using Effective Questioning and Thinking Aloud



- Plan a read-aloud with a specific purpose or theme in mind.
- Find places in the text to ask questions or think aloud about ideas related to the purpose or theme.
- Plan questions or think-alouds for each place.
- Allow students to discuss their thinking.
- After reading the text, tie ideas together in a discussion of the purpose or theme.



Activating Background Knowledge

- Done at a brisk pace before reading a text
- Can be taught by having students skim a text to determine the topic and then brainstorm what they already know about the topic



Teaching How to Fill the Gaps



- Think aloud to model making inferences when reading.
- Ask yourself questions as you read and have students help you answer those questions.
- Have students practice connecting what they read to what they already know by using an inference chart.



Comprehension Strategies



- Creating sensory images
- Making predictions
- Monitoring comprehension
- Identifying important information
- Summarizing
- Asking and answering questions



Comprehension Strategies (cont.)

What a Strategy Is

- Intentional mental actions during reading that improve reading comprehension
- Deliberate efforts by a reader to better understand or remember what is being read

What a Strategy Is Not


- Instructional activities such as worksheets, which rarely include instruction on what students should do to improve comprehension
- Practice of skills such as sequencing or drawing conclusions that lacks explicit instruction on how to think in these ways during reading



Application Is Key

“Teachers should explain to students how to use several strategies that have been shown to improve reading comprehension because different strategies cultivate different kinds of thinking...Teachers should explain how the strategies can help the students learn from text—as opposed to having them memorize the strategies—and how to use the strategies effectively.”


— Shanahan et al., 2010, p. 12



Applying Comprehension Strategies: Creating Sensory Images

Creating a mental image of what is described in the text


- Helps poor readers, especially those with memory difficulties
- Can be used with both literary and nonfiction texts, but works best with literary texts
- Should be combined with other strategies like identifying important information and generating questions



Applying Comprehension Strategies: Making Predictions

Connecting textual information with prior knowledge to anticipate what will happen or what will be learned next in a text

- Can be used both before reading to activate background knowledge and during reading to make elaborative inferences
- Should be combined with other strategies like identifying important information and generating questions



Applying Comprehension Strategies: Monitoring Comprehension



Attending to a breakdown in comprehension and doing something about it

- Requires reader to actively build a mental model based on text information
- Requires a need for coherence—a reader must care that comprehension has broken down to do something about it
- Uses “fix-up” strategies, including creating sensory images and questioning



Applying Comprehension Strategies: Identifying Important Information



Putting together details and ideas in text to figure out what is most important to focus on and learn

- Begin by teaching retelling and paraphrasing.
- As students master these strategies, teach them how to distinguish main ideas from details.
- Teach students a specific strategy for identifying main ideas. One example is get the gist.



Applying Comprehension Strategies: Summarizing



Putting together the most important pieces of information from across a text and saying or writing them succinctly

- Make an explicit connection between the main idea strategy and writing a summary.
- Explicitly teach summary writing to improve both reading comprehension and writing.



Applying Comprehension Strategies: Asking and Answering Questions



Developing and answering questions about information in a text

- Have students practice this strategy both during and after reading.
- Explicitly teach students how to ask questions at different levels.
 - “Right there” questions
 - “Think and search” questions
 - “Author and me” questions



What Have We Learned So Far?



Snowball Fight

1. Think about one thing you have learned related to comprehension instruction.
2. Write it on a sheet of notebook paper.
3. Crumple it into a ball.
4. Stand up and form a circle with your fellow participants.
5. Throw your ball into the middle of the circle.
6. Pick up a snowball and be ready to read it to the group.



Explicit Comprehension Strategy Instruction

- Start with simpler texts and then move to more complex texts.
- Model how to use the strategy through think-alouds (“I do”).
 - Identify places in the text to stop and think aloud.
 - Tell students that you will stop occasionally to talk about what you are thinking.
 - As you read, stop in the places you have marked to ask questions and share your thinking.



Explicit Comprehension Strategy Instruction (cont.)



- During or after reading, fill out a graphic organizer to summarize your thinking.
- After you model a strategy and have students practice it with you many times, have them practice it in partners or small groups ("We do").
- Have students practice a strategy by itself, but eventually put it together with other strategies for students to use together ("We do" and "You do").



Create a Motivating Context for Teaching Reading Comprehension



- Help students understand the purpose and benefits of reading.
- Create opportunities for students to see themselves as successful readers.
- Provide students reading choices.
- Provide students the opportunity to learn by collaborating with their peers.



Systematic Comprehension Instruction




- Use read-alouds with effective questioning, thinking aloud, and student discussions.
- Build students' background knowledge.
- Explicitly teach and have students practice using comprehension strategies.
- Create an engaging and motivating environment for teaching and practicing reading comprehension.




Consider Diversity: English Language Learners

- English language learners can learn to derive meaning from texts and practice using language to discuss texts.
- Scaffold instruction to promote language comprehension and use.
 - Take into account students' different levels of English proficiency.
 - Consider prior knowledge and explain unfamiliar terms and topics.
 - Explicitly teach and model comprehension strategies.
 - Monitor understanding frequently.




Assessing Comprehension

- Use formal assessments, such as the following:
 - Retelling what is remembered from a text that's been read
 - Completing cloze or maze assessments
 - Answering multiple-choice questions
 - Responding to open-ended response questions orally or in writing
- Also use informal assessments, such as the following:
 - Listening to student discussions
 - Examining student responses on graphic organizers



Taking a Closer Look

- Examine the comprehension lesson in Handout 20.
- Work with your tablemates to complete Handout 21.



Remember

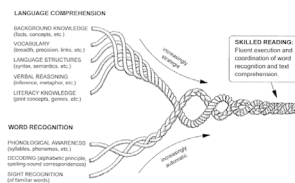
“It is a mistake to assume that having learned about various procedures or strategies to aid comprehension and learning, the teacher’s job is done. A comprehensive plan is needed. A teacher needs to map out the curricular goals for a course, and then plans for units and specific lessons can be made.”

— Carlisle & Rice, 2002, p. 6



The Reading Rope

How do these instructional practices benefit English language learners, struggling students, and gifted students?



Scarborough, 2001



My Synthesis and Summary

Three to four **example activities and lessons** you want to use

Three to four **workstation ideas**

Comprehension

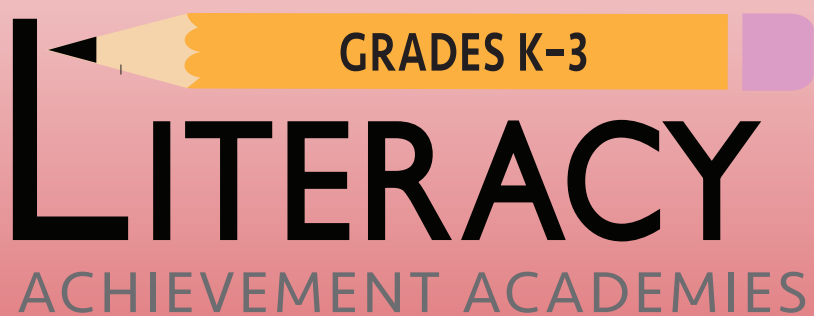
Two to three ideas you want to use with **struggling learners**

At least one scaffold you will provide to **English language learners** who need it



Comprehension

Handouts



GRADE 3

Initial Planning for a Read-Aloud

Excerpt From *Dear Juno* by Soyung Pak

Juno watched as the red and white blinking lights soared across the night sky like shooting stars, and waited as they disappeared into faraway places. Juno wondered where they came from. He wondered where they were going. And he wondered if any of the planes came from a little town near Seoul where his grandmother lived, and where she ate persimmons every evening before bed.

Juno looked at the letter that came that day. It was long and white and smudged. He saw the red and blue marks on the edges and knew the letter came from far away. His name and address were neatly printed on the front, so he knew the letter was for him. But best of all, the special stamp on the corner told Juno that the letter was from his grandmother.

Through the window Juno could see his parents. He saw bubbles growing in the sink. He saw dirty dishes waiting to be washed. He knew he would have to wait for the cleaning to be done before his parents could read the letter to him.

"Maybe I can read the inside, too," Juno said to his dog, Sam. Sam wagged his tail. Very carefully, Juno opened the envelope. Inside, he found a letter folded into a neat, small square.

He unfolded it. Tucked inside were a picture and a dried flower.

Juno looked at the letters and words he couldn't understand. He pulled out the photograph. It was a picture of his grandmother holding a cat. He pulled out the red and yellow flower. It felt light and gentle like a dried leaf. Juno smiled. "C'mon, Sam," Juno said. "Let's find Mom and Dad."

"Grandma has a new cat," Juno said as he handed the letter to his mother. "And she's growing red and yellow flowers in her garden."

"How do you know she has a new cat?" Juno's father asked.

"She wouldn't send me a picture of a strange cat," said Juno.

"I guess not," said Juno's father.

"How do you know the flower is from her garden?" asked Juno's mother.

"She wouldn't send me a flower from someone else's garden," Juno answered.

"No, she wouldn't," said Juno's mother.

Then Juno's mother read him the letter.

Notes on Teaching Comprehension With *Dear Juno* Excerpt

Level 2 vocabulary to teach	
Background knowledge to develop	
Thinking processes to teach	
Places to stop and ask questions	<p>In the text, write a 1 next to the first place you would stop to query students. Then, write a 2 in the next place, a 3 in the next place, etc.</p> <p>In the row below, write the initial questions you would ask to get students thinking deeply about the text and the preferred student response.</p>
Questions to get students thinking deeply about the text	<p>1</p> <p>Student response:</p> <p>2</p> <p>Student response:</p> <p>3</p> <p>Student response:</p> <p>4</p> <p>Student response:</p> <p>5</p> <p>Student response:</p>

Guidelines for High-Quality Discussions

Select a text that allows for compelling discussions. Be sure to consider your instructional purpose and specific student needs.

When using a narrative text, consider one with a character who faces a conflict so students can discuss both sides of the conflict and debate the character's motivations and actions.

When using an informational text, find one that describes a real-world problem that presents a dilemma for students to discuss and possibly argue different sides.

Consider different types of thinking when students discuss the text, including the following.

Type of Thinking	Description
Locate and recall	Locate specific facts or details; identify important information and supporting details; find story elements such as characters and setting.
Integrate and interpret	Make connections across parts of a text; compare and contrast information or story elements; use mental images; consider alternative ideas or explanations for what's in a text.
Critique and evaluate	Assess a text from various perspectives; synthesize what's in one text with other texts and experiences; determine the theme of a text; decide on what's significant within a text; judge whether a text and its features effectively accomplish a purpose.

When reading a text aloud, discussions should allow students to develop higher-level thinking processes like integration, interpretation, and evaluation.

Develop questions that go beyond the text's surface level.

These questions focus on what students will think about in relation to the text.

Move beyond locate and recall questions to higher-level questions that require students to integrate text information with their background knowledge and to assess a text's purpose, effectiveness, and significance.

Example question stems	Your question stems
Why did _____? What do you think _____? If you were the author, _____? What does _____ remind you of and why?	

Ejemplos de preguntas	Sus preguntas
<p>¿Por qué _____?</p> <p>¿Por qué crees tú que _____?</p> <p>Si tu fueras el autor, _____?</p> <p>¿Qué te recuerda _____ y por qué?</p>	

Both the teacher and students can use these question stems when asking questions.

Have follow-up questions prepared to help students delve deeper into a text's meaning.

Often, students struggle with the initial question asked about a text, especially a question that requires them to make several connections within or across texts.

Be prepared with follow-up questions to help students clarify their thinking, elaborate on their responses, and tie these responses directly to the text.

Example follow-up questions and stems	Your follow-up questions and stems
<p>That's what the text says, but what does that mean? (Use this question when a student simply repeats a text word for word.)</p> <p>What makes you say that?</p> <p>What happened in the text that makes you think that?</p> <p>Can you explain what you meant when you said _____?</p> <p>Do you agree with what _____ said? Why or why not?</p> <p>How does what you said connect with what _____ already said?</p> <p>Let's see whether what we read provides us with any information that can resolve _____ and _____'s disagreement.</p> <p>What does the author say about that?</p>	

Ejemplos de preguntas para llegar a una discusión más compleja	Sus preguntas para discusión
<p>Eso es lo que dice en el texto, pero, ¿qué significa eso? (a utilizarse cuando un estudiante repite el texto palabra por palabra)</p> <p>¿Por qué dices eso?</p> <p>¿Qué pasó en el texto que te hace pensar eso?</p> <p>¿Puedes explicar qué quieres decir cuando dijiste _____?</p> <p>¿Estás de acuerdo con lo que _____ dijo? ¿Por qué sí o por qué no?</p> <p>¿Cómo se relaciona lo que dices con lo que _____ ya dijo?</p> <p>Vamos a ver si lo que leímos nos puede dar información que pueda resolver el desacuerdo entre _____ y _____.</p> <p>¿Qué es lo que dice el autor sobre eso?</p>	

Rather than following the typical cycle of teacher asks a question, student answers, teacher evaluates, teacher asks another question, etc., these questions can be used by the teacher and students to create a collaborative discussion.

Have students work in structured small groups to think more critically and independently about a text.

As students become more proficient at these discussions, allow for more time to be spent in student-led discussion groups.

Group students who are strong readers and proficient at discussions with students who are less strong readers and less proficient at discussions.

The following are a few other suggestions for setting up and using these student-led groups:

- Start with shorter discussions and gradually increase the discussion time.
- Establish and model discussion rules (e.g., taking turns, not interrupting, staying on task). Use a rules chart as a reminder during discussions.
- One rule to consider is not allowing students to talk more than three times until everyone has spoken. Use chips for students to turn in each time they talk. Once they're out of chips, they have to listen without speaking until everyone has turned in at least one chip.
- Assign roles to students in each group to ensure full participation.
- Give students higher-order questions or pictures to discuss with a partner before moving into small groups.
- After reading a text aloud, ask students to reflect on the text by drawing or writing in a journal. Explain that the journal entries should relate to questions or issues that they'd like to discuss later.
- Have students create their own questions using question stems like the ones listed above. Have students take turns asking their questions.

Adapted from Beck & McKeown, 2006; National Assessment Governing Board, 2008; Santoro et al., 2008; Shanahan et al., 2010

Read-Aloud Cycle

Preparation for Each Text

Choose a narrative or informational text, “chunk” it into sections of 200 to 250 words, and for each chunk, select three or four vocabulary concepts that students do not already know. Use a culturally responsive lens when selecting texts.

Before Reading

Repeat the routine daily until the text is complete.

STEP 1: Preview the selection and introduce the three to four vocabulary words for today’s chunk of text. Use nonlinguistic representations and contextualized examples to teach the words. Activate students’ prior knowledge and make predictions.

During Reading

STEP 2: Read the selection aloud to students without stopping, using appropriate prosody and expression.

STEP 3: Have students retell the text and make one inference, scaffolding their use of target vocabulary when possible. Ensure that all students have opportunities to use and practice language through pair interactions.

STEP 4: Reread the text, directing students to listen for target vocabulary and discuss meaning. Guide students in creating their own sentences using the vocabulary word.

After Reading

STEP 5: Extend comprehension through deep processing of vocabulary knowledge and text content. Have students turn and talk about the text in relation to their lives. Together with students write a gist statement that gives the main idea for that chunk of text. Extend comprehension by having students write in a reader’s response journal. Use prompts such as, “What do you think will happen next in the story? Write a prediction in your journal.”

Last Day for Each Text

Choose four to five vocabulary words from previous days that were particularly challenging and in need of further study. Reread or retell the entire story.

Adapted from Hickman, Pollard-Durodola, & Vaughn, 2004. Used with permission from Project ELITE, The Meadows Center for Preventing Educational Risk, 2016. For more information, visit www.elitetexas.org.

Rutina para leer y discutir libros

Preparación para cada libro

Escoja un texto narrativo o expositivo, sepárelo en secciones de 200 a 250 palabras, y para cada sección, seleccione tres o cuatro conceptos o términos (palabras de vocabulario) que los estudiantes no conozcan. Seleccione los libros teniendo en cuenta los intereses y las culturas representadas por los estudiantes.

Antes de la lectura

Repita esta rutina diaria hasta que el libro se termine de leer.

1er PASO: Presente el libro e introduzca tres o cuatro palabras de vocabulario para la sección del libro para este día. Utilice representaciones no-lingüísticas y ejemplos contextualizados para enseñar las palabras.

Durante la lectura

2do PASO: Lea la sección a los estudiantes sin detenerse, utilizando prosodia y expresión apropiadas.

3er PASO: Pida a los estudiantes que recuenten la historia, deduciendo y ayudándolos a utilizar el vocabulario cuando sea necesario.

4to PASO: Relea el texto, pidiéndole a los estudiantes que pongan atención a las palabras del vocabulario a enseñarse y repase el significado.

Después de la lectura

5to PASO: Desarrolle la comprensión a través del procesamiento a fondo del vocabulario y el contenido del texto.

Ultimo día para cada texto

Escoja cuatro o cinco palabras de los días anteriores que fueron particularmente difíciles y que necesiten más repaso. Relea o discuta toda la historia.

Adaptado de Hickman, Pollard-Durodola, & Vaughn, 2004. Utilizado con permiso de Project ELITE, The Meadows Center for Preventing Educational Risk, 2016. Para mayor información, visite www.elitetexas.org.

Sample Read-Aloud Lessons

Title: *A Bad Case of Stripes*

Author: David Shannon

Vocabulary and Stems	Questions	Example Gist	Lesson Closure
Chunk 1: pages 1–11			
<p><i>examine</i>: To look at something carefully and thoroughly because you want to find out more about it</p> <p><i>outfit</i>: A set of clothes worn together, especially for a special occasion</p> <p><i>twitching</i>: Making a small, sudden movement</p> <p>The doctor examines ____.</p> <p>My favorite outfit is ____.</p> <p>I can twitch my ____.</p>	<p>Why do you think the students called Camilla a crayon?</p> <p>How do you think Camilla is feeling? Why?</p>	<p>While Camilla was getting ready for school, she was worried about what other kids would think of her outfit. She screamed when she looked in the mirror and was covered with stripes. She stayed home so a doctor could examine her.</p>	<p>What do you predict will happen tomorrow?</p> <p>Turn to your partner and tell him or her about it.</p> <p>Write about it in your reading response journal.</p>
Chunk 2: pages 12–19			
<p><i>mumbled</i>: Said something too quietly or not clearly enough, so that other people cannot understand you</p> <p><i>experts</i>: People who have a special skill or special knowledge of a subject, gained through training or experience</p> <p><i>specialists</i>: People who know a lot about a subject or are very skilled at it</p> <p>People mumble because ____.</p> <p>Some types of experts are ____.</p> <p>A specialist is someone who ____.</p>	<p>Why were the students afraid to be in the same classroom as Camilla?</p> <p>How do you think Camilla felt when the specialists and experts came? Why?</p>	<p>The kids at school made fun of Camilla and she was a distraction so the principal asked that she stay home. Specialists and experts came to try to get rid of her stripes.</p>	<p>What do you predict will happen in the story tomorrow?</p> <p>Turn to your partner and tell him or her about it.</p> <p>Write about it in your reading response journal.</p>

Vocabulary and Stems	Questions	Example Gist	Lesson Closure
Chunk 3: pages 20–27			
<p><i>cure:</i> A medicine or medical treatment that makes an illness go away</p> <p><i>recognize:</i> To know who someone is or what something is</p> <p><i>sob:</i> To cry noisily while breathing in short, sudden bursts</p> <p>A cure is _____.</p> <p>People couldn't recognize Camilla because _____.</p> <p>She began sobbing because _____.</p>	<p>Why did Camilla's mom sob?</p> <p>Do you think the woman at the door will be able to help Camilla? How do you think the woman will help Camilla?</p>	<p>No one could figure out a cure for Camilla's stripes and people could barely recognize her. Camilla's mom began to sob when things just kept getting worse.</p>	<p>What do you predict will happen in the story tomorrow? Why?</p> <p>Turn to your partner and tell him or her about it.</p> <p>Write about it in your reading response journal.</p>
Chunk 4: pages 28–32			
<p><i>container:</i> Something such as a box or bowl that you keep things in</p> <p><i>compared:</i> Examined or judged two or more things to show how they were similar or different</p> <p><i>vanished:</i> Disappeared suddenly, especially in a way that cannot be easily explained</p> <p>A container can hold _____.</p> <p>I can compare _____.</p> <p>The stripes vanished because _____.</p>	<p>How has Camilla's feelings toward lima beans changed in the story? How do you know?</p> <p>Why do you think the author wrote this story?</p>	<p>A woman came to the door with a container of lima beans. Camilla ate the lima beans and her stripes vanished. She learned that she shouldn't worry about what other people think.</p>	<p>Have you ever been nervous or embarrassed about something?</p> <p>Turn to your partner and tell him or her about it.</p> <p>Write about it in your reading response journal.</p>

Title: *Alexander and the Terrible, Horrible, No Good, Very Bad Day* **Author:** Judith Viorst

Vocabulary and Stems	Questions	Example Gist	Lesson Closure
Chunk 1: pages 1–9			
<i>scrunched:</i> To squeeze into a small space <i>invisible:</i> Something that cannot be seen You can be scrunched in _____. Something I would like to do if I were invisible is _____.	What decisions does Alexander make in the morning that start his day off bad? Why do you think Alexander blames others for what happens to him?	Alexander has a bad morning when his actions lead to bad things happening. He feels sorry for himself and wishes he was in Australia.	What do you predict will happen next in the story? Turn to your partner and tell him or her about it. Write about it in your reading response journal.
Chunk 2: pages 10–19			
<i>double-decker:</i> Something with two levels <i>scolded:</i> To angrily criticize someone, especially a child, about something he or she did I would like a double-decker _____. Kids sometimes get scolded for _____.	Look at the pictures. How do you think Alexander is feeling? Why? Why do you think Alexander says he wants to go to Australia?	Alexander continues to have bad luck, and the bad things that happen make him think he is being picked on.	(Preview the pictures with students before asking the following.) What do you predict will happen tomorrow? Turn to your partner and tell him or her about it. Write about it in your reading response journal.

Vocabulary and Stems	Questions	Example Gist	Lesson Closure
Chunk 3: pages 20–30			
<p><i>sneakers</i>: A type of light, soft shoe with a rubber sole</p> <p><i>drain</i>: A pipe that carries water or waste liquids away</p> <p>I would like sneakers with _____.</p> <p>There is a drain in _____.</p>	<p>How does Alexander’s mom try to make him feel better?</p> <p>Do you think tomorrow will be a better day for Alexander? Why or why not?</p>	<p>Alexander feels sorry for himself for all of the bad things that keep happening. His mom makes him feel better by telling him that everyone has a bad day sometimes.</p>	<p>Write about a time you had difficulty with something or had a bad day. Who helped you?</p> <p>Turn to your partner and tell him or her about it.</p> <p>Write about it in your reading response journal.</p>

Adapted with permission from Project ELITE, The Meadows Center for Preventing Educational Risk, 2016. For more information, visit www.elitetexas.org.

Ejemplos de planes de clase

Title: *Un caso grave de rayas*

Author: David Shannon

Vocabulario y principios de oraciones	Preguntas	Ejemplo de idea principal	Cierre de lección
Sección 1: páginas 1–11			
<p><i>preocupada</i>: sentirse intranquilo o con miedo por algo</p> <p><i>increíble</i>: algo que es muy difícil de creer</p> <p><i>espasmos</i>: cuando una parte de tu cuerpo se mueve rápidamente sin que tú lo puedas controlar</p> <p>Yo estoy preocupado cuando _____.</p> <p>Algo increíble es _____.</p> <p>Yo tengo espasmos cuando _____.</p>	<p>¿Por qué crees que sus compañeros de escuela le decían “Camilla Crayola”?</p> <p>¿Cómo crees que Camilla se siente? ¿Por qué?</p>	<p>Mientras se preparaba para ir a la escuela, Camilla estaba preocupada de lo que sus compañeros iban a pensar de su ropa. Gritó cuando vio en el espejo que estaba cubierta de rayas. Se quedó en casa para que el doctor la revisara.</p>	<p>¿Qué predices que pasará mañana en la historia?</p> <p>Plátalo con tu compañera o compañero de al lado.</p> <p>Escríbelo en tu cuaderno de respuestas de lectura.</p>
Sección 2: páginas 12–19			
<p><i>murmuró</i>: decir algo en voz tan baja que la gente no puede entender</p> <p><i>especialistas</i>: personas que saben mucho sobre un tema o que son muy buenas para hacer algo</p> <p><i>expertos</i>: personas que tienen una habilidad o conocimiento especial porque alguien les enseñó y lo han practicado por mucho tiempo</p> <p>La gente murmura porque _____.</p> <p>Un especialista es alguien que _____.</p> <p>Algunos tipos de expertos son _____.</p>	<p>¿Por qué crees que sus compañeros tenían miedo de estar en el mismo salón con Camilla?</p> <p>¿Cómo crees que se sintió Camilla cuando los especialistas y expertos vinieron a su casa? ¿Por qué?</p>	<p>Los compañeros de escuela de Camilla se burlaron de ella. Camilla era una distracción para todos y el director pidió que se quedara en su casa. Especialistas y expertos fueron a su casa para tratar de curarla de las rayas.</p>	<p>¿Qué predices que pasará mañana en la historia?</p> <p>Plátalo con tu compañera o compañero de al lado.</p> <p>Escríbelo en tu cuaderno de respuestas de lectura.</p>

Vocabulario y principios de oraciones	Preguntas	Ejemplo de idea principal	Cierre de lección
Sección 3: páginas 20–27			
<p><i>curaba</i>: hacer que a una persona enferma se le quite una enfermedad y recupere la salud</p> <p><i>reconocerla</i>: saber quién es alguien o que es algo</p> <p><i>sollozando</i>: llorar ruidosamente con la respiración entrecortada</p> <p>Algo que me cura es _____.</p> <p>La gente no podía reconocer a Camilla porque _____.</p> <p>Ella empezó a sollozar porque _____.</p>	<p>¿Por qué sollozó la mamá de Camilla?</p> <p>¿Crees que la mujer que tocó la puerta va a poder ayudar a Camilla?</p> <p>¿Cómo crees que la va a ayudar?</p>	<p>Nadie pudo curar las rayas de Camilla y la gente ya casi no podía reconocerla. La mamá de Camilla empezó a sollozar cuando las cosas seguían empeorando.</p>	<p>¿Qué predices que pasará mañana en la historia? ¿Por qué?</p> <p>Plátalo con tu compañera o compañero de al lado.</p> <p>Escríbelo en tu cuaderno de respuestas de lectura.</p>
Sección 4: páginas 28–32			
<p><i>envase</i>: recipiente que se utiliza para poner cosas en él</p> <p><i>comparación</i>: examinar dos o más cosas para saber en qué son diferentes y en que son iguales</p> <p><i>desapareció</i>: dejar de estar a la vista de repente y en una forma que no se puede explicar</p> <p>En un envase puedes poner _____.</p> <p>Yo puedo comparar _____.</p> <p>Las rayas desaparecieron porque _____.</p>	<p>¿Cómo cambiaron los sentimientos de Camilla hacia las habas? ¿Cómo sabes?</p> <p>¿Por qué crees que el autor escribió esta historia?</p>	<p>Una mujer con un envase de habas tocó la puerta de la casa de Camilla. Camilla se comió las habas y las rayas desaparecieron. Camilla aprendió que no debe preocuparse por lo que las otras personas piensen.</p>	<p>¿Alguna vez te has sentido nervioso o apenado por algo?</p> <p>Plátalo con tu compañera o compañero de al lado.</p> <p>Escríbelo en tu cuaderno de respuestas de lectura.</p>

Title: *Alexander y el día terrible, horrible, espantoso, horrible* **Author:** Judith Viorst

Vocabulario y principios de oraciones	Preguntas	Ejemplo de idea principal	Cierre de lección
Sección 1: páginas 1–9			
<i>asfixiado</i> : cuando algo te aprieta y no puedes respirar bien <i>invisible</i> : algo que no se puede ver Te puedes estar asfixiando cuando _____. Algo que me gustaría que fuera invisible es _____.	¿Qué le pasó a Alexander en la mañana para que empezara su día mal? ¿Por qué crees que Alexander culpa a otros por lo que le pasa a él?	Alexander tiene una mala mañana porque le pasan muchas cosas malas. Se siente triste y quiere irse a vivir a Australia.	¿Qué predicen va a pasar después en la historia? Voltea con tu pareja y discute esta idea. Escribe sobre esto en tu diario de reflexión sobre la lectura.
Sección 2: páginas 10–19			
<i>enfangado</i> : ensuciarse con lodo <i>regañó</i> : cuando alguien critica a otra persona fuertemente por algo malo que Yo puedo acabar enfangado si _____. Mi mamá me regañó cuando _____.	Observen los dibujos. ¿Cómo creen que Alexander se siente? ¿Por qué? ¿Por qué creen que Alexander se quiere ir a Australia?	Alexander continua teniendo mala suerte y, cuando cosas malas le pasan, él piensa que se están aprovechando de él.	Después de ver las ilustraciones, ¿qué es lo que vamos a leer mañana? Voltea con tu pareja y discute esta idea. Escribe sobre esto en tu diario de reflexión sobre la lectura.

Vocabulario y principios de oraciones	Preguntas	Ejemplo de idea principal	Cierre de lección
Sección 3: páginas 20–30			
<p><i>obligar</i>: hacer que alguien haga algo utilizando la fuerza o autoridad</p> <p><i>desagüe</i>: un tubo por el que el agua u otros líquidos se van en una tina o fregadero</p> <p>Mi papá me obliga a _____.</p> <p>Hay un desagüe en _____.</p>	<p>¿Cómo trata la mamá de Alexander de hacerlo sentir mejor?</p> <p>¿Ustedes creen que mañana será un mejor día para Alexander? ¿Por qué?</p>	<p>Alexander se siente mal por todas las cosas malas que le pasan. Su mamá trata de hacerlo sentir mejor diciéndole que algunos días son así.</p>	<p>Escribe sobre alguna vez que tuviste dificultades o un día malo. ¿Quién te ayudó?</p> <p>Voltea con tu pareja y discute esta idea.</p> <p>Escribe sobre esto en tu diario de reflexión sobre la lectura.</p>

Adapted with permission from Project ELITE, The Meadows Center for Preventing Educational Risk, 2016. For more information, visit www.elitetexas.org.

Scavenger Hunt

Using your English Language Arts Reading TEKS Alignment and Figure 19 (Comprehension Skills) charts, try to find the answers to these questions.

1. In third grade, which type of transition words are students expected to develop an understanding of when reading? Can you list examples?
2. In which grade should students start asking their own questions about texts being read?
3. What type of questions are students expected to ask in second grade? How about in third grade?
4. In which grade are students expected to begin summarizing texts?
5. Which prerequisite skills that are taught in second grade underlie the ability to summarize?
6. In which grade are students expected to begin making inferences?
7. Which specific strategies for monitoring and adjusting comprehension are mentioned in the TEKS?
8. In third grade, which aspects of a procedural text are students supposed to learn to use to support their comprehension?

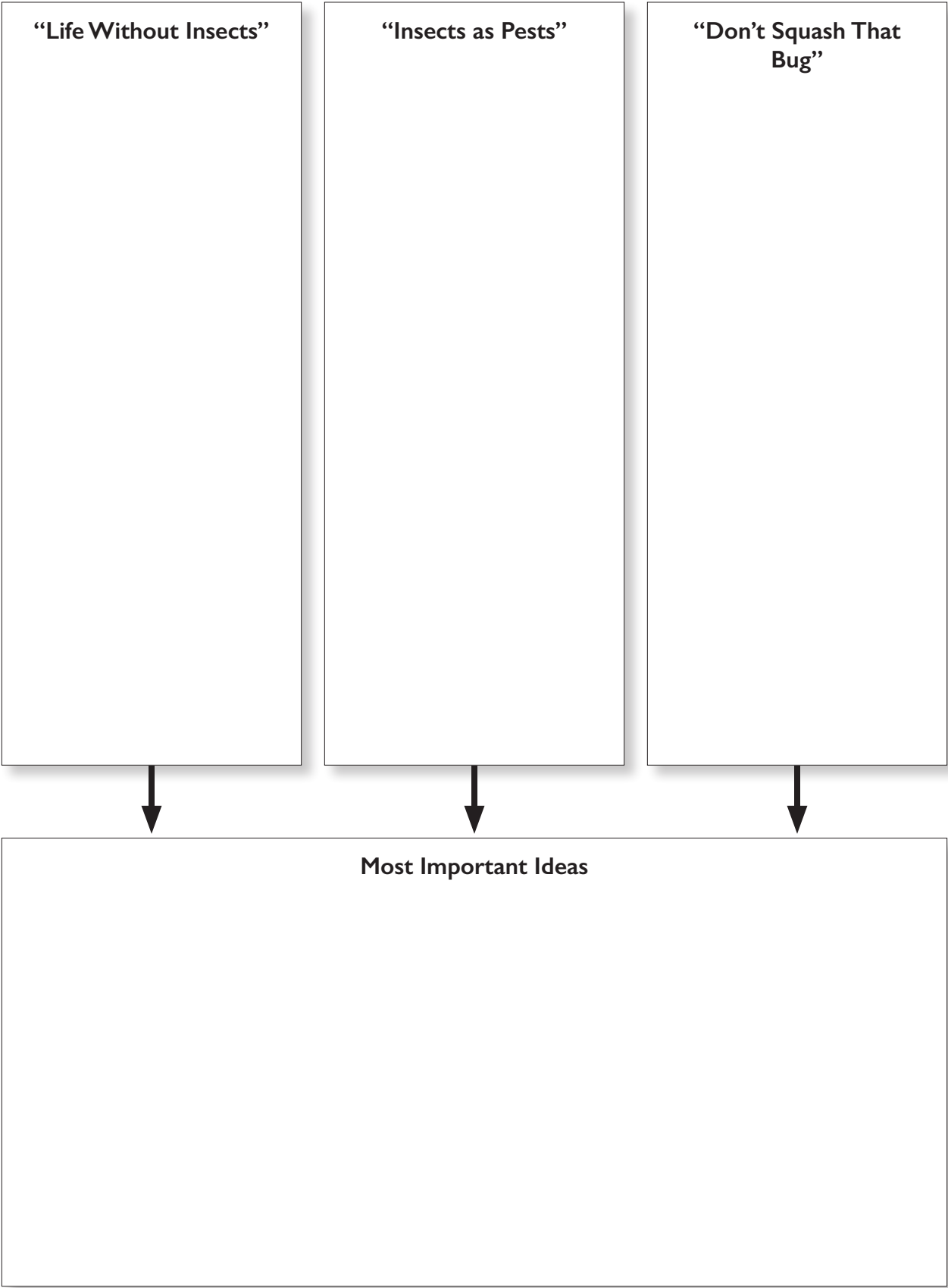
Adapted from Texas Education Agency, 2009.

Planning Within a Theme

THEME OR TOPIC: Insects			
Literary			
Folktales, Fables, Myths, Fairy Tales	Fiction	Poetry	Drama
<i>Why Mosquitoes Buzz in People's Ears</i> by Verna Aardema "The Ant and the Grasshopper"	<i>Hey, Little Ant</i> by Phillip M. Hoose <i>Two Bad Ants</i> by Chris Van Allsburg	<i>insectlopedia</i> by Douglas Florian <i>Joyful Noise: Poems for Two Voices</i> by Paul Fleischman	None
Informational			
Expository	Procedural	Persuasive	Other
<i>The Fabulous Insects: Essays by the Foremost Nature Writers</i> edited by Charles Neider "Life Without Insects" "Insects on the Move"	<i>How to Draw Insects: Your Step-by-Step Guide</i> by Stefani Neumann	"Insects as Pests" "Don't Squash that Bug"	<i>Fly Guy Presents: Insects</i> by Tedd Arnold <i>The Best Book of Bugs</i> by Claire Llewellyn <i>How to Hide a Butterfly & Other Insects</i> by Ruth Heller

THEME OR TOPIC:			
Literary			
Folktales, Fables, Myths, Fairy Tales	Fiction	Poetry	Drama
Informational			
Expository	Procedural	Persuasive	Other

Making Connections Across Texts



Planeando utilizando un tema

TEMA:			
Literario			
Mitos, leyendas, cuentos de hadas, fábulas	Ficción	Poesía	Teatro
Información			
Expositivo	De procedimiento	Persuasivo	Otro

Graphic Organizers for Teaching Text Structures

Story Map

Setting	Characters
Problem	Event 1
Solution	Event 2
	Event 3
Theme	

Character Analysis

What the character looks like

Things that happen to the character

Character

What the character does in the story

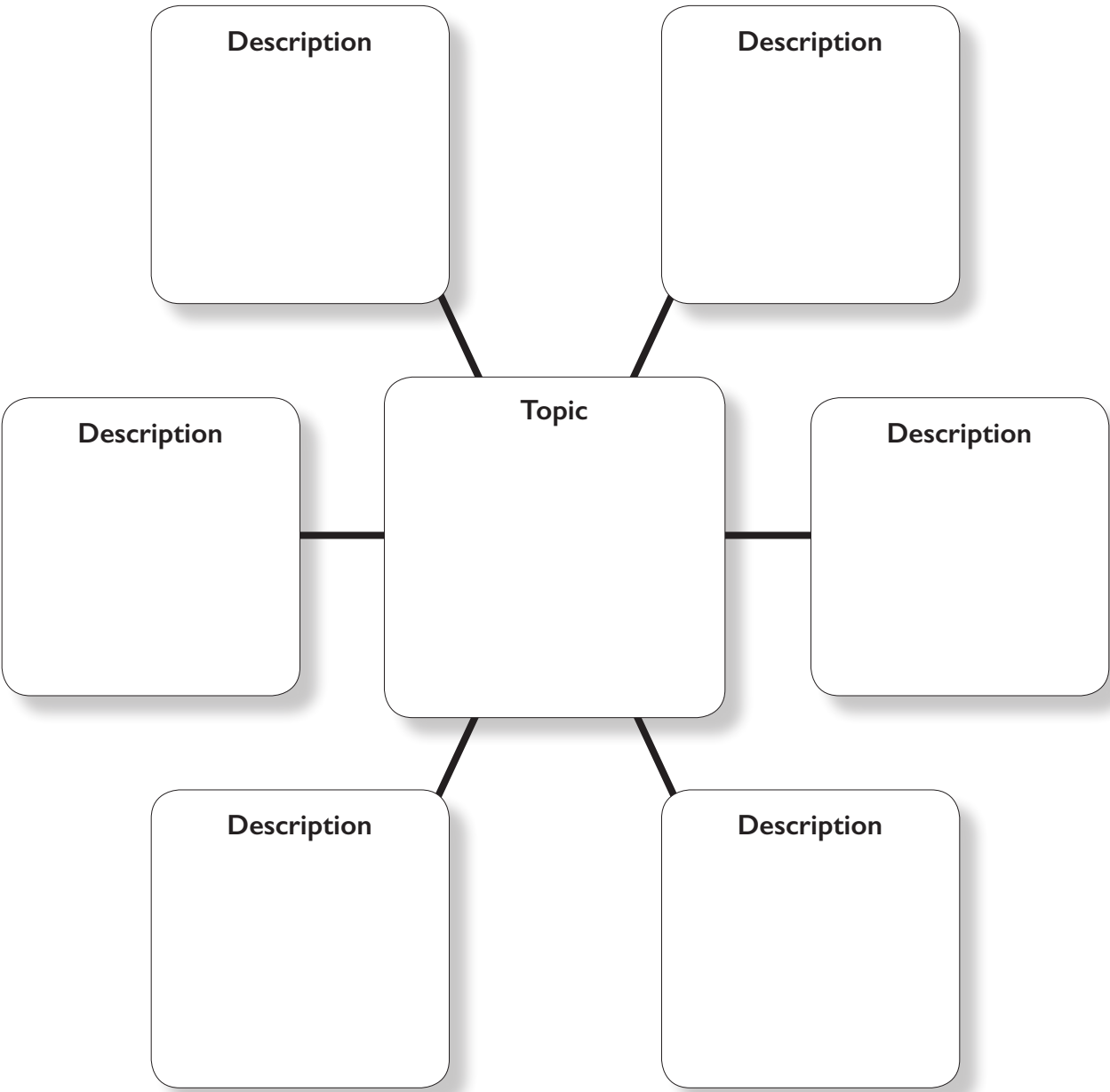
Why the character does these things

Character Comparison

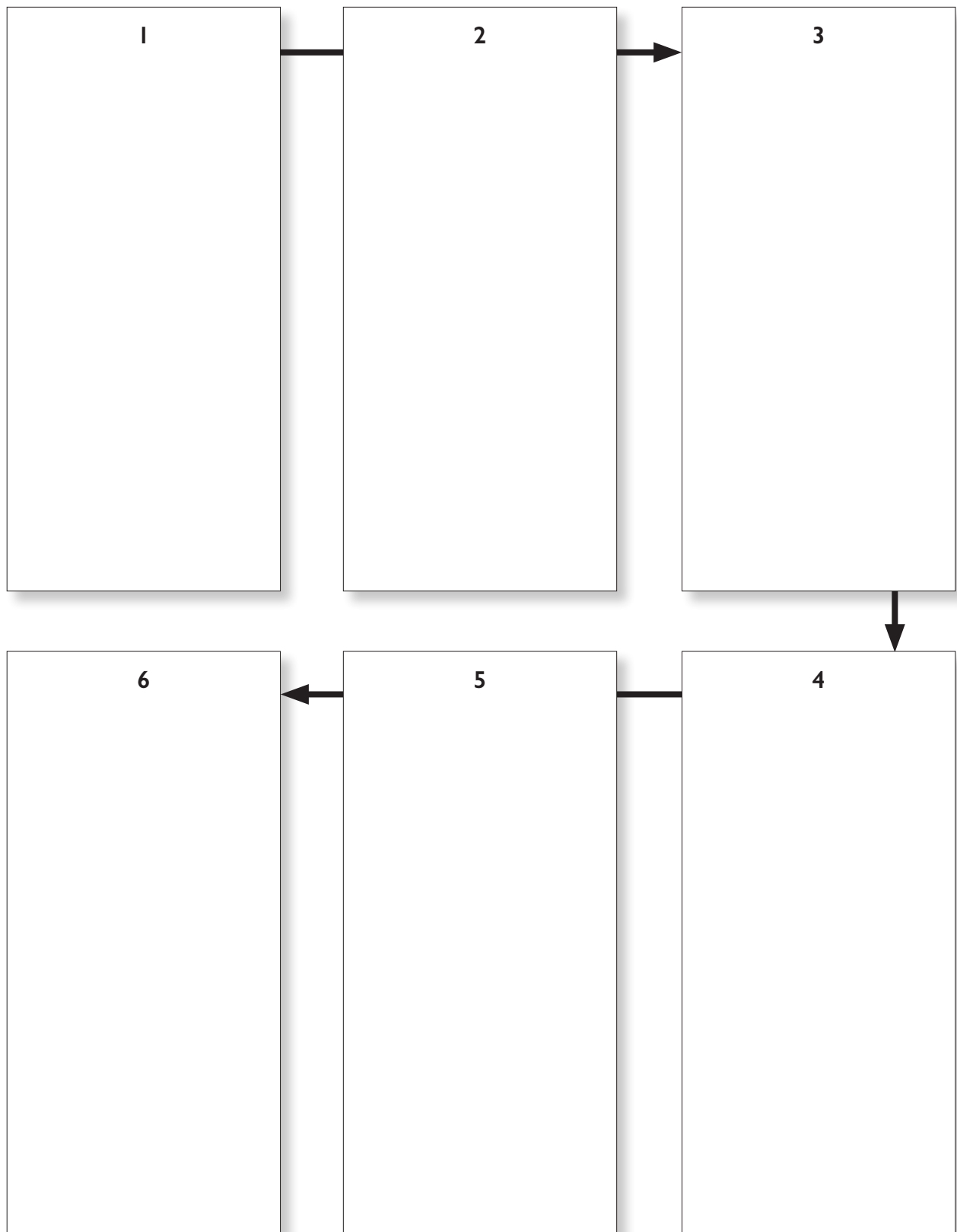
Character A	Character B
Name:	Name:
Characteristic 1:	Characteristic 1:
Characteristic 2:	Characteristic 2:
Characteristic 3:	Characteristic 3:
Characteristic 4:	Characteristic 4:

Shared Characteristics

Topic and Description



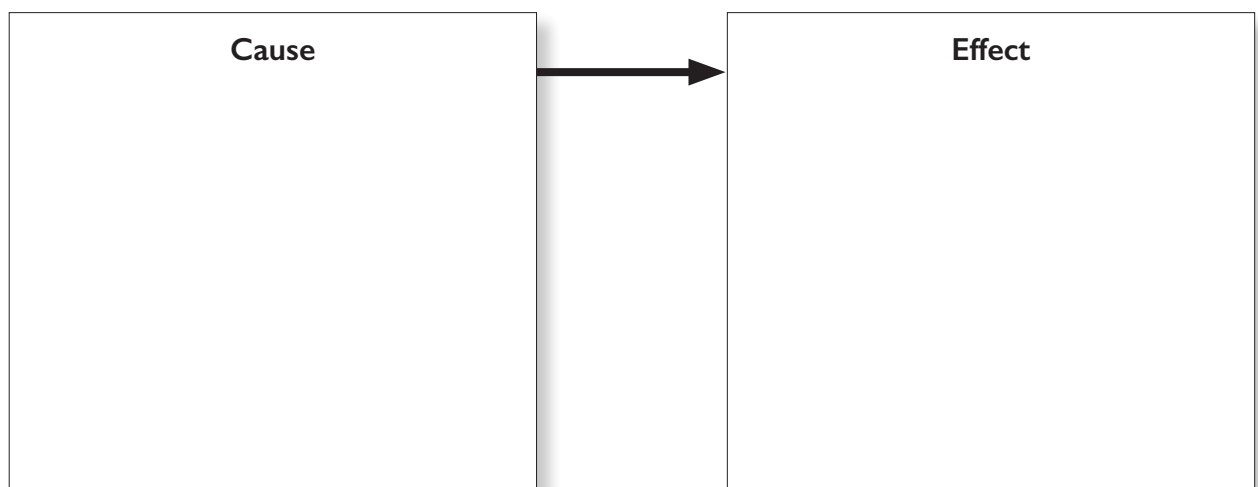
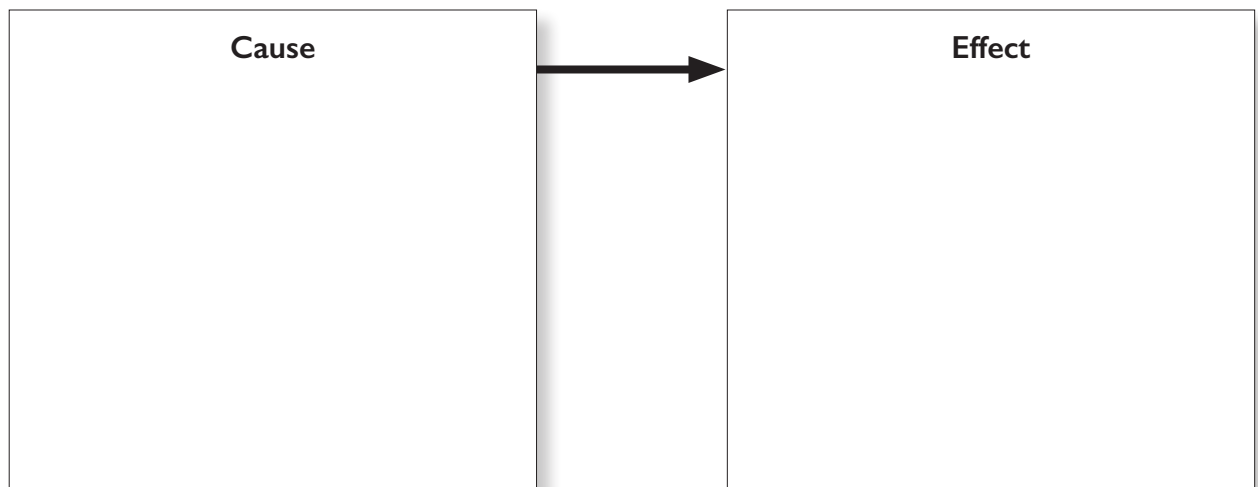
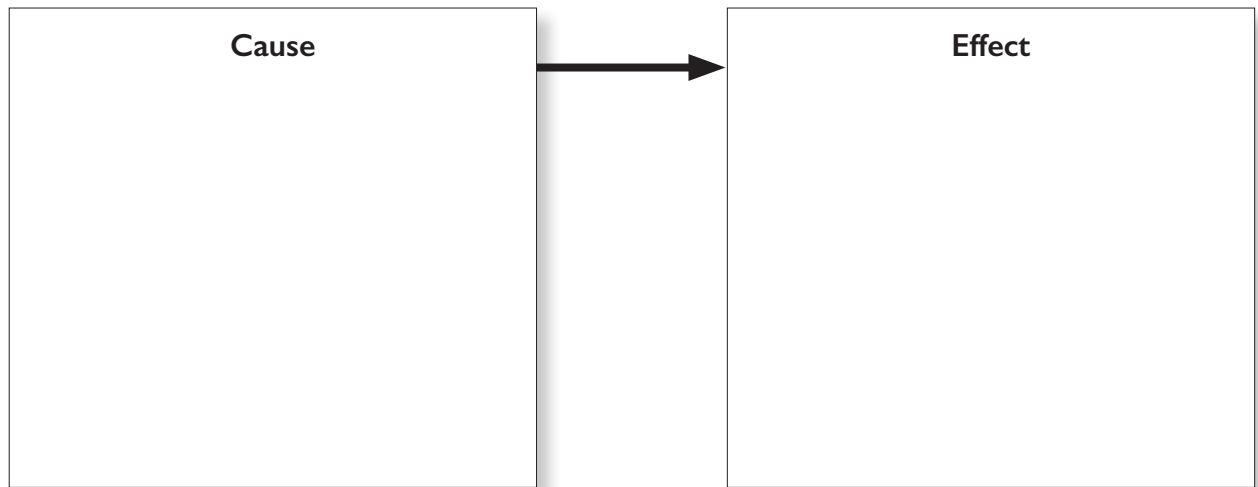
Sequence



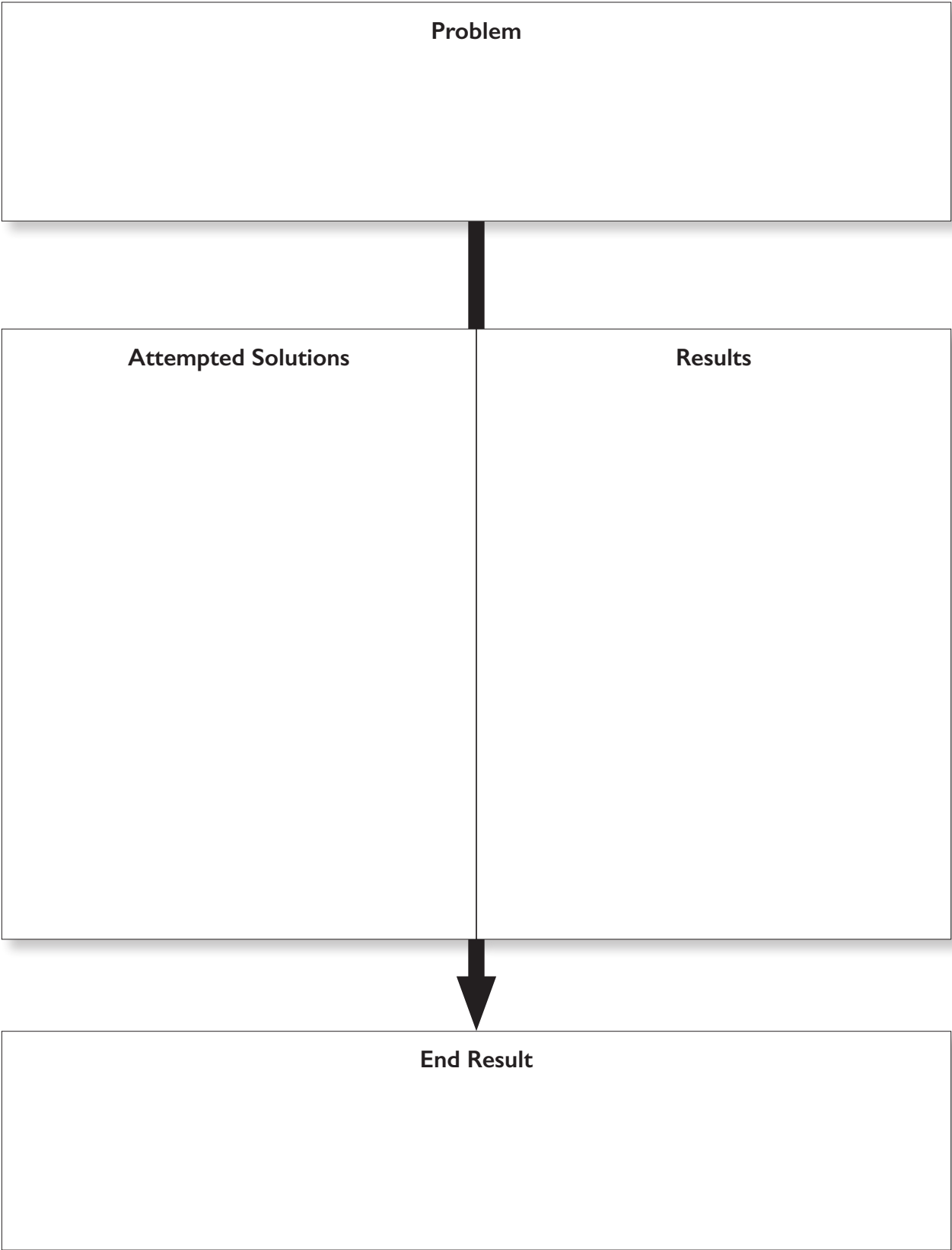
Compare and Contrast

A: _____	B: _____
Shared Characteristics	

Cause and Effect



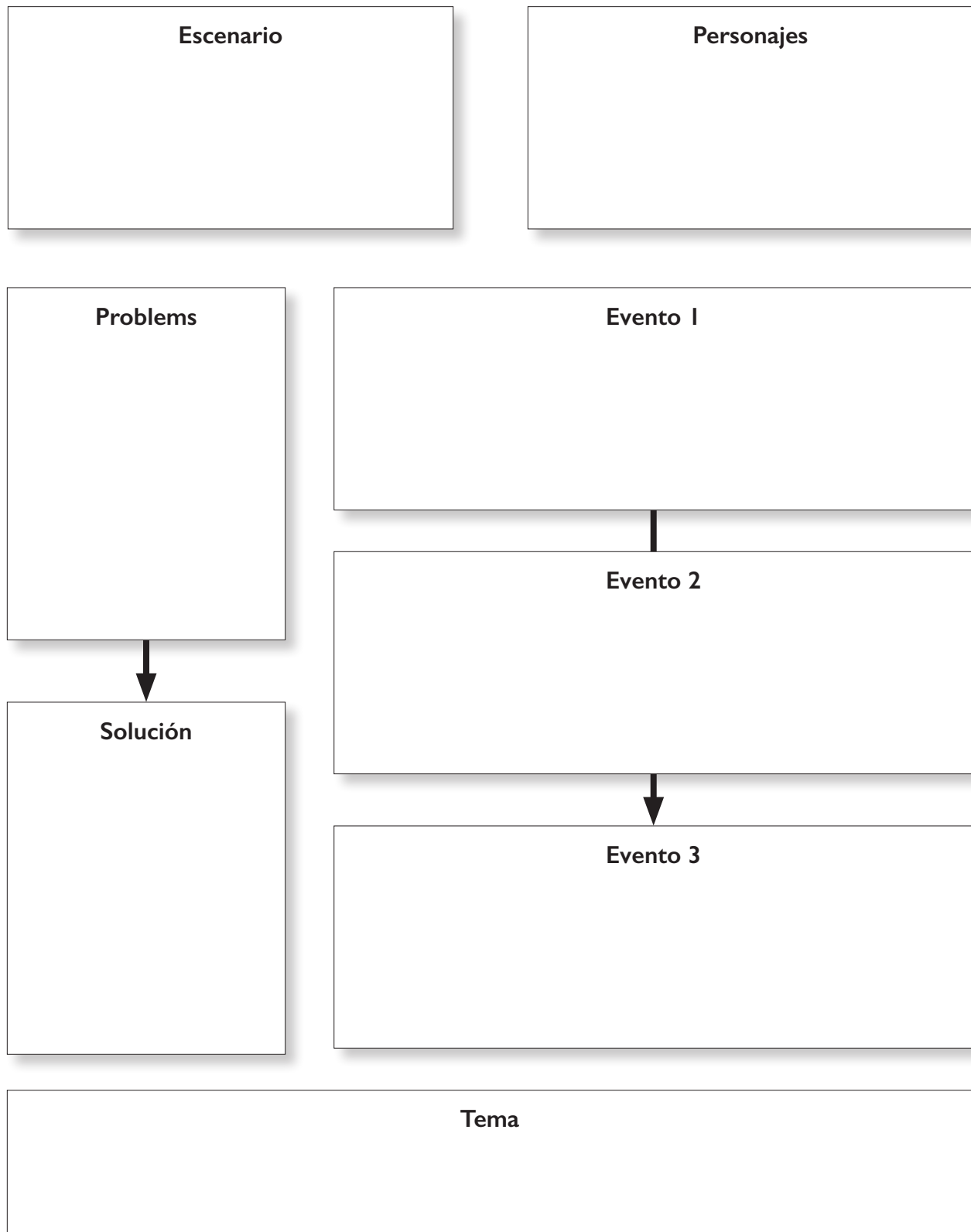
Problem and Solution



Adapted from Florida Center for Reading Research, 2006.

Organizadores gráficos para diferentes tipos de estructura de texto

Mapa de la historia



Análisis de personajes

The diagram consists of a central box labeled **Personaje**. Four other boxes are arranged around it, connected by lines. The top-left box is labeled **Cómo se ve el personaje**, the top-right box is labeled **Cosas que le pasan al personaje**, the bottom-left box is labeled **Qué es lo que le pasa al personaje**, and the bottom-right box is labeled **Por qué hace el personaje esas cosas**.

Cómo se ve el personaje	Cosas que le pasan al personaje

Personaje

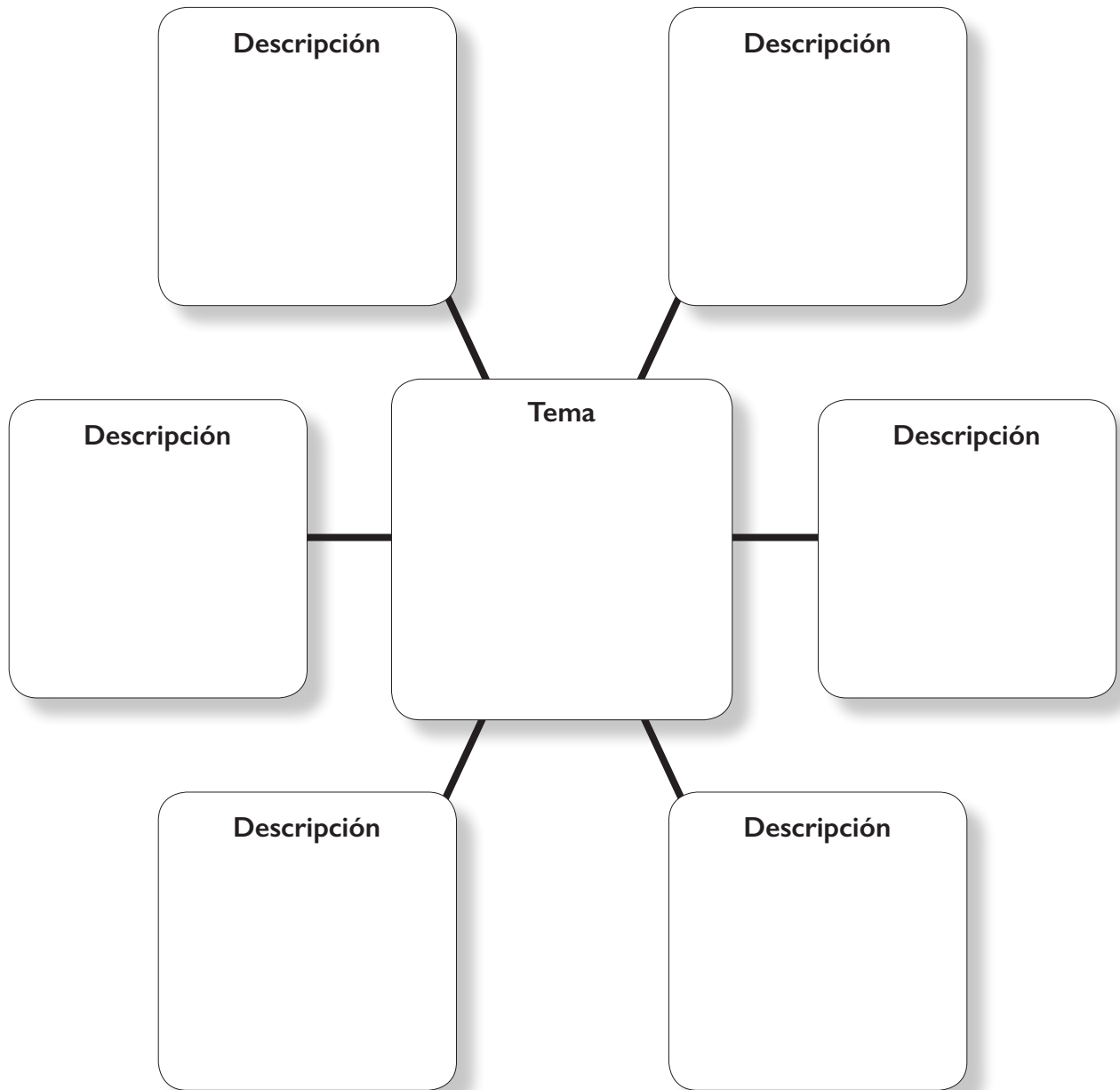
Qué es lo que le pasa al personaje	Por qué hace el personaje esas cosas

Comparación de personajes

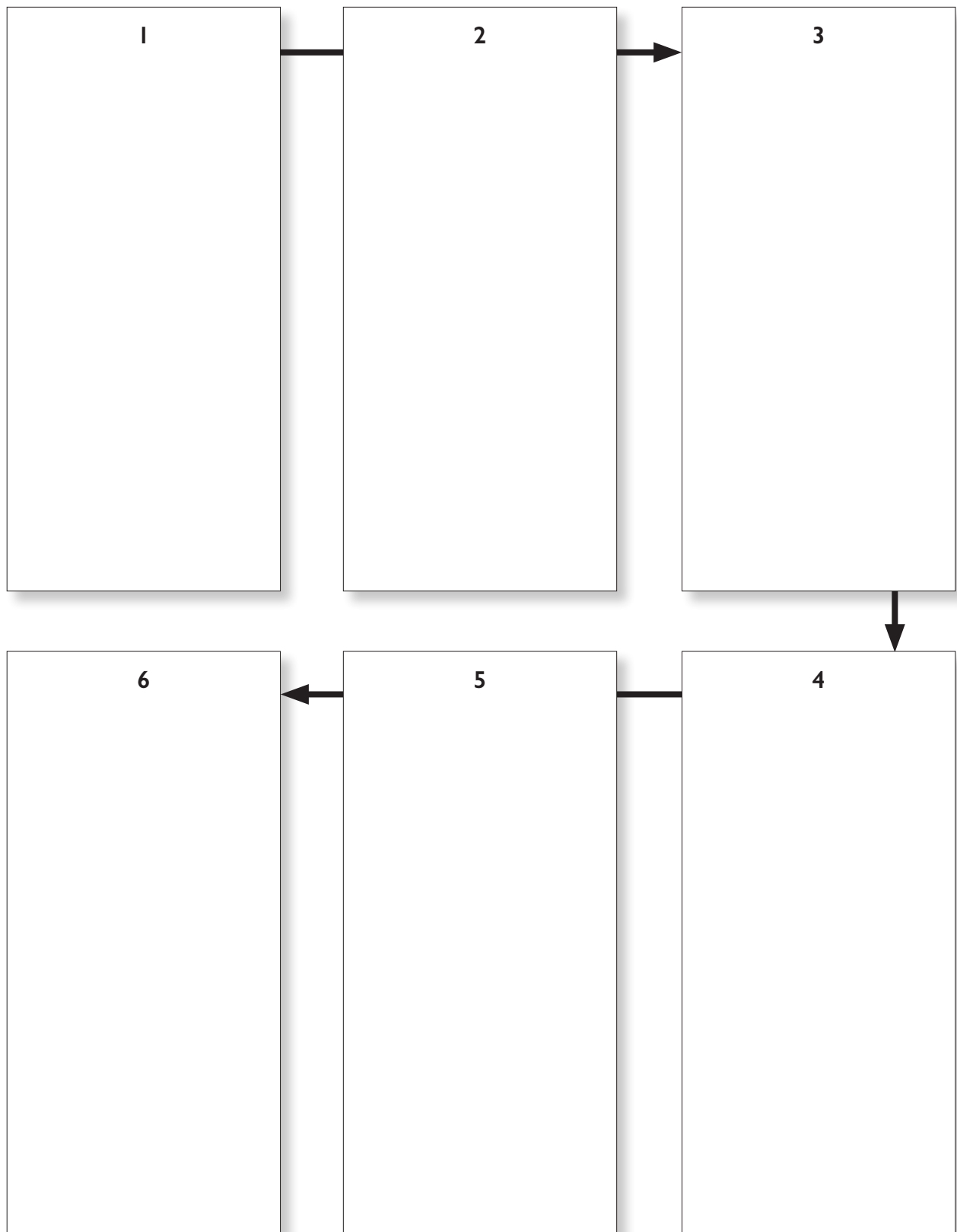
Personaje A	Personaje B
Nombre:	Nombre:
Característica 1:	Característica 1:
Característica 2:	Característica 2:
Característica 3:	Característica 3:
Característica 4:	Característica 4:

Características compartidas

Tema y descripción



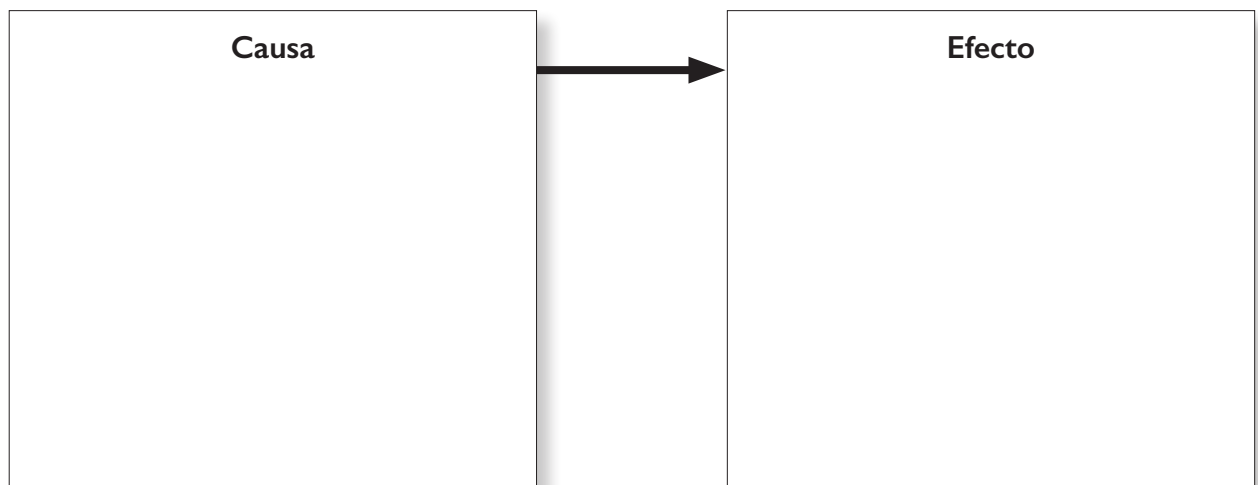
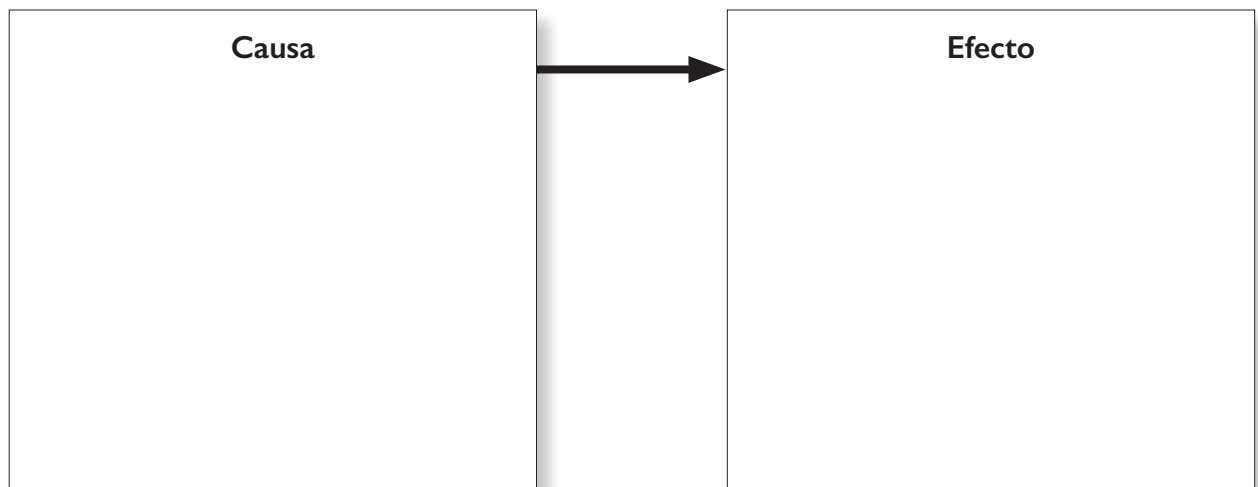
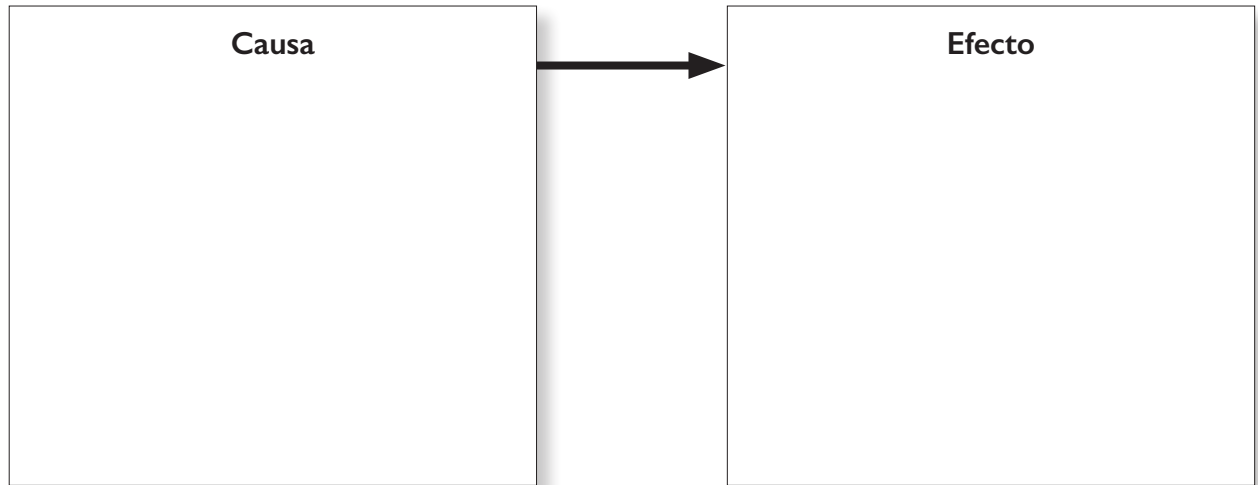
Secuencia



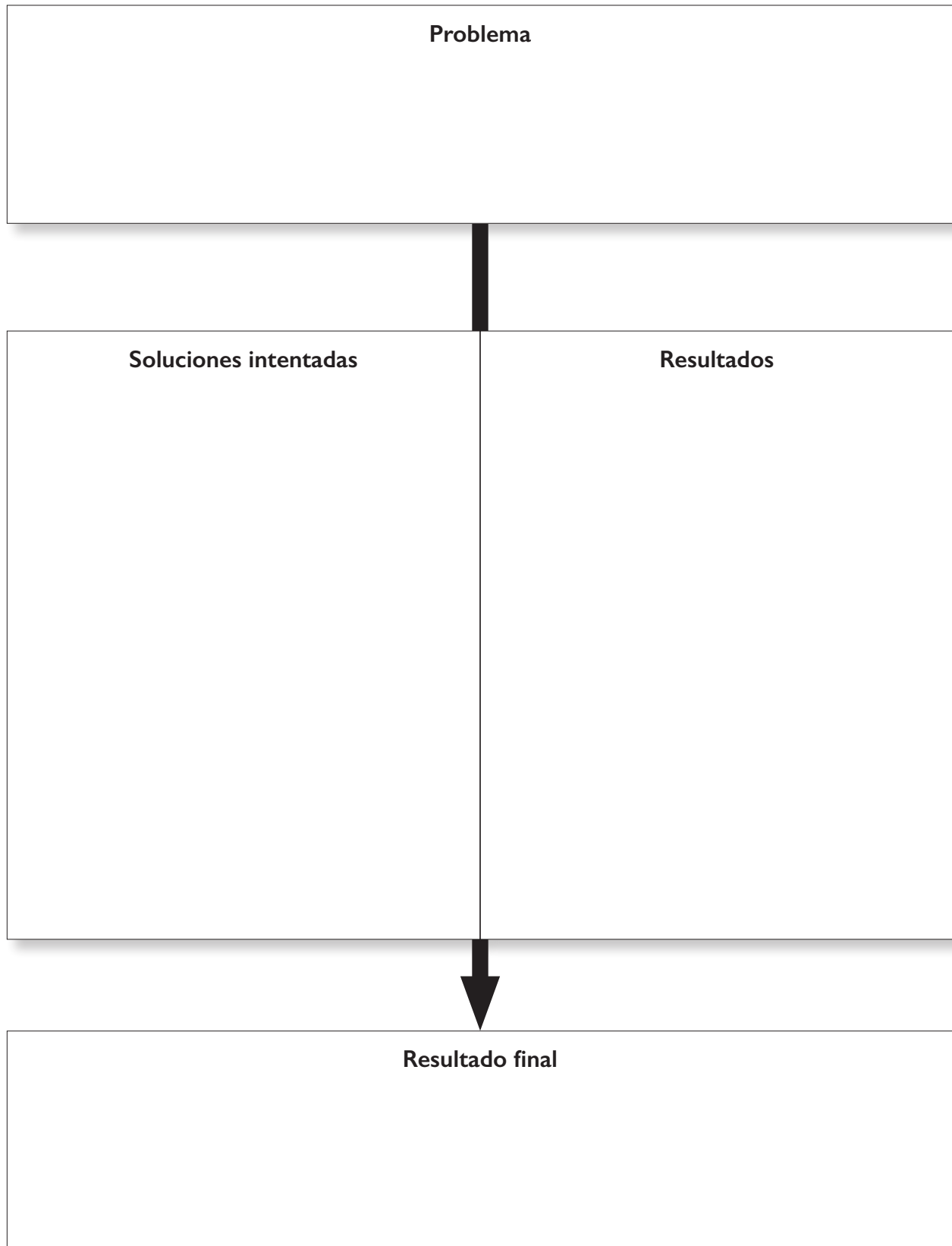
Comparar y contrastar

A: _____	B: _____
Características compartidas	

Causa y efecto



Problema y solución

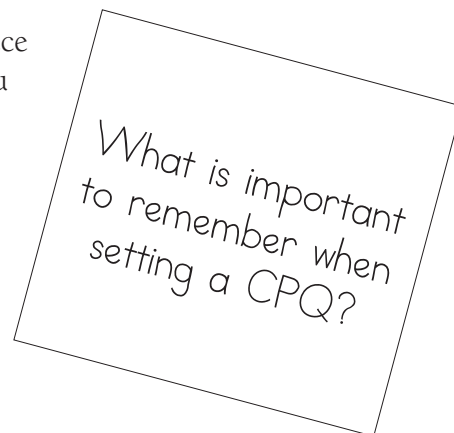


Adapted from Florida Center for Reading Research, 2006.

Comprehension Purpose Questions

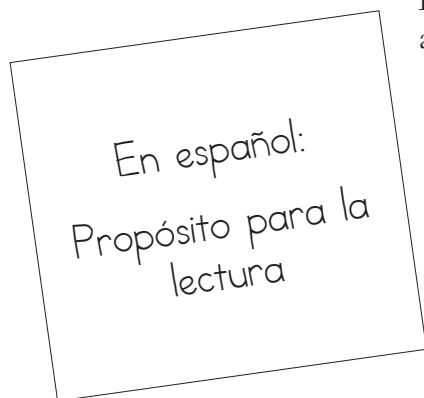
Critical to planning for comprehension instruction is setting a comprehension purpose before reading. To help students deepen and extend understanding, plan ahead and really think about the text before reading it to students or before they read it themselves.

You can set a comprehension purpose question (CPQ) for any piece of text—even if it is only a paragraph or a few sentences long. You can set a CPQ before reading the story description on the back cover of a book or before reading a math problem students are about to solve. You can set a CPQ for narrative or informational text. Sometimes, it's best to set multiple CPQs throughout a reading, always stopping to discuss, share thinking, and check understanding before setting a new one.



To set a CPQ, think about a question that will focus student attention throughout the reading. Think about the major understandings you hope your students will acquire from the text. When focusing on a strategy, set a CPQ that will support or strengthen that strategy.

Each time your class reads a text, set a different CPQ. For the first reading, your CPQ might be overarching and straightforward. By the third reading, your CPQ can be more complex, helping students to think more deeply about the text. CPQs should nudge students to think about the intended meaning of the text.



To help students focus on the CPQ during reading, post it for all to see. With younger students, or to support your English language learners, include a picture. During reading, redirect attention to the CPQ to remind students what to think about as they read or listen. Plan for places to think aloud or stop to discuss the CPQ during reading. At the end of the reading, discuss the CPQ in depth. Make sure that all students have an opportunity to share their thinking either orally with a partner or the whole group or in a reflective writing or response task.

Practice Identifying CPQs

Read the question stems below. If the stem would make a good CPQ, write “CPQ” in the box beside it. If the question would not make a good CPQ but is still a question you would use in instruction, write a “Q” in the box. The first one has been done as an example.

Who is...? Example: Who is Goldilocks?	Q
What happens to...? Example: What happens to Goldilocks?	
Where does the story take place? Example: Where does <i>Goldilocks and the Three Bears</i> take place?	
How does _____ feel about _____? Example: How does Goldilocks feel about the bears and their house?	
Why does...? Example: Why does Goldilocks leave the bears' house?	
How would you describe...? Example: How would you describe Goldilocks?	
What happens in the beginning? Example: What happens in the beginning of <i>Goldilocks and the Three Bears</i> ?	
What do we learn about...? Example: What do we learn about Goldilocks?	
What does _____ learn? Example: What does Goldilocks learn?	
Who is the author? Example: Who is the author of <i>Goldilocks and the Three Bears</i> ?	
What will the story be about? Example: What will <i>Goldilocks and the Three Bears</i> be about?	

This page intentionally left blank.

Practice Identifying CPQs Answer Key

Read the questions stems below. If the stem would make a good CPQ, write “CPQ” in the box beside it. If the question would not make a good CPQ but is still a question you would use in instruction, write a “Q” in the box. The first one has been done as an example.

Who is...? Example: Who is Goldilocks?	Q
What happens to...? Example: What happens to Goldilocks?	CPQ
Where does the story take place? Example: Where does <i>Goldilocks and the Three Bears</i> take place?	Q
How does _____ feel about _____? Example: How does Goldilocks feel about the bears and their house?	CPQ
Why does...? Example: Why does Goldilocks leave the bears' house?	Q
How would you describe...? Example: How would you describe Goldilocks?	Q
What happens in the beginning? Example: What happens in the beginning of <i>Goldilocks and the Three Bears</i> ?	Q
What do we learn about...? Example: What do we learn about Goldilocks?	CPQ
What does _____ learn? Example: What does Goldilocks learn?	CPQ
Who is the author? Example: Who is the author of <i>Goldilocks and the Three Bears</i> ?	Q
What will the story be about? Example: What will <i>Goldilocks and the Three Bears</i> be about?	Q

Making Inferences Planner

Title:

Comprehension purpose question:

Page	Statement		Text Clues	Background Knowledge
		<input type="checkbox"/> In the text (direct) <input type="checkbox"/> In my head (inference)		
		<input type="checkbox"/> In the text (direct) <input type="checkbox"/> In my head (inference)		
		<input type="checkbox"/> In the text (direct) <input type="checkbox"/> In my head (inference)		
		<input type="checkbox"/> In the text (direct) <input type="checkbox"/> In my head (inference)		

Making Inferences Planner (Example)

Title: Dear Juno

Comprehension purpose question: What do you learn about Juno's relationship with his grandmother?

Page	Statement		Text Clues	Background Knowledge
1	The planes must make Juno think about his grandmother because she must live very far away.	<input type="checkbox"/> In the text (direct) <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> In my head (inference)	Juno "wondered if any of the planes came from a little town near Seoul where his grandmother lived."	People only fly on planes when they have to travel a far distance. The planes are making Juno think about his grandmother.
1	Juno knows his grandmother very well.	<input type="checkbox"/> In the text (direct) <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> In my head (inference)	Juno thinks about his grandmother eating "persimmons every evening before bed."	This is a really specific detail about her life. You only know things like this about people you know really well.
		<input type="checkbox"/> In the text (direct) <input type="checkbox"/> In my head (inference)		
		<input type="checkbox"/> In the text (direct) <input type="checkbox"/> In my head (inference)		

Source: Pak, S. (2001). *Dear Juno*. New York, NY: Puffin.

Guía para planear la discusión de inferencias

Libro:

Propósito para la lectura:

Pg	Declaración		Pistas del texto	Conocimiento previo
		<input type="checkbox"/> En el texto (directo) <input type="checkbox"/> En mi cabeza (inferencia o deducción)		
		<input type="checkbox"/> En el texto (directo) <input type="checkbox"/> En mi cabeza (inferencia o deducción)		
		<input type="checkbox"/> En el texto (directo) <input type="checkbox"/> En mi cabeza (inferencia o deducción)		
		<input type="checkbox"/> En el texto (directo) <input type="checkbox"/> En mi cabeza (inferencia o deducción)		

Comprehension Strategies

Strategy	Reading Processes	Thinking Required	Activities
Creating sensory images	Readers create a mental image of what is described in a text.	Readers put together what is happening in a text with what it looks like based on prior knowledge.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Explain what visualizing is and how it helps us remember what we read. 2. Have students examine objects or pictures. Remove an object or picture and ask students to visualize and describe or draw what they saw. 3. Read a brief text and describe what you see. Have students practice visualizing and describing or drawing what they see.
Making predictions	Readers put textual information together with what they know to predict what they will learn or what will happen next in a text. During reading, readers check whether predictions were correct and use that information to make new predictions.	<p>Readers put together what has been read or seen in a text with prior experience.</p> <p>Readers use this connection to think about what could happen next in the text.</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Before reading, have students skim a text, looking at the pictures, headings, key words, etc. Then, have students think about and discuss what they think they will read and learn. 2. During reading, stop occasionally to discuss a main idea from a text and ask students how it relates to their own experience. Ask them to predict whether an experience like their own might happen next. 3. Part of the way through a text, ask students to predict how the text will end. Have them explain their thinking and text evidence that supports their thinking.
Monitoring Comprehension	Readers pay attention to whether they understand what they read. When comprehension problems arise, readers use strategies to make sense of what they are reading.	Readers build a mental model from what is being read. Then, when something does not fit with this model, that is an indication to stop and do something about it. This requires a need for coherence. Readers must care when things do not fit together to want to do something about it.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Talk with students about the need for coherence and how we need to pay attention to when we do and do not understand what we are reading. 2. Teach students specific strategies for “fixing up” their comprehension. These strategies include the following: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Paraphrasing what you have read • Rereading parts of the text that do not make sense • Creating a mental image of what you are reading • Making a connection to background knowledge • Asking a question 3. Create a visual representation for each strategy (e.g., stop sign: stop and paraphrase what you just read). Put each one on cards for students to refer to when their comprehension breaks down.

Strategy	Reading Processes	Thinking Required	Activities
Identifying important information	Readers put together details and ideas an author presents to figure out what's most important to focus on and learn from a text.	Readers pull important ideas and use them to build a mental model of the text. Focusing on details detracts from building this mental model by taking up working memory capacity.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Teach students the difference between details and main ideas. 2. Give students a specific strategy for identifying a main idea. The following example strategy is get the gist: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identify the most important “who” or “what.” • Identify important information about the “who” or “what.” • Write that information in a short sentence (e.g., 10 words or less). 3. Model and have students practice the strategy paragraph by paragraph. Gradually, have students apply the strategy in longer and longer chunks of text.
Summarizing	Readers put together the most important pieces of information from across a text and say or write them succinctly.	Readers build a mental model and connect the text to their background knowledge to pull a text's important ideas and write them in their own words.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Before teaching students to write summaries, teach them a strategy for identifying important information. 2. Directly connect the strategy for identifying main ideas with writing a summary by having students use their main idea statements to build a summary. 3. Encourage students to connect these main idea statements using their own words.
Asking and answering questions	Readers develop and answer questions about information in a text during and after reading.	<p>Literal questions: Readers connect words and phrases to use syntactic knowledge.</p> <p>Inferential questions: Readers build a mental model to connect ideas across a text.</p> <p>Text-to-text, text-to-self, or text-to-world questions: Readers fill in gaps and connect textual information with information outside the text.</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Encourage students to ask and answer questions both during and after reading. 2. Teach students how to ask different types of questions. The following are a few examples: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “Right there” questions: Literal questions that can usually be answered with one or two words straight from the text (e.g., Who ate the porridge?) • “Think and search” questions: Questions that require the reader to make connections across a text (e.g., What negative effects did Goldilocks' visit to the bears' house have?) • “Author and me” questions: Questions that require the reader to put information from the text together with information outside the text (e.g., How do you think the bears felt about Goldilocks? Why?)

Adapted from Clarke et al., 2014; Klingner et al., 2012; Shanahan et al., 2010.

Example Lesson Plan: Creating Sensory Images

Materials

- *Fish Is Fish* by Leo Lionni
- The Pictures in My Mind chart (page 3 of this handout)
- Chart paper with large version of The Pictures in My Mind chart
- Marker
- Whiteboards

Objective and Purpose

Students will practice creating mental images while listening to a read-aloud.

Vocabulary

Preteach: *inseparable, marvelous, impatiently*

Build into lesson: *minnow, tadpole, triumphantly, argued, bank, extraordinary, mighty whack of the tail, gasping, groaned feebly, stunned, move to and fro, luminous, lily leaf*

Modeled Reading: “I Do” and “We Do”

Tell students that you will read a book to teach the importance of making pictures in your head, or visualizing, when you read or listen to a story.

Show the cover of the book. Point to the fish and say:

“This character will create pictures in his head as he listens to his friend tell stories. See the thought bubble above his head. This is a picture he’s making in his head as he’s listening. We will practice doing the same thing as the fish—making pictures in our head. As I read the book, try making pictures in your head. Try to picture what the characters and setting look like. Try to imagine what the characters sound like as they talk.”

Explain that you will stop occasionally to model how to make mental images using The Pictures in My Mind chart. Tell students that when you say so, they will follow along and draw their own pictures on their charts.

Begin reading the story. Make sure to pair identified vocabulary words with definitions or to act them out.

When you get to the page where the frog describes the birds, don’t show students the picture. Tell them you will show them the mental image you have in your head by drawing it in the chart. Then, they’ll do the same. Read both pages. Then say:

“Let me draw what I’m imagining this looks like in the first box.”

As you think aloud, describing the picture in your head, draw a picture of the frog and fish on your chart. Show the fish with a thought bubble filled with birds. Tell students that they can draw their own mental image on their charts. Give students a few minutes to complete their quick-draw. Then, continue reading.

Follow this same procedure for the next page (the cow) in the second box and the one after that (the people) in the third box.

Ask students whether they'd like to compare their pictures with the book's illustrations. (They usually say, "Yes!") Go back and show them the picture with the birds that look like fish, the cow that looks like a fish, and the people who look like fish. Talk about how the fish has never left the pond, so he's never seen anything other than fish. He thinks everything looks like fish!

Continue reading the rest of the book. Choose one other page to stop and draw a mental image. Make sure not to show the book's picture. Then, when students finish their mental image, let them compare their picture to the one in the book.

Wrap up the lesson by discussing this strategy and why it's important. Remind students that they should use this strategy anytime they listen to or read a story or other text.

Graphic Organizer

- The Pictures in My Mind chart
- Chart paper with large version of The Pictures in My Mind chart

Partner and Cooperative Reading: "We Do"

Activities to extend into workstations or partner work include the following:

- When reading other books aloud, have students use the mental images chart. Then, have students work in partners to share their pictures and use them to retell a text.
- Instead of putting a book with pictures at the listening workstation, have students fill out their mental images chart. Students can stop the story when they hear a signal, draw their picture, and then continue with the story. When the story is finished, students at the workstation can share their pictures and use them to retell the story.

Independent Reading: "You Do"

During whole-group or teacher-led small-group read-alouds, have students draw their mental images. Then, meet with each student one-on-one to listen to their retell of the story using their pictures. This is an informal assessment of comprehension.

The Pictures in My Mind

Student Name: _____

Text Title: _____

1. Picture in my mind	2. Picture in my mind
3. Picture in my mind	4. Picture in my mind

Lección ejemplo sobre cómo crear imágenes mentales al leer

Materiales

- *Nublado con probabilidades de albóndigas* por Judi Barrett
- “Las imágenes en mi mente” (hoja de ejercicio presente al terminar este plan)
- Tabla “Las imágenes en mi mente” en una hoja grande
- Marcador
- Pizarrones blancos individuales

Objetivo y propósito

Los estudiantes practicarán el crear imágenes mentales al escuchar la lectura en voz alta de un libro.

Vocabulario

Enseñe antes de la lectura: *proporcionaba, pronóstico (del tiempo), empeorar*

Explique brevemente durante la lectura (muchas de estas palabras son regionalismos que cambian dependiendo del país de origen y posiblemente necesiten explicación): *tortitas, inspirado, incidente, vendavales, nevera, habas, precipitación, enganchada, hogazas, sirope, montar en trineo*

Lectura modelada: “Yo primero” y “Todos juntos”

Explique que usted va a leer un libro para enseñar la importancia de crear imágenes mentales, o visualizar, cuando se lee o se escucha una historia.

Muestre la portada del libro y diga:

“En esta historia, un pueblo vive con un clima muy diferente. En este pueblo, no llueve agua o cae nieve. Vamos a ver que es lo que cae en lugar de agua y nieve. Al leer, traten de imaginarse las cosas que están pasando. Traten de crear imágenes mentales de los personajes y el escenario. Traten de imaginarse cómo se ven los lugares en la historia y cómo suenan los personajes al hablar.”

Explique que usted se detendrá ocasionalmente para demostrar cómo hacer imágenes mentales utilizando la tabla “Las imágenes en mi mente”. Cuando usted lo indique, los estudiantes dibujarán sus propias imágenes mentales en sus tablas.

Empiece a leer la historia. Asegúrese de explicar y revisar las palabras del vocabulario con definiciones o mediante gestos o dibujos.

Cuando llegue a la página que empieza con “La gente comía lo que traía el tiempo”, no enseñe a los estudiantes las ilustraciones. Comente que ahora usted les mostrará la imagen mental que

tiene en su cabeza al dibujarla en la tabla en la hoja grande. Después, ellos harán lo mismo con otra página. Lea la página y luego diga:

“Voy a dibujar lo que me estoy imaginando en el primer cuadro.”

Piense en voz alta al dibujar y describir su imagen mental. Puede dibujar gotas de sopa, hamburguesas volando, etc. Al terminar, muestre su dibujo a los estudiantes.

Explique que continuará leyendo sin enseñar los dibujos y que cuando se detenga ellos dibujarán su imagen mental. Lea hasta llegar a la página que termina con la oración, “Una llovizna de refresco completaba la comida.” Explique a los estudiantes que ahora les toca a ellos dibujar su imagen mental para esta parte de la historia. Espere un momento para que ellos dibujen sus imágenes en el primer cuadrado de la tabla.

Siga el mismo proceso y pare en la página que termina con la oración, “El resto de la comida la usaban para abonar la tierra de los jardines de la gente.” Pida a los estudiantes que dibujen su imagen mental en el segundo cuadrado.

Pregunte a los estudiantes si les gustaría comparar sus dibujos con las ilustraciones del libro. Regrese y enseñe los dibujos a los estudiantes.

Continúe leyendo el resto del libro. Escoja otra página para detenerse y dibujar una imagen mental. Asegúrese de no enseñar las ilustraciones del cuento y permitirles comparar sus dibujos con estas ilustraciones cuando terminen.

Termine la lección discutiendo esta estrategia y por qué es importante. Recuérdeles que deben utilizar esta estrategia siempre que lean o escuchen una historia o un texto.

Organizador gráfico

- Tabla: “Las imágenes in mi mente”
- Hoja grande con la misma tabla, “Las imágenes en mi mente”

Lectura en parejas o colaborativa: Todos juntos

Actividades para los centros o para trabajar en parejas incluyen las siguientes:

Cuando lean libros en voz alta, pida a los estudiantes que utilicen la tabla para las imágenes mentales. Después, los estudiantes trabajan en parejas para compartir sus dibujos y utilizarlos para recontar la historia.

Lectura independiente: “Yo solo”

Durante la lectura de libros en voz alta a todo el grupo o a grupos pequeños, pida a los estudiantes que dibujen sus imágenes mentales. Después, puede pedirle a cada estudiante que recuente la historia individualmente utilizando sus dibujos. Esto es una evaluación informal de la comprensión.

Las imágenes en mi mente

Nombre del estudiante: _____

Título del texto: _____

1. Imagen en mi mente	2. Imagen en mi mente
3. Imagen en mi mente	4. Imagen en mi mente

Example Lesson Plan: Identifying Main Ideas

Materials

- Copies of “Gecko” for students (page 4 of this handout)
- Picture of a gecko
- Chart paper with large version of Identifying Main Ideas and Writing a Summary chart (page 5 of this handout)
- Marker
- Copies of Identifying Important Main Ideas and Writing a Summary chart for students

Objective

Students will practice identifying main ideas in an expository text.

Vocabulary

Preteach: *gecko*

Build into lesson: N/A

Modeled Reading: “I Do” and “We Do”

Ask students whether they have ever heard the term “main idea.” Most students will respond, “Yes!” Tell them that we often ask students what a text’s main idea is, but we do not always teach students how to figure out the main idea. Referring to your Identifying Main Ideas and Writing a Summary chart, say:

“Today will be different. I will show you a strategy to figure out a main idea. It has three steps:

1. Figure out the most important ‘who’ or ‘what.’
2. Identify the most important information about the ‘who’ or ‘what.’
3. Write this information in a main idea, or gist, statement that is 10 words or less.”

Distribute copies of the “Gecko” text. Put a copy on the document camera. Say:

“I will read this text aloud. As I read, I will stop occasionally and think aloud about what I am learning. I will try to figure out the ‘who’ or ‘what’ and the important information about the ‘who’ or ‘what.’ Then, I will try to use this information to create a short main idea statement. Let’s do this one paragraph at a time.”

Put a bracket around the first paragraph and write a 1 next to it. Tell students to do the same on their copy. Say:

“Let’s start with this paragraph. As I read aloud, follow along with your finger. I will stop every once in a while to tell you what the text is making me think. We will see whether I can determine the paragraph’s main idea.”

Read the text aloud. Stop occasionally to think aloud about the topic and information in the text. For example, read the first two sentences. Then, stop and say:

“Hmm, so far, it seems like I am learning about the gecko. This makes sense because that is the title. Maybe that is the important ‘who’ or ‘what.’ These first two sentences are interesting. First it tells me the gecko is strange. Then it tells me it can walk on walls and windows. That is pretty strange. I have a dog, and it would be strange if she started walking on the walls or windows of our house. Let me keep reading and see what else I learn.”

Continue and do two or three more think-alouds to model figuring out the “who” or “what” and identifying important information. When you finish reading and thinking aloud, say:

“OK, I think I have an idea of the ‘who’ or ‘what’ and the important information about that topic. Let’s see whether you can help me figure it out.”

With your copy of the Identifying Main Ideas and Writing a Summary chart on the document camera, say:

“First, what is the most important ‘who’ or ‘what’ of this text? The whole paragraph was about the gecko, so I will write ‘gecko’.”

Write “gecko” in the first row, second column. Tell students to do the same on their copy. Say:

“Now, I have to figure out what the author taught me about the gecko that is important. Well, first, I learned that the gecko is strange, so I will write that. I learned that it can walk on walls, windows, and ceilings, so I will write that. Last, I learned that the gecko has sticky hairs on its feet that help it stick to things, so I will also write that. Let’s read what I wrote.”

Have students fill in their copies of the chart with you. Say:

“The next step is writing the information from these two columns into one sentence that is 10 words or less. This is the trickiest part, so I practiced last night writing a sentence on another piece of paper.”

Show students a starter sentence written on another piece of paper that is a bit too long: The gecko is strange because its sticky feet let it walk on walls, windows, and ceilings.

Read the sentence aloud and count the words. Say:

“Sixteen words. That is a bit too long. Let me see if I can shrink this sentence by getting rid of a few words.”

Model by thinking aloud. Say:

“I see the words ‘on walls, windows, and ceilings.’ Those are details. If a gecko can walk on walls, windows, and ceilings, it can pretty much walk...”

Pause for students to say, “Anywhere.”

“Yes, anywhere, so I will get rid of ‘on walls, windows, and ceilings’ and replace them with ‘anywhere.’ That leaves the sentence: The gecko is strange because its sticky feet let it walk anywhere.”

Count the words in the new sentence, 12 words. Continue working to shrink the sentence to 10 words or less. A final sentence in this example might be: The strange gecko’s sticky feet let it walk anywhere. That is nine words.

Moving From “I Do” to “We Do”

Follow the same procedure with the second paragraph. This time, ask questions and have students turn to a partner to discuss the “who” or “what” and the important information and help you fill out the chart for that paragraph.

For the last step, let students work with their partners to create a short gist statement on a separate piece of paper, similar to what you did. Walk around and facilitate this work. As students come up with sentences that are close to being gist statements, write them on a sheet of paper to share on the document camera. You can use these examples as starter sentences and help students turn them into effective gist statements.

Graphic Organizer

Identifying Main Ideas and Writing a Summary chart

Partner and Cooperative Reading: “We Do”

When doing other read-alouds, have students work in partners to identify the main ideas.

Independent Reading: “You Do”

Some students may be able to fill out their own Identifying Main Ideas and Writing a Summary charts at a reading or listening workstation, but many students will not be ready to use this strategy independently until you have practiced it many times together.

Gecko

The gecko is a strange lizard. It is strange because it can walk on walls and windows. It can even walk on the ceiling. The gecko has sticky hairs on its feet. These sticky hairs help it to stick to things as it walks.

The gecko is also strange because it can drop off its tail. If something catches the gecko by the tail, the tail falls off. Then the gecko runs away. A new tail grows back. In fact, the gecko may grow back two tails.

Source: Read Naturally. (2006). *Gecko*. Saint Paul, MN: Author.

Identifying Main Ideas and Writing a Summary

Student Name: _____

Date: _____

Paragraph	Who or What (Topic)	Important Information	Main Idea Sentence (10 words or less)
1			
2			

Summary:

Adapted from Klingner, Vaughn, Dimino, Schumm, & Bryant, 2001; Read Naturally, 2006.

Lección ejemplo para identificar la idea principal en un texto expositivo

Materiales

- Copias de “El gato doméstico” (más abajo)
- Ilustración de un gato
- Hoja grande con copia del organizador gráfico “Identificando ideas principales para resumir un texto”
- Copias del organizador gráfico “Identificando ideas principales para resumir un texto” para los estudiantes

Objetivo

Estudiantes practicarán cómo identificar las ideas principales en un texto expositivo.

Vocabulary

Antes de la lectura: *mamífero, carnívoro, musculoso*

Lectura modelada: “Yo hago” y “Todos hacemos”

Pregunte a los estudiantes si han escuchado el término de “idea principal”. La mayoría contestará que sí. Mencione que muchas veces preguntamos a los estudiantes cuál es la idea principal, pero no siempre les enseñamos cómo encontrar la idea principal. Diga:

“Hoy vamos a aprender cómo identificar la idea principal y escribir un resumen. Les voy a enseñar un método para que encuentren la idea principal correctamente. Este método tiene tres pasos:

1. Encontrar el quién o qué más importante.
2. Decir qué es lo más importante que se dice de ese quién o qué.
3. ¡Decir esa idea en 15 palabras o menos!

Distribuya copias de “El gato doméstico”. Coloque una copia en la cámara para documentos. Diga:

“Voy a leer este texto en voz alta. Al leer, voy a detenerme ocasionalmente para reflexionar en lo que estoy leyendo. Voy a tratar de encontrar el quién o qué más importante y la información sobre el quién o qué. Después, trataré de usar esta información para decir esta idea de manera corta. Vamos a hacer esto párrafo por párrafo.”

Escriba 1 al lado del primer párrafo:

“Vamos a empezar con el primer párrafo. Cuando yo lea, ustedes sigan la lectura con su dedo. Voy a detenerme de vez en cuando para decirles lo que el texto me hace pensar. Vamos a ver si puedo identificar la idea principal de este párrafo.”

Lea el primer párrafo en voz alta. Deténgase ocasionalmente para pensar en voz alta sobre el tema y discutir la información en el párrafo. Al terminar de leer las primeras oraciones, diga:

“Parece que vamos a leer sobre los gatos. Me voy a preguntar de quién o de qué están hablando en el primer párrafo. El título del texto me dice eso también. Dice que los gatos han convivido con los seres humanos desde hace mucho tiempo y describe cómo es. Dicen que son carnívoros, musculosos y muy flexibles.”

Continúe leyendo y deténgase unas dos o tres veces más para pensar en voz alta y demostrar cómo se encuentra el quién o el qué e identificar la información importante. Cuando acabe de leer el párrafo, diga lo siguiente:

“OK, creo que tengo una idea del quién o de qué, y la información importante sobre ese tema en este párrafo. Vamos a ver si me pueden ustedes ayudar.”

Utilice la copia del organizador gráfico y demuestre cómo hacerlo con la cámara para documentos. Diga:

“Primero, ¿cuál es el quién o el qué más importante de este párrafo? Todo el párrafo habló sobre el gato doméstico, así que escribiré ‘gato doméstico’.

Escriba “gato doméstico” en la primera y segunda columna. Diga a los estudiantes que hagan lo mismo en su copia. Continúe:

“Ahora, tengo que reflexionar sobre lo que el autor escribió sobre el gato doméstico. Bueno, primero leí que el gato es una mascota muy popular. Escribo eso. Aprendí que es muy musculoso y flexible. Escribo eso. También aprendí que el gato tiene buen sentido del oído, vista y olfato. También escribo eso. Vamos a leer lo que escribí.”

Pida a los estudiantes que completen su hoja de ejercicio con usted. Continúe:

“El siguiente paso es escribir la información de estas dos columnas en una oración de 15 palabras o menos. Esto es lo más difícil, así que tenemos que practicar. Esta es la oración que yo voy a escribir primero:

“El gato doméstico es una mascota muy popular que es carnívoro, musculoso, flexible y que tiene buenos sentidos del oído, olfato y vista.”

Lea la oración en voz alta y cuente las palabras. Diga:

“Veintidós palabras. Está muy larga. Voy a ver si podemos hacerla más corta al quitar algunas palabras.”

Piense en voz alta para demostrar a los estudiantes cómo hacerlo:

“Si decimos que el gato es doméstico, sabemos que es una mascota. Puedo quitar ‘una mascota’. También puedo quitar ‘tiene buenos sentidos’ ya que puedo solamente nombrar los sentidos. La oración quedaría:

“El gato doméstico es muy popular y es carnívoro, musculoso, flexible y tiene buen oído, olfato y vista.”

“Ahora tenemos 18 palabras. Me pregunto si puedo decir que es ‘popular’ en otra parte de la oración. Creo que lo más importante es decir sus características. Voy a quitar ‘es muy popular y’. Vamos a ver:

“El popular gato doméstico es carnívoro, musculoso, flexible y tiene buen oído, olfato y vista.”

“Lo logramos. Ahora tenemos 15 palabras.”

Avanzando de “Yo hago” a “Nosotros hacemos”

Siga el mismo procedimiento con el segundo párrafo. En esta ocasión, haga las preguntas y pida a los estudiantes que discutan con su compañero el quién o el qué y la información importante sobre éstos. Pida la información a los estudiantes y complete el organizador gráfico para el segundo párrafo utilizando la cámara para documentos.

Para el último paso, los estudiantes trabajan en parejas para crear su oración para la idea principal en una hoja extra. Monitoree el progreso y ayude como sea necesario. Copie en una hoja adicional las oraciones que los estudiantes formulen aunque sean más largas de 15 palabras. Después, puede mostrarlas en la cámara para documentos y realizar el mismo proceso para reducir el número de palabras en algunas de esas oraciones.

Organizador gráfico

Tabla para identificar la idea principal y escribir un resumen

Lectura en parejas y colaborativa: “Nosotros hacemos”

Cuando se lea en voz alta, los estudiantes pueden trabajar en parejas para identificar las ideas principales.

Lectura independiente: “Tú haces”

Algunos estudiantes podrán completar el organizador gráfico “Identificando idea principal y escribiendo un resumen” por ellos mismos en un centro de lectura. Sin embargo, muchos estudiantes no estarán listos para realizar esta actividad independientemente hasta que se haya practicado muchas veces todos juntos.

El gato doméstico

El gato doméstico es un pequeño mamífero carnívoro, que convive con el ser humano desde hace miles de años y es una de las mascotas más populares en todo el mundo. Este animal se caracteriza por tener un cuerpo musculoso y muy flexible: puede pasar por rendijas muy estrechas y, durante una caída, puede girar y caer siempre de pie. Tiene buen oído, y puede mover una oreja independiente de la otra. Además, tiene excelentes sentidos. Por ejemplo, tiene una excelente visión nocturna y un olfato muchísimo mejor que el del ser humano.

A diferencia de los gatos salvajes, el gato doméstico vive con los humanos y recibe de ellos su alimento, pero como es un cazador siempre estará tras alguna presa como ratas, lagartijas, insectos y pájaros. Si no ha recibido alimento, puede comerse estas presas, pero si no está hambriento solo jugará con ellas o las llevará como trofeo a sus amos.

Adapted from https://es.wikipedia.org/wiki/Felis_silvestris_catus

Identificando ideas principales para resumir un texto

Nombre del estudiante: _____ Fecha: _____

Párrafo	Qué o quién (tema)	Información importante	Oración para la idea principal (15 palabras o menos)
1			
2			

Resumen:

Adapted from Klingner, Vaughn, Dimino, Schumm, & Bryant, 2001; Read Naturally, 2006.

Example Lesson Plan: Summarizing

Materials

Copies of the filled-in Identifying Main Ideas and Writing a Summary chart (page 3 of this handout)

Objective

Students will practice using main ideas in an expository text to write a summary.

Vocabulary

Preteach: N/A

Build into lesson: N/A

Modeled Reading: “I Do” and “We Do”

All students should have their copies of the filled-in Identifying Main Ideas and Writing a Summary chart. Put your copy on the document camera. Say:

“Now that we have figured out the main ideas of both paragraphs in the ‘Gecko’ text, let’s put them together to summarize what we learned. Our two gist statements are ‘The strange gecko’s sticky feet let it walk anywhere,’ and ‘The strange gecko’s tail can fall off and regrow.’ Let me think about how we can put these two sentences together to create a short summary.

“The first one is about the gecko’s sticky feet, and the next one is about its tail. Both of these are body parts. Both of these body parts make the gecko strange. It is strange because these body parts do things that other animals don’t do. Maybe I can say something like, ‘The gecko has strange body parts that allow it to do things other animals can’t do.’ What do we think about that summary?”

Pause to let students respond. If students like the summary, write it in the summary area. If needed, make adjustments based on student feedback.

Graphic Organizer

Identifying Main Ideas and Writing a Summary chart

Partner and Cooperative Reading: “We Do”

When doing other read-alouds, have students work in partners to identify the main ideas and write them in a summary. You may have to continue to scaffold summarizing in the whole group. This strategy is difficult to master.

Independent Reading: “You Do”

Some students may be able to fill out their own Identifying Main Ideas and Writing a Summary charts at a reading or listening workstation, but many students will not be ready to use this strategy independently until you have practiced it many times together.

Identifying Main Ideas and Writing a Summary

Student Name: _____

Date: _____

Paragraph	Who or What (Topic)	Important Information	Main Idea Sentence (10 words or less)
1	gecko	<p>It is strange.</p> <p>It can walk on walls, windows, and ceilings.</p> <p>It has sticky feet.</p>	The strange gecko's sticky feet let it walk anywhere.
2	gecko (or gecko's tail)	<p>It is strange.</p> <p>Its tail can fall off.</p> <p>Its tail can grow back.</p>	The strange gecko's tail can fall off and regrow.

Summary:

Adapted from Klingner, Vaughn, Dimino, Schumm, & Bryant, 2001; Read Naturally, 2006.

Lección ejemplo para resumir

Materiales

Copias del organizador gráfico “Identificando ideas principales para resumir un texto” (completado anteriormente)

Objetivo

Estudiantes practicarán cómo utilizar las ideas principales en un texto expositivo para escribir un resumen.

Vocabulario

Antes de la lectura: NA

Durante la lectura: NA

Lectura modelada: “Yo hago” y “Todos hacemos”

Todos los estudiantes deben tener sus copias del organizador gráfico “Identificando ideas principales para resumir un texto” completado anteriormente. Coloque su copia en la cámara de documentos. Explique a los estudiantes:

“Ahora que ya hemos identificado la idea principal de los dos párrafos del texto del gato doméstico, vamos a unirlos para resumir lo que aprendimos. Nuestras dos ideas principales fueron: ‘El popular gato doméstico es carnívoro, musculoso, flexible y tiene buen oído, olfato y vista,’ y ‘Aunque recibe alimento de los humanos, el gato doméstico atrapa animales pequeños porque es cazador.’ Voy a pensar cómo unir estas dos oraciones para escribir un pequeño resumen...”

“La primera es sobre las características físicas del gato y la segunda sobre su comportamiento. Ahora, porque el gato doméstico tiene esas características físicas—musculoso, flexible, buenos sentidos—puede ser un cazador. Entonces, puedo usar esto como resumen: ‘Aunque no tenga hambre, el gato doméstico es buen cazador ya que es musculoso, flexible y tiene buen oído, olfato y vista.’ ¿Qué les parece este resumen?”

Deténgase un momento para que los estudiantes respondan. Si los estudiantes están de acuerdo, escriba esta oración en la sección del resumen del organizador gráfico. Posiblemente tenga que hacer ajustes basados en la retroalimentación de los estudiantes.

Organizador gráfico

Identificando ideas principales para resumir un texto

Lectura en parejas y colaborativa: “Nosotros hacemos”

Cuando se realicen otras lecturas en voz alta, pida a los estudiantes que trabajen en parejas para identificar las ideas principales y escribir un resumen. Los estudiantes posiblemente necesitarán mucha práctica a nivel de todo el grupo. Esta es una estrategia difícil de dominar.

Lectura independiente: “Tú haces”

Algunos estudiantes podrán completar el organizador gráfico “Identificando ideas principales para resumir un texto” por ellos mismos en un centro de lectura. Sin embargo, muchos estudiantes no estarán listos para realizar esta actividad independientemente hasta que se haya practicado muchas veces todos juntos.

Identificando ideas principales para resumir un texto

Nombre del estudiante: _____ Fecha: _____

Párrafo	Qué o quién (tema)	Información importante	Oración para la idea principal (15 palabras o menos)
1	Gato doméstico	Mascota muy popular Carnívoro, musculoso y flexible Buen sentido del oído, vista y olfato	El popular gato doméstico es carnívoro, musculoso, flexible y tiene buen oído, olfato y vista.
2	Gato doméstico	Los humanos lo alimentan Es cazador Atrapa lagartijas, insectos y pájaros	Aunque recibe alimento de los humanos, el gato doméstico atrapa animales pequeños porque es buen cazador.

Resumen:

Adapted from Klingner, Vaughn, Dimino, Schumm, & Bryant, 2001; Read Naturally, 2006.

Text Title: _____

QUESTION 1:		
Question Type:		
Answer	Evidence	Page(s)
QUESTION 2:		
Question Type:		
Answer	Evidence	Page(s)
QUESTION 3:		
Question Type:		
Answer	Evidence	Page(s)

Sample Stems for Each Question Level

“Right There” Questions

Who...?

What...?

Which...?

When...?

Where...?

“Think and Search” Questions

How did...?

Why did...?

Describe...

Describe the relationship between _____ and _____.

What was the main idea of...?

Explain how...

Explain why...

Summarize...

“Author and Me” Questions

How is _____ similar to _____?

How is _____ different from _____?

How is _____ related to _____?

How would you describe...? Why?

What do you think about...?

Which _____ was most important? Why?

How can you connect what we read to...?

How do you think...? Why?

How would you characterize...? Why?

Student Log for Self-Generated Questions (Example)

Text Title: Dear Juno

QUESTION 1: At the beginning of the story, what is Juno watching in the sky?		
Question Type: Right there		
Answer Airplanes	Evidence It says, "Juno watched as red and white blinking lights soared across the night sky... And he wondered if any of the planes came from..."	Page(s) 1
QUESTION 2: How does Juno know his grandmother has a new cat?		
Question Type: Think and search		
Answer She sent him a photograph of her holding a cat.	Evidence It says, "He pulled out the photograph. It was a picture of his grandmother holding a cat." And when his father asks him how he knows, he says, "She wouldn't send me a picture of a strange cat."	Page(s) 1
QUESTION 3: How is Juno's relationship with his grandmother similar to Trisha's relationship with her grandmother? How is it different?		
Question Type: Author and me		
Answer They are similar in that both Juno and Trisha are close to their grandmothers. They talk with their grandmothers about their lives. They are different because Juno lives far from his grandmother, but Trisha lives with her grandparents. Also, Juno's grandmother is still alive at the end of the story, but Trisha's grandmother dies.	Evidence Juno's grandmother sends him a letter, and he learns about her just by looking at a picture. Her letter is for him to read and hear about her life. Trisha's grandmother talks with her about being an artist and reading. They spend time together looking at the stars. Juno's grandmother has to fly on a plane to see him, but Trisha's grandmother...	Page(s) Juno: 1-4 Trisha: 2-4

Source: Pak, S. (2001). *Dear Juno*. New York, NY: Puffin.

Student Log for Self-Generated Questions

Text Title: _____

QUESTION 1:		
Question Type:		
Answer	Evidence	Page(s)
QUESTION 2:		
Question Type:		
Answer	Evidence	Page(s)
QUESTION 3:		
Question Type:		
Answer	Evidence	Page(s)

Adapted from Klingner, Vaughn, Dimino, Schumm, & Bryant, 2001.

Preguntas auto-generadas por el estudiante

Título del libro: _____

PREGUNTA 1:**Clase de pregunta:**

Respuesta	¡Muestra la evidencia! ¿Cómo sabes?	Pág(s).

PREGUNTA 2:**Clase de pregunta:**

Respuesta	¡Muestra la evidencia! ¿Cómo sabes?	Pág(s).

PREGUNTA 3:**Clase de pregunta:**

Respuesta	¡Muestra la evidencia! ¿Cómo sabes?	Pág(s).

Ejemplos de preguntas para cada nivel

Preguntas “ahí en el texto”

¿Quién...?

¿Qué...?

¿Cuál...?

¿Cuándo...?

¿Dónde...?

Preguntas para “pensar y buscar”

¿Cómo pudo...?

¿Por qué...?

Describe...

Describe la relación entre _____ y _____?

¿Cuál fue la idea principal de...?

Explica cómo...

Explica por qué ...

Resume...

Preguntas “entre el autor y yo”

¿Cómo son _____ y _____ similares?

¿Cómo son _____ y _____ diferentes?

¿Cómo se relaciona _____ con esto?

¿Cómo describirías a ... ¿Por qué?

¿Qué piensas sobre...?

¿Qué _____ fue más importante? ¿Por qué?

¿Cómo podemos relacionar lo que leímos con...?

¿Cómo crees...?

Adapted from Klingner, Vaughn, Dimino, Schumm, & Bryant, 2001.

Example Lesson Plan

Materials	
Objective	
Vocabulary	Preteach: Build into lesson:
Modeled Reading “I Do” “We Do”	
Graphic Organizer	
Partner and Cooperative Reading “We Do”	
Independent Reading “You Do”	

Suggestions for Creating a Motivating Environment for Teaching Reading Comprehension

Help students discover the purpose and benefits of reading.

Model how reading affects our daily life, provides enjoyment, and helps us learn about the world.

Read a variety of content-rich texts, including wordless picture books, fairy tales, realistic literature, information books, chapter books, biographies, poems, and joke and riddle books.

Connect reading to other hands-on activities related to a theme.

Choose texts with themes that are relevant to students and connect to content area learning.

Have an author's table with a variety of writing supplies to encourage students to share their thinking about books they have read.

Create opportunities for students to see themselves as successful readers.

Ensure that comprehension activities are challenging but attainable.

View errors positively and as the point where learning can begin.

Use effective questioning techniques to scaffold student thinking.

Help students set goals and monitor their own progress. Provide frequent positive feedback as students' comprehension improves.

Give students reading choices.

Introduce and discuss several books each week (theme-related, same author or illustrator, same genre, etc.).

Provide multiple copies of a variety of books.

Provide other types of print, such as newspapers, magazines, and brochures.

Include books in students' native languages.

Showcase many books by arranging them so that the covers are visible, especially those that are new, shared in read-aloud sessions, or theme-related.

Organize books on shelves by category or type (may color code) within easy reach of students.

Have an easy-to-use system for checking out books.

Provide a record-keeping system for keeping track of books read (may include a coding system to rate or evaluate books).

Have a listening table for recorded stories and tapes.

Allow students to choose how to respond to a text.

Let students choose where they read. Create various inviting places to read. These could include a corner with pillows, a rug, or a sofa.

Give students the opportunity to learn by collaborating with their peers.

Encourage students to read to and with friends, including classmates, younger students, or other adults at school.

Pair students strategically so that struggling readers read and discuss a text with a higher-level reader.

Have students work in partners or mixed-ability groups to discuss texts, use comprehension strategies, or fill out graphic organizers.

Adapted from Hattie, 2012; Morrow, 2001; Shanahan et al., 2010.

Systematic Instruction: Comprehension Checklist

Teacher: _____ Observer: _____ Content Area: _____ Date: _____

Category	Instructional Methods and Strategies (Check All Observed)		Observed Time(s)	Comments
Grouping Formats	<input type="checkbox"/> Whole group <input type="checkbox"/> Teacher-led small groups <input type="checkbox"/> Independent work	<input type="checkbox"/> Mixed-ability small groups (e.g., workstations) <input type="checkbox"/> Partners		
Explicit Instruction Components	<input type="checkbox"/> Identifies objective <input type="checkbox"/> Activates background knowledge <input type="checkbox"/> Models (e.g., thinks aloud) <input type="checkbox"/> Uses consistent language <input type="checkbox"/> Scaffolds when needed <input type="checkbox"/> Uses examples and nonexamples (as appropriate) <input type="checkbox"/> Paces instruction appropriately	<input type="checkbox"/> Provides guided practice <input type="checkbox"/> Checks for understanding <input type="checkbox"/> Provides multiple response opportunities <input type="checkbox"/> Provides extended practice opportunities <input type="checkbox"/> Provides immediate feedback (corrective when needed)		
Comprehension Activities and Lessons	<input type="checkbox"/> Read-aloud focused on comprehension <input type="checkbox"/> Student small-group discussions <input type="checkbox"/> Background knowledge building	<input type="checkbox"/> Text structure <input type="checkbox"/> Making inferences <input type="checkbox"/> Comprehension strategies <input type="checkbox"/> Motivating reading environment		
Materials Used	<input type="checkbox"/> Content-rich text <input type="checkbox"/> Think-alouds <input type="checkbox"/> Model sentences <input type="checkbox"/> Effective questions <input type="checkbox"/> Comprehension purpose questions <input type="checkbox"/> Anticipation-reaction guide	<input type="checkbox"/> Text structure graphic organizer <input type="checkbox"/> Strategy graphic organizer <input type="checkbox"/> Effective oral language or discussions <input type="checkbox"/> Other:		

Instrucción sistemática: Lista de control para comprensión

Docente: _____ Observador: _____ Área/materia: _____ Fecha: _____

Categoría	Estrategias y métodos de instrucción (Marque todos los observados)		Cantidad de tiempo observado	Comentarios
Formatos de grupo	<input type="checkbox"/> Grupo entero <input type="checkbox"/> Grupos pequeños guiados por la maestra <input type="checkbox"/> Trabajo independiente	<input type="checkbox"/> Grupos pequeños de habilidades mixtas (por ej., centros) <input type="checkbox"/> Trabajo en parejas		
Elementos de instrucción explícita	<input type="checkbox"/> Se identifica el objetivo <input type="checkbox"/> Se activa el conocimiento previo y de fondo <input type="checkbox"/> Se demuestra a través de modelos (Por ej., pensando en voz alta) <input type="checkbox"/> Se utiliza un lenguaje consistente <input type="checkbox"/> Se apoya específicamente a los estudiantes cuando se necesita <input type="checkbox"/> Se utiliza ejemplos y no-ejemplos apropiadamente	<input type="checkbox"/> El ritmo de la lección es apropiado <input type="checkbox"/> Proporciona práctica guiada <input type="checkbox"/> Se monitorea el entendimiento <input type="checkbox"/> Se proporcionan múltiples oportunidades para responder <input type="checkbox"/> Se proporcionan oportunidades para practicar más a fondo. <input type="checkbox"/> Se proporciona retroalimentación inmediata y se corrige cuando es necesario.		
Comprensión actividades/ Lección	<input type="checkbox"/> Lectura de libros en voz alta como enfoque en comprensión <input type="checkbox"/> Discusiones en grupos pequeños <input type="checkbox"/> Desarrollando conocimiento de contexto <input type="checkbox"/> Enseñar y practicar el uso de estructura del texto	<input type="checkbox"/> Enseñar y practicar el hacer inferencias <input type="checkbox"/> Enseñar y practicar estrategias de comprensión <input type="checkbox"/> Crear un ambiente positivo para la comprensión		
Materiales usados	<input type="checkbox"/> Textos con contextos <input type="checkbox"/> Pensando en voz alta <input type="checkbox"/> Oraciones modelo <input type="checkbox"/> Preguntas efectivas <input type="checkbox"/> Propósito de la lectura	<input type="checkbox"/> Guía de anticipación y reacción <input type="checkbox"/> Organizador gráfico para diferentes textos de escritura <input type="checkbox"/> Organizador gráfico para estrategias <input type="checkbox"/> Uso de lenguaje y discusiones efectivas <input type="checkbox"/> Otro material:		

English Language Learners and Reading Comprehension Instruction

When teaching reading comprehension to English language learners (ELLs), scaffold instruction to promote their language comprehension and production.

Plan instruction that is sensitive to different levels of English proficiency.

For students who are not yet able to express themselves orally in English, nonverbal responses such as hand signals (e.g., thumbs up, thumbs down) and diagrams or drawings are appropriate. Allow beginners to work with a more proficient partner who can help translate ideas expressed in a native language. By allowing ELLs to use their native language, they will draw on all their language resources. Consider adapting texts to meet language proficiency. For example, create an outline of a chapter that students can follow or rewrite a text with simpler language.

Use a systematic approach to consider ELLs' prior knowledge by analyzing texts to identify content and/or language that might be unfamiliar to them.

Will ELLs have sufficient background knowledge to understand a story about a visit to the beach, slumber parties, a specific holiday, or going to a museum?

Consider how much they know about the topic and which unfamiliar auxiliary verbs, tenses, long sentences, and/or idioms students will encounter in the text.

Activate and/or build prior knowledge by explicitly explaining novel topics and by helping ELLs make connections between what they already know and what they will hear in English.

Teach unfamiliar and crucial vocabulary. Pay special attention to academic vocabulary that ELLs need to know to understand texts and strategies. Research has proven that academic vocabulary knowledge is important to ELLs' reading comprehension. Teach students to actively engage with new words by using them in discussions and highlighting them in different texts.

Consider the comprehension skills that ELLs have in their native language. These skills can be transferred to English with teacher support.

Scaffold comprehension.

Provide as much nonverbal support as possible through the use of graphic organizers, diagrams, photos, real objects, and acting. Use facial expressions, hand gestures, and exaggerated intonation to promote understanding. Restate critical information by using synonyms, cognates, paraphrasing, and visual cues. Facilitate access to texts by explaining how a chapter is organized through the use of titles, subtitles, tables, different fonts, etc.

Be explicit and model effective comprehension strategies.

Explicitly teach and model comprehension strategies through carefully crafted think-alouds that meet language proficiency. Repeat, clarify, and paraphrase the language you use in your think-alouds. Ensure that ELLs can apply these strategies with texts that are at their level of language development.

Check comprehension and monitor progress frequently.

Assess comprehension in a variety of ways, such as retelling main points, drawing, illustrating texts, completing a graphic organizer, and role-playing. ELLs understand more than they can express orally or in written form. When questioning, use student-friendly questions that have a simple structure and include key vocabulary from the text.

Adapted from August & Shanahan, 2006; Francis et al., 2006; Galloway & Lesaux, 2015; Garcia, 2000; Gersten et al., 2007; Goldenberg, 2013; Hickman et al., 2004; Peregoy & Boyle, 2005; Roit, 2006; Snow et al., 1998; Vaughn & Linan-Thompson, 2004.

Examples of Formal Comprehension Assessments

Retell

“Now that you have finished reading the story, tell me what you can remember about it.”

Count the number of words in the retell. Use a rubric to rate the retell on several elements, including sequencing, details vs. main ideas, and ability to paraphrase.

Cloze (Oral or Written)

“You will read a sentence or group of sentences. Each one will have missing words. As you read the sentence or sentences, try to figure out the missing words.”

For oral assessments, students say the words; for written assessments, students write the words in the blank. The following is an example.

Today, I went to the _____ and bought some bread. I knew it was going to rain, but I forgot my _____ and ended up getting wet on the way.

Maze

“You will read a story with some missing words. For each missing word, there will be three words in parentheses. Circle the word that makes the most sense in the story.”

Once in a while, a natural athlete is born. This person has an (angry / unusual / result) talent for a sport. Tiger Woods (mind / were / is) one such person. He makes the (fair / game / too) of golf look so easy, and (golf's / people / stopped) love to watch him play.

Multiple Choice

Students read a text and answer questions with four or five options. These examples were taken from the STAAR Reading, Grade 3 (2011) released samples.

Example 1

Read line 4 from the poem:

I struggled to keep up.

The poet includes this line most likely to show that the dog –

- A. ran faster than the speaker
- B. was lost
- C. looked larger than the speaker
- D. was tired

Example 2

The author includes headings in bold print to –

- A. explain why the article was written
- B. describe why pictures were included in the article
- C. show which words are most important
- D. tell what information is in each section

Example 3

What is the best summary of this article?

- A. Ranchers owned a lot of cattle. In order to find enough food, the cattle had to roam freely across large areas of land. The ranchers needed help with their cattle, so they hired vaqueros.
- B. Spanish ranchers hired vaqueros to take care of their cattle. The cattle lived in large open areas. Vaqueros used horses and special clothing and tools to help them with their work. When the ranchers moved away, the vaqueros taught their skills to new settlers.
- C. Vaqueros took care of cattle that wandered across large areas of land. The vaqueros watched over the cattle and chased harmful animals away. They also helped find calves in springtime.
- D. Spanish ranchers owned cattle that grazed in large areas of grassland. It was difficult to keep track of the cattle and take care of them. The cattle ranchers needed some help, so they hired vaqueros, who were similar to cowboys. Eventually the Spanish ranchers left.

Open-Ended Response (Oral or Written)

These examples are based on the multiple-choice questions above.

Example 1: Read line 4 from the poem: *I struggled to keep up*. Why do you think the poet included this line?

Example 2 (easier): In the informational text, what text feature helps you to know how the text is organized? What information does it provide?

Example 2 (more difficult): In the informational text, how do the headings help you as a reader?

Example 3: Write a summary for the article you just read.

Adapted from Farrall, 2012; Good & Kaminski, 2011; Texas Education Agency, 2011.

Sample Comprehension Lesson

OUTCOME

Students learn to ask questions about what they read.

DESCRIPTION

Asking and answering questions can help students to identify main ideas, summarize text, monitor their understanding, integrate information from different parts of a text, and make inferences.

Students are taught to ask and answer questions at three different levels:

- Level 1: “right there” questions
Answers are explicitly stated, word for word, in one place in the text.
- Level 2: “think and search” questions
Answers require readers to put together information from different parts of the text.
- Level 3: “making connections” questions
Answers are not found in the text alone; readers must think about what they read, what they already know, and how this information fits together.

INTRODUCING QUESTION TYPES

- Introduce each question type separately. Model first and then scaffold student application of each question type with guided practice. Once students are successful at writing one question type, move on to the next type. Most teachers spend 3–5 days modeling and practicing each question type before moving on.
- If some, but not all, of the students have mastered a question type, you can move on, but continue to provide struggling students with practice in the previous question type. For example, hand out cue cards to students at specific levels that have instructions to write one or two questions. That way, one student could write “right there” questions while another writes “think and search” or “making connections” questions.
- A student has truly mastered a question type when he or she can write a range of questions of that type. For example, a student has mastered “right there” questions when he or she can successfully write “right there” questions with varied question stems (*who, what, where, when, why, how*).
- Depending on students’ proficiency, either assign question types (e.g., one question at each level, two “right there” questions) or allow students to create questions at any level they choose.

LEVEL 1: “RIGHT THERE” QUESTIONS

TEACHER-MODELED PHASE

Tell students that they will learn about reading-related questions.

Teacher: Teachers ask questions to see whether students understand what they read. There are three basic types of questions we ask. Understanding these types will make it easier to find the answers. Some question types require you to find facts about what you read, and others require you to draw conclusions or make inferences.

Creating and answering questions will help you to understand what you read and to remember important information about what you read.

Pass out the Question Types card (pictured below and found in Appendix B) to introduce the first question type: “right there.”

QUESTION TYPES
“RIGHT THERE” QUESTIONS
Answers are “right there” in one place in the text.
“THINK AND SEARCH” QUESTIONS
Answers have to be put together from more than one place in the text.
“MAKING CONNECTIONS” QUESTIONS
Answers are not only in the text. Readers must think about what they read, what they already know, and how this information fits together.

Teacher: Your question cards show three different question types: “right there,” “think and search,” and “making connections.” Today, we will practice “right there” questions.

These questions are called “right there” because the information needed to answer them can be found in one place in the reading. Answering “right there” questions is usually easy and requires little thinking or effort.

Use a short passage (or the following example passage) to model how to create a “right there” question. Distribute or display the passage on an overhead projector. Read the passage aloud.

WHAT’S THAT SMELL?
Have you ever remembered something with your nose? Maybe the smell of hot dogs gets you daydreaming about being at a baseball game. Or the smell of burnt marshmallows reminds you of a night around a campfire. Scientists know that the sense of smell can trigger powerful memories.

Sample text continues on the following page.

Wouldn't it be cool to somehow bottle those memories? That's exactly what perfumer Mark Crames tries to do. His company, Demeter Fragrance, makes more than 200 scents. "Imagine every smell in the world as a musical note," Crames [said]. "We try to combine those notes to make a melody." He has created perfumes inspired by Play-Doh, thunderstorms, and even earthworms!

Everyday smells mean different things to different people. "A perfume we call Poison Ivy might remind you of being itchy and miserable," Crames says. "But it could make your sister think of a great time at summer camp."

Crames captures aromas using a high-tech method called headspace technology. A perfumer takes the source of an aroma and puts it into an airtight container. The aroma molecules are collected from the air and analyzed. A chemist then matches those molecules to ingredients in a fragrance library.

This month, Crames is launching fragrances for Tootsie Roll and Junior Mints. But not every smell can be easily copied. "One of our most requested perfumes is puppy's breath," he says. "But it is so chemically complicated that it's very tough to capture."

(Source: **Time For Kids: World Report**
May 2, 2008, Volume 13, Issue 26)

Teacher: To create a "right there" question, I need to find information that's in only one place in the passage.

Here's a sentence: *Demeter Fragrances makes more than 200 scents.* That looks like the answer to a "right there" question because it is a fact and it is found in one place in the text.

Let me turn that fact into a question. "Right there" questions usually start with one of these words: *who, what, when, where, why*, or *how*. Because the answer has a number, my question will probably start with: *How many*. So, let's try making a question: How many scents does Demeter Fragrances make?

OK, that looks like a “right there” question because I can easily find the answer in one place in my reading.

Now, I’ll make up some more “right there” questions, and you see whether you can find the answers in your reading.

Practice creating and answering “right there” questions with the class. Remind students to look at their question cards to remember what a “right there” question is.

The following are example “right there” questions from *What’s that Smell?*

- What sense triggers powerful memories?
- What new fragrances will be launched this month?
- Where are the scents made?

TEACHER-SUPPORTED PHASE

In the teacher-supported phase, provide students with practice and feedback writing “right there” questions.

First, review the definition of “right there” questions. Review the sentence stems most often used with “right there” questions.

Use a short passage to model one or two examples of “right there” questions. Then, have students suggest “right there” questions for the group to answer. Remind students to explain why their question fits in the “right there” category.

- Students can work alone or with a partner to write their questions, using their question cards to help them remember the criteria. Continue to provide feedback.
- Writing questions helps students remember what they read and provides a study guide to go back to. It also helps students remember their questions while they wait for their turn to share with the class. However, because many students struggle with writing, to save time, you may choose to do the question-and-answer process orally.
- Allowing students to work in pairs allows more opportunities to share and shorter wait time before being able to ask a question.

LEVEL 2: “THINK AND SEARCH” QUESTIONS

TEACHER-MODELED PHASE

Introduce “think and search” questions and review the purpose of asking questions when reading.

Teacher: Teachers ask questions to see whether students understand what they read. There are three basic types of questions we ask. Understanding these types will make it easier to find the answers. Some question types require you to find facts about what you read, and others require you to draw conclusions or make inferences.

Why is learning to create and answer questions important?

[Possible answers include the following: to check what we know about what we read, or test our understanding; to help us remember important information about we read.]

Teacher: We have already worked on asking and answering “right there” questions. You can find the answer to these questions in just one place in your reading. Now we are going to learn about a second type of question. It is called a “think and search” question. Teachers like these questions because to find the answer, you have to put information together. That means you usually have to look in more than one place in your reading to find the answer.

“Think and search” questions usually take a sentence or more to answer. “Think and search” questions are a little more difficult to answer and to ask than “right there” questions.

Use the same passage as the one you used to introduce “right there” questions. Give an example of a “right there” question and then contrast it with the “think and search” type. Ask students several more questions. Example questions for *What’s That Smell?* include the following:

- How is headspace technology used to create these fragrances?
- How might the scent of poison ivy be interpreted differently by different people?
- Why is it difficult to copy some smells?

For each question, model why it is a “think and search” question and how to find the answer in the text.

TEACHER-SUPPORTED PHASE

Answering teacher-initiated questions may help students learn content and understand a passage, but it does not teach students to use the skills on their own. Students who learn to ask questions about what they read revisit the text to check and strengthen comprehension. Struggling readers can improve their understanding and memory by learning this important skill.

“Think and search” questions can be difficult for students to create. Start by giving students a few straightforward sentences and telling students to combine the information into a “think and search” question. For example, give students the following sentences:

- Greyhounds have a good sense of smell.
- Greyhounds have keen eyesight.

The information can easily be combined into one question, such as: Which senses are very strong in greyhounds?

Continue with straightforward sentences before moving on to paragraphs.

Follow the same procedures for scaffolding as described in the “right there” teacher-supported phase.

LEVEL 3: “MAKING CONNECTIONS” QUESTIONS

TEACHER-MODELED PHASE

Introduce “making connections” questions.

Teacher: “Making connections” questions are different from “right there” and “think and search” questions because you cannot answer them only by looking in the text. To answer a “making connections” question, you need to think about what you just read and make connections to your own experiences. “Making connections” questions often start with the following question stems:

- How is this like...
- How is this different from...
- How is this related to...

Model several examples of “making connections” questions from a short passage. Example questions from *What’s That Smell?* include the following:

- How is a smell related to a musical note?
- What smells would you like to make into perfume? Why?
- Why does the smell of poison ivy have different memories for different people?
- Why do you think so many people want to have a perfume of puppy’s breath?

TEACHER-SUPPORTED PHASE

Follow the same instructions as previously shown in teacher-supported phase for “right there” questions.

Note that the goal of creating “making connections” questions is for students to integrate prior learning with the ideas presented in the text. Teacher feedback may be needed to guide students to connect their questions to the text. Reminding students to “stay with the text” and analyzing good student examples will help.

Using *What’s That Smell?* as an example, a student who asks, *What is your favorite smell?* has not stayed with the text; reading the text is not necessary to answer this question. Instead, the question *How are Crames’ scents similar to regular perfume scents?* focuses on the main ideas of the passage while allowing the reader to make connections to his or her own experience.

Reprinted with permission from Wanzek, Boardman, Vaughn, & Harbor, 2010.

Taking a Closer Look

Comprehension component: Asking questions during reading

Examine the lesson and complete the chart. Specifically state how the lesson addresses each element.

Explicit, Systematic Instruction
Modeling
Scaffolded Practice
Immediate Feedback

References

- Anderson, J. (2005). *Mechanically inclined: Building grammar, usage, and style into writer's workshop*. Portland, ME: Stenhouse.
- Anderson, J. (2007). *Everyday editing: Inviting students to develop skill and craft in writer's workshop*. Portland, ME: Stenhouse.
- Archer, A., & Hughes, C. (2010). *Explicit instruction*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- August, D., & Hakuta, K. (Eds.). (1997). *Improving schooling for language-minority children: A research agenda*. Washington, DC: National Academy Press.
- August, D., McCardle, P., & Shanahan, T. (2014). Developing literacy in English language learners: Findings from a review of the experimental research. *School Psychology Review*, 43(4), 490–498.
- August, D., & Shanahan, T. (2006). *Developing literacy in second-language learners: Report of the National Literacy Panel on language-minority children and youth*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Beck, I. L., & McKeown, M. G. (2001). Text talk: Capturing the benefits of read-aloud experiences for young children. *The Reading Teacher*, 55(1), 10–20.
- Beck, I. L., & McKeown, M. G. (2006). *Improving comprehension with questioning the author: A fresh and expanded view of a powerful approach*. New York, NY: Scholastic.
- Beers, K. (2003). *When kids can't read: What teachers can do*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Biemiller, A. (1999). *Language and reading success*. Cambridge, MA: Brookline.
- Blachowicz, C., & Ogle, D. (2001). *Reading comprehension: Strategies for independent learners*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Bos, C. S., & Vaughn, S. (2002). *Strategies for teaching students with learning and behavior problems* (5th ed.). Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.
- Bransford, J. D., & Johnson, M. K. (1972). Contextual prerequisites for understanding: Some investigations of comprehension and recall. *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior*, 11, 717–726.
- Brown, R., Pressley, M., Van Meter, P., & Schuder, T. (1995). *A quasi-experimental validation of transactional strategies instruction with previously low-achieving, second-grade readers* (Reading Research Report No. 33). Athens, GA: National Reading Research Center.
- Burns, M. S., Griffin, P., & Snow, C. E. (Eds.). (1999). *Starting out right: A guide to promoting children's reading success*. Washington, DC: National Academy Press.
- Carlisle, J. F., & Rice, M. S. (2002). *Improving reading comprehension: Research-based principles and practices*. Baltimore, MD: York Press.

- Carlson, S. E., van den Broek, P., McMaster, K., Rapp, D. N., Bohn-Gettler, C. M., Kendeou, P., & White, M. J. (2014). Effects of comprehension skill on inference generation during reading. *International Journal of Disability, Development and Education*, 61(3), 258–274.
- Center for the Improvement of Early Reading Achievement. (2001). *Put reading first: The research building blocks for teaching children to read, Kindergarten through grade 3*. Jessup, MD: National Institute for Literacy at ED Pubs.
- Clarke, P. J., Truelove, E., Hulme, C., & Snowling, M. J. (2014). *Developing reading comprehension*. West Sussex, UK: John Wiley & Sons.
- Collins-Block, C., Rodgers, L., & Johnson, R. (2004). *Comprehension process instruction: Creating reading success in grades K–3*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Coyne, M., Chard, D., Zipoli, R., & Ruby, M. (2007). Effective strategies for teaching comprehension. In M. Coyne, E. Kame'enui, & D. Carnine (Eds.), *Effective strategies that accommodate diverse learners* (pp. 80–109). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.
- Crosson, A. C., & Lesaux, N. K. (2013). Connectives: Fitting another piece of the vocabulary instruction puzzle. *The Reading Teacher*, 67(3), 193–200.
- Dreher, M. J., & Gray, J. L. (2009). Compare, contrast, comprehend: Using compare contrast text structures with ELLs in K–3 classrooms. *The Reading Teacher*, 63(2), 132–141.
- Duke, N. K. (2004). The case for informational text. *Educational Leadership*, 61(6), 40–44.
- Duke, N. K., & Carlisle, J. (2010). The development of comprehension. In M. Kamil, P. Pearson, E. Moje, & P. Afflerbach (Eds.), *Handbook of reading research* (Vol. IV, pp. 199–228). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Duke, N. K., & Pearson, P. D. (2002). Effective practices for developing reading comprehension. In A. Farstrup & S. Samuels (Eds.), *What research has to say about reading instruction* (pp. 205–242). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Dycha, D. (2012). Comprehension, Grades K–3. In M. Hougen & S. Smartt (Eds.), *Fundamentals of literacy instruction & assessment, Pre-K–6*. Baltimore, MD: Brookes.
- Dymock, S. (2007). Comprehension strategy instruction: Teaching narrative text structure awareness. *The Reading Teacher*, 61(2), 161–167.
- Elbro, C., & Buch-Iverson, I. (2013). Activation of background knowledge for inference making: Effects on reading comprehension. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, 17(6), 435–452.
- Farrall, M. L., (2012). *Reading assessment: Linking language, literacy, and cognition*. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.
- Fisher, D., Flood, J., Lapp, D., & Frey, N. (2004). Interactive read-alouds: Is there a common set of implementation practices? *The Reading Teacher*, 58(1), 8–17.
- Florida Center for Reading Research. (2007). *4–5 student center activities: Comprehension*. Retrieved from <http://www.fcrr.org/curriculum/PDF/G4-5/45CPartTwo.pdf>

- Francis, D. J., Rivera, M., Lesaux, N., Kieffer, M., & Rivera, H. (2006). *Practical guidelines for the education of English language learners: Research-based recommendations for the use of accommodations in large-scale assessments*. Portsmouth, NH: RMC Research, Center on Instruction. Retrieved from <http://www.centeroninstruction.org/files/ELL3-Assessments.pdf>
- Galloway, E. P., & Lesaux, N. (2015). Reading comprehension skill development and instruction for adolescent English language learners: A focus on academic vocabulary instruction. In K. Santi & D. Reed (Eds.), *Improving reading comprehension of middle and high school students* (pp. 153–178). Springer International.
- García, G. E. (2000). Bilingual children's reading. In M. Kamil, P. Mosenthal, P. Pearson, & R. Barr (Eds.), *Handbook of reading research* (Vol. 3, pp. 813–834). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Gersten, R., Baker, S. K., Shanahan, T., Linan-Thompson, S., Collins, P., & Scarcella, R. (2007). *Effective literacy and English language instruction for English learners in the elementary grades: A practice guide* (NCEE 2007-4011). Washington, DC: National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance. Retrieved from <http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/wwc/pdf/practiceguides/20074011.pdf>
- Giroir, S., Grimaldo, L. R., Vaughn, S., & Roberts, G. (2015). Interactive read-alouds for English learners in the elementary grades. *The Reading Teacher*, 68(8), 639–648.
- Goldenberg, C. (2013). Unlocking the research on English learners: What we know—and don't yet know—about effective instruction. *American Educator*, 37(2), 4–12, 33.
- Good, R. H., & Kaminski, R. A. (2011). *DIBELS next assessment manual*. Retrieved from: <http://www.dibels.org/>
- Graham, S., & Perin, D. (2007). *Writing next: Effective strategies to improve writing of adolescents in middle and high schools*. New York, NY: Carnegie.
- Greene, J. (2000). *LANGUAGE!* (2nd ed.). Longmont, CO: Sopris West Educational Services.
- Hall, S. L., & Moats, L. C. (2000). Why reading to children is important. *American Educator*, 24(1), 26–33.
- Hart, B., & Risley, T. R. (1995). *Meaningful differences in the everyday experience of young American children*. Baltimore, MD: Brookes.
- Hattie, J. (2012). *Visible learning for teachers: Maximizing impact on learning*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Hickman, P., Pollard-Durodola, S., & Vaughn, S. (2004). Storybook reading: Improving vocabulary and comprehension for English-language learners. *The Reading Teacher*, 57(8), 720–730.
- Hirsch, E. D. (2003). Reading comprehension requires knowledge—of words and the world. *American Educator*, 27(1), 10–13.

- Hirsch, E. D. (2006). Building knowledge: The case for bringing content into the language arts block and for a knowledge-rich curriculum core for all children. *American Educator*, 30(1), 8–51.
- Keene, E., & Zimmerman, S. (2007). *Mosaic of thought: The power of comprehension instruction* (2nd ed.). Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Kispaal, A. (2008). *Effective teaching of inference skills for reading: Literature review* (Research report DCSF-RR031). Retrieved from <https://www.dcsf.gov.uk/research>
- Klingner, J., Vaughn, S., Boardman, A., & Swanson, E. (2012). *Now we get it! Boosting comprehension with Collaborative Strategic Reading*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Klingner, J. K., Vaughn, S., Dimino, J., Schumm, J. S., & Bryant, D. (2001). *Collaborative Strategic Reading: Strategies for improving comprehension*. Longmont, CO: Sopris West Educational Services.
- Kosmoski, G. J., Gay, G., & Vockell, E. L. (1990). Cultural literacy and academic achievement. *Journal of Experimental Education*, 58(4), 265–272.
- Landauer, T. K., & Dumais, S. T. (1997). A solution to Plato's problem: The latent semantic analysis theory of acquisition, induction, and representation of knowledge. *Psychological Review*, 104(2), 211–240.
- Lapp, D., Fisher, D., & Grant, M. (2008). "You can read this text—I'll show you how": Interactive comprehension instruction. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, 51(5), 372–383.
- Linan-Thompson, S., & Vaughn, S., (2007). *Research-based methods of reading instruction for English language learners, Grades K–4*. Austin, TX: ASCD.
- Lipson, M. Y. (1996). Conversations with children and other classroom-based assessment strategies. In L. Putnam (Ed.), *How to become a better reading teacher: Strategies for assessment and intervention* (pp. 167–179). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Mathes, P. G., Fuchs, D., & Fuchs, L. S. (1997). Cooperative story mapping. *Remedial and Special Education*, 18(1), 20–27.
- McKeown, M. G., & Beck, I. L. (1999). Getting the discussion started. *Educational Leadership*, 57(3), 25–28.
- Michaels, S., O'Connor, C., & Resnick, L. B. (2008). Deliberative discourse idealized and realized: Accountable talk in the classroom and in civic life. *Studies in Philosophy and Education*, 27(4), 283–297.
- Moats, L. C. (1999). *Teaching is rocket science: What expert teachers of reading should know and be able to do*. Washington, DC: American Federation of Teachers.
- Moats, L. C., & Hennessy, N. (2010). *Language essentials for teachers of reading and spelling, Module 6. Digging for meaning: Teaching text comprehension* (2nd ed.). Boston, MA: Sopris West.

- Morrow, L. M. (2001). *Literacy development in the early years: Helping children read and write* (4th ed.). Needham Heights, MA: Allyn and Bacon.
- National Assessment Governing Board. (2008). *Reading framework for the 2009 National Assessment of Educational Progress*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education.
- National Institute for Literacy. (2001). *Put reading first: The research building blocks for teaching children to read*. Jessup, MD: Author.
- National Reading Panel. (2000). *Teaching children to read: An evidence-based assessment of the scientific research literature on reading and its implications for reading instruction*. Washington, DC: National Institute of Child Health and Human Development.
- Neuman, S. B. (2001). The role of knowledge in early literacy. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 36(4), 468–475.
- Neuman, S. B. (2006). How we neglect knowledge—and why. *American Educator*, 24–27.
- Oakhill, J., Cain, K., & Elbro, C. (2015). *Understanding and teaching reading comprehension: A handbook*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Oakhill, J., & Patel, S. (1991). Can imagery training help children who have comprehension problems? *Journal of Research in Reading*, 14(2), 106–115.
- Ogle, D. M. (1986). K-W-L: A teaching model that develops active reading of expository text. *The Reading Teacher*, 39(6), 564–570.
- Paris, S. G., & Stahl, S. (2005). *Children's reading comprehension and assessment*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Peregoy, S. F., & Boyle, O. F. (2005). *Reading, writing, and learning in ESL: A resource book for K–12 teachers* (4th ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson.
- Pinker, S. (2014). *The sense of style: The thinking person's guide to writing in the 21st century*. New York, NY: Penguin.
- Poulsen, M., & Gravgard, A. K. D. (2016). Who did what to whom? The relationship between syntactic aspects of sentence comprehension and text comprehension. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, 20(4), 325–338.
- Pressley, M. (2006). *Reading instruction that works: The case for balanced teaching* (3rd ed.). New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Roberts, G., Fletcher, J. M., Stuebing, K. K., Barth, A. E., & Vaughn, S. (2013). Treatment effects for adolescent struggling readers: An application of moderated mediation. *Learning and Individual Differences*, 23, 10–21.
- Roit, M. L. (2006). Essential comprehension strategies for English learners. In T. Young & N. Hadaway (Eds.), *Supporting the literacy development of English learners: Increasing success in all classrooms* (pp. 80–95). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

- Rosenshine, B. (2012). Principles of instruction: Research-based strategies that all teachers should know. *American Educator*, 36(1), 12–39.
- Saddler, B. (2007). Improving sentence construction skills through sentence-combining practice. In S. Graham, C. MacArthur, & J. Fitzgerald (Eds.), *Best practices in writing instruction* (pp. 163–178). New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Saddler, B. (2009). Sentence combining. *Perspectives on Language and Literacy*, 35(3), 27–29.
- Saddler, B. (2012). *Teacher's guide to effective sentence writing*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Saddler, B., & Graham, S. (2005). The effects of peer-assisted sentence combining instruction on the writing of more and less skilled young writers. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 97(1), 43–54.
- Santoro, L. E., Chard, D. J., Howard, L., & Baker, S. K. (2008). Making the very most of classroom read-alouds to promote comprehension and vocabulary. *The Reading Teacher*, 61(5), 396–408.
- Scarborough, H. (2001). Connecting early language and literacy to later reading (dis)abilities: Evidence, theory, and practice. In S. Newman & D. Dickenson (Eds.), *Handbook of early literacy research* (pp. 97–110). New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Sénéchal, M., Pagan, S., Lever, R., & Ouellette, G. P. (2008). Relations among the frequency of shared reading and 4-year-old children's vocabulary, morphological and syntax comprehension, and narrative skills. *Early Education and Development*, 19(1), 27–44.
- Shanahan, T., Callison, K., Carrier, C., Duke, N. K., Pearson, P. D., Schatschneider, C., & Torgesen, J. (2010). *Improving reading comprehension in kindergarten through 3rd grade: A practice guide* (NCEE 210-4038). Washington, DC: National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance. Retrieved from [http://www.whatworks.ed.gov/publications/practice guides](http://www.whatworks.ed.gov/publications/practice_guides)
- Snow, C. E., Burns, M. S., & Griffin, P. (Eds.). (1998). *Preventing reading difficulties in young children*. Washington, DC: National Academy Press.
- Stahl, K. A. D. (2004). Proof, practice, and promise: Comprehension strategy instruction in the primary grades. *The Reading Teacher*, 57(7), 598–609.
- Stahl, K. A. D. (2014). Fostering inference generation with emergent and novice readers. *The Reading Teacher*, 67(5), 384–388.
- Stanovich, K. E. (1986). Matthew effects in reading: Some consequences of individual differences in the acquisition of literacy. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 21, 360–407.
- Texas Education Agency. (2009). *Texas essential knowledge and skills*. Retrieved from <http://tea.texas.gov/curriculum/teks/>
- Texas Education Agency. (2011). *STAAR reading, Grade 3: 2011 released selections and test questions*. Retrieved from [http://tea.texas.gov/Student_Testing_and_Accountability/Testing/State_of_Texas_Assessments_of_Academic_Readiness_\(STAAR\)/STAAR_Released_Test_Questions/](http://tea.texas.gov/Student_Testing_and_Accountability/Testing/State_of_Texas_Assessments_of_Academic_Readiness_(STAAR)/STAAR_Released_Test_Questions/)

- Tompkins, G. E. (2009). *50 literacy strategies: Step by step* (3rd ed.). Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon/Pearson.
- Van Keer, H. (2004). Fostering reading comprehension in fifth grade by explicit instruction in reading strategies and peer tutoring. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 74, 37–70.
- Vaughn Gross Center for Reading and Language Arts at The University of Texas at Austin. (2009). *Texas adolescent literacy academies*. Austin, TX: Author.
- Vaughn, S., & Linan-Thompson, S. (2004). *Research-based methods of reading instruction: Grades K–3*. Alexandria, VA: ACSD.
- Wanzek, J., Boardman, A., Vaughn, S., & Harbor, A. (2010). *Vocabulary and comprehension: Effective upper-elementary interventions for students with reading difficulties*. Austin, TX: The Meadows Center for Preventing Educational Risk.
- Willingham, D. (2006). *How knowledge helps: It speeds and strengthens reading comprehension, learning—and thinking*. Retrieved from <http://www.aft.org/periodical/american-educator/spring-2006/how-knowledge-helps>
- Willingham, D. T. (2006–2007). The usefulness of brief instruction in reading comprehension strategies. *American Educator*, 30(4), 39–45.
- Willingham, D. (2009). *Why don't students like school? A cognitive scientist answers questions about how the mind works and what it means for the classroom*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Children's Literature

- Aardema, V. (2004). *Why mosquitoes buzz in people's ears: A West African tale*. New York, NY: Puffin.
- Aesop's Fables. "The Ant and the Grasshopper."
- Aguilar, D. A. (2013). *Space encyclopedia: A tour of our solar system and beyond*. Washington, DC: National Geographic Society.
- Arnold, T. (2015). *Fly guy presents: Insects*. New York, NY: Scholastic Reference.
- Fern, S. (2009). *Insects on the move*. Huntington Beach, CA: Creative Teaching Press.
- Florian, D. (1998). *inseclopedia*. Boston, MA: Harcourt.
- Fleischman P. (1988). *Joyful noise: Poems for two voices*. New York, NY: Harper Collins.
- Gleason, C. (2015). Life without insects. In *Everything insects: All the facts, photos, and fun to make you buzz* (pp. 56–59). Washington, DC: National Geographic Children's Books.
- Hatkoff, I., Hatkoff, C., & Kahumbu, P. (2006). *Owen and Mzee: The true story of a remarkable friendship*. New York, NY: Scholastic.
- Heller, R. (1992). *How to hide a butterfly & other insects*. New York, NY: Grosset & Dunlap.

- Hoose, P. (1998). *Hey, little ant*. Berkeley, CA: Tricycle Press.
- Kamkwamba, W., & Mealer, B. (2012). *The boy who harnessed the wind*. New York, NY: Scholastic.
- Lionni, L. (1974). *Fish is fish*. New York, NY: Dragonfly.
- Llewellyn, C. (2005). *The best book of bugs*. Boston, MA: Kingfisher.
- Macmillan/McGraw-Hill. (2011). *Texas treasures, 2nd grade, Unit 6* (pp. 366–387). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Murawski, D., & Honovich, N. (2013). Insects as pests. In *Ultimate bugopedia: The most complete bug reference ever* (pp. 52–53). New York, NY: National Geographic Children's Books.
- Neider, C. (Ed.). (2000). *The fabulous insects: Essays by the foremost nature writers*. New York, NY: Cooper Square Press.
- Neumann, S. (2012). *How to draw insects: Your step-by-step guide*. HowExpert Press.
- Pak, S. (2001). *Dear Juno*. New York, NY: Puffin.
- Read Naturally. (2006). *Gecko*. Saint Paul, MN: Author.
- Rompella, N., & Burian, M. (2007). *Don't squash that bug! The curious kid's guide to insects*. New York, NY: Lobster Press.
- Shannon, D. (2004). *A bad case of stripes*. New York, NY: Scholastic Bookshelf.
- Shannon, D. (2010). *Un caso grave do rayas*. New York, NY: Scholastic.
- Van Allsburg, C. (1988). *Two bad ants*. New York, NY: Houghton Mifflin.
- Viorst, J. (1972). *Alexander and the terrible, horrible, no good, very bad day*. New York, NY: Aladdin.
- Viorst, J. (1989). *Alexander y el día terrible, horrible, espantoso, horroso*. New York, NY: Simon & Schuster.
- White, E. B. (1945). *Stuart Little*. New York, NY: HarperCollins.

Helpful Websites

- School-Home Links Reading Kit (archived): www.ed.gov/pubs/CompactforReading/tablek.html
- U.S. Department of Education free educational materials: www.edpubs.gov
- Colorin Colorado: www.colorincolorado.org
- Reading Rockets, PBS Launching Young Readers: www.readingrockets.org/shows/launching